INTELLIGENT USE OF EMOTIONS IN PERSONAL SELLING: A STUDY INTO THE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THE PERFORMANCE OF SALES EXECUTIVES

Thesis submitted to
Cochin University of Science and Technology
for the award of the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Under the Faculty of Social Sciences

By

ZAKKARIYA K.A.
(Reg. No. 2385)

Under the Supervision and Guidance of

PROF. (Dr.) C. A. FRANCIS

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES
COCHIN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
KOCHI- 682022, KERALA

OCTOBER 2008

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES
COCHIN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
COCHIN-682 022, KERALA, INDIA
Ph: 0484-2575310, Fax: 0484-2575492
Email: cherunilam@gmail.com

Dr. C.A. Francis, Professor
(Former Professor, IIM, Kozhikode)

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled **"Intelligent Use of Emotions in Personal Selling: A Study into the Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Performance of Sales Executives"** is the record of bonafide research work done by Mr. Zakkariya K. A. under my supervision and guidance at the School of Management Studies, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences, Cochin University of Science and Technology.

Kochi-22,
15-10-08.

C. A. FRANCIS
(Supervising Guide)

DECLARATION

I, Zakkariya K. A. hereby declare that the thesis entitled "**Intelligent Use of Emotions in Personal Selling: A Study into the Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Performance of Sales Executives**" is a bonafide record of research work done by me under the supervision and guidance of Prof. (Dr.) C. A. Francis for the Ph.D. programme in the School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology. I further declare that this work has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree, Diploma, Associateship, Fellowship or any other title for recognition.

Kochi-22,

15-10-08.

ZAKKARIYA K. A.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all let me thank God Almighty for showering all his blessings on me during the tenure of this research work without which I would not have been able to withstand all the difficult situations without loosing my confidence and motivation.

I have enormously benefited from the advise, support, cooperation and encouragement given by a number of individuals during the course of this research work. I wish to place on record my indebtedness to all of them.

I owe my most sincere gratitude to my guide and supervisor Dr. C. A. Francis, Professor, School of Management Studies, who continuously encouraged me to maintain my motivation throughout this research endeavour. I owe very much to him for giving me maximum freedom in all my research activities and also for showing trust in my research efforts. I am really privileged to have such an eminent scholar and prolific writer as my supervising guide.

I am thankful to Dr. Sebastian Rupert Mampilly, member of my Doctoral Committee, for our many fruitful and meaningful discussions we had and providing me with a lot of input at various stages of my work. My sincere thanks to him for all the timely interventions and helps rendered to me while finalising the methodology of the study.

I have no words to express my heart-felt gratitude to Dr. Anandakutan B Unnithan, Assistant Professor, IIM Kozhikode, without whose advises and patient way of sharing knowledge, this work would not have been successful. I am privileged to have such a best friend in all needy situations of this work. The extensive discussions we had regarding my work and support he provided in analysing the research data had played a significant role in shaping my thesis.

I gratefully remember the support and encouragement extended to me by Prof. (Dr.) Mary Joseph, Director, School of Management Studies. Her motherly affection and timely suggestions were always a source of consolation to me.

I am deeply indebted to Dr. Manoj Edward, Lecturer, School of Management Studies, who selflessly helped me at different stages of this

research work. He is an epitome of the proverb 'A friend in need is a friend indeed'. My sincere thanks to Dr. S. Rajithakumar, Reader, School of Management Studies, for his valuable suggestions and support at various stages of this work. I am indebted to him for sharing my academic responsibilities especially during the final stage of my thesis work.

Words fail to express my heartfelt gratitude to Dr. D. Rajasenan, Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences, who is my teacher, best friend, elder brother and much more; he was a constant source of encouragement and inspiration to me not only in my research work but also in my other academic activities. I thank him profusely.

I must particularly acknowledge the untiring help of Dr. Soorej M. Basheer, Post Doctoral Fellow, IISC, Bangalore. Perhaps, he may be the only person who had motivated and supported me on a day to day basis, that too in a distinctive manner, throughout my research program. He is more than a friend to me and I thank him profusely for all his help and support at different stages of my work.

My heart-felt thanks are very much due to all my colleagues at School of Management Studies especially to Dr. V. P. Jagathy Raj, Sri. M. K. Mohammed Aslam, Sri. Sam Thomas, Dr. P. R. Wilson, Dr. D. Mavoothu, Dr. James Manalel and Dr. Moli P. Koshi, as I have enormously benefited by their cooperation, help and moral support extended to me whenever it was required. I thank them all.

Dr. K. C. Sankara Narayanan, my respected teacher and former Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences, Cochin University of Science and Technology needs a special mention. His vast amount of knowledge and experience played a significant role in making my thesis technically perfect. I thank him from bottom of my heart.

My special thanks to two of my old students Mr. Sreekanth S. and Mr. Joshy Antony, Asst. Managers, IDBI Bank and some of my present students Mr. Asif Majeed, Mr. Vivek Menon, Mr. Augustin Clinton Olivero, Ms. Shaina S. Shajahan and Ms. Rekha Ramakrishna Kini for their sincere efforts to help me at various phases of this work.

I have had the pleasure of getting the support of some of my old students who are working in various companies as executives. My warm

I thank all the sales executives who responded to my request, without whose cooperation and support, my data collection would not have been completed in time.

My thanks are very much due to the office and library staff of School of Management Studies, particularly to Sri. Surendran Cherukodan, for the good turns they have done for me, I thank them.

For my parents Mr. K. M. Abdulkader and Mrs. Rukkiya Abdulkader, it is a dream coming true. I owe my most sincere gratitude to them, without whose dreams and prayers I would not have reached anywhere near to this degree. I also thank every one in my family especially my wife Ramsi and our kids Humayoon Azhar and Haniya Jehan for the difficulties they have taken in attending to my daily routine to give me more time to carry out this work.

Lastly, I wish to acknowledge the contribution of those whose names have not been mentioned but who have, nevertheless, played their part in making this research work successful.

Kochi-22,
15-10-08.

ZAKKARIYA K. A.

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	-	Analysis of variance
CEO	-	Chief Executive Officer
CRM	-	Customer Relationship Management
EI	-	Emotional Intelligence
EQ	-	Emotional Quotient
EQ-i	-	Emotional Quotient Inventory
IQ	-	Intelligence Quotient
LOC	-	Locus of Control
MBA	-	Master in Business Administration
MEIS	-	Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale
MMCS	-	Multidimensional-Multiattributional Causality Scale
MSCEIT	-	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
OBSE	-	Organisation-Based Self-Esteem
OC	-	Organizational Commitment
OCBs	-	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours
PFC	-	Problem-focused coping
POS	-	Perceived Organizational Support

RSE	-	Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
SLCS	-	Sales Locus of Control Scale
SLOC	-	Sales Locus of Control
SLOC-External	-	Sales Locus of Control-External Orientation
SLOC-Internal	-	Sales Locus of Control Internal Orientation
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TI	-	Turnover Intentions
WEIP	-	Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile
WLC	-	Work Locus of Control

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Enhancing the competency and performance of executives have been an area of interest to management philosophers and researchers for a long time. The popularization of the concept "Emotional Intelligence" (EI) has really given a new dimension and momentum to the research initiatives that were linking personality factors with the superior performance of the executives. The concept of cognitive intelligence, which is often referred as intelligence or Intelligent Quotient (IQ), as the sole determinant of individual performance has been questioned with the emergence of the concept "emotional intelligence". Consequent to the large number of research publications during the last one decade, EI has been identified as a critical factor in the performance and success of individuals in varying roles in their professional career and it has become an important consideration in human resource planning, job profiling, recruitment interviewing and selection, training and executive development.

The academic aptitude and scholastic sources of individuals were often given importance in education for several decades as IQ has been regarded as the most important predictor of the life success. But the recent researches show that IQ alone explains a little of achievement at work or in life. Daniel Goleman, who popularized the concept of EI through his best selling books *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ* (1995) and *Working with Emotional intelligence* (1998b) contents that the all-round success in life is more dependent on the EI, rather than the IQ. In a study conducted among 500 companies including IBM, Pepsi Co and British Airways, Goleman (1998a) found that EI competencies explained more than 80% of executive job performance. He also found that EI

skills had more impact on job performance than IQ and experience combined. In a similar competency research in over 200 companies and organisations worldwide, Goleman (1998a) suggests that about one-third of this difference in performance is due to technical skill and cognitive ability while two-thirds is due to emotional competence. According to him, people with high IQ can be stunningly poor pilots of their private lives. IQ, at best, accounts for 20 % to the factors that determine life success.

Sternberg (1996) reports that when IQ test scores were correlated with how well people performed in their careers, it was found that the difference that IQ accounts for may be no higher than 10 percent, and as low as four percent. Hunter and Hunter (1984) estimated that at best IQ accounts for about 25 percent of the variance.

Emotional intelligence is also viewed as a form of intelligence but described as non-cognitive in nature. Bar-On et al., (2000) view emotional intelligence as a non-cognitive intelligence and defines the concept as an array of emotional, personal, and social abilities and skills that influence an individual's ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures.

Goleman (1998b) formulated EI in terms of a theory of performance and he stated that an EI based theory of performance has direct applicability to the domain of work and organizational effectiveness, particularly in predicting excellence in jobs of all kinds, from sales to leadership. Results of studies in many organisations conducted by various investigators including Boyatzis (1982), Lusch and Serpkenci (1990), Mc Clelland (1999), Rosier (1994-1996) and Spencer and Spencer (1993) suggest that about two-thirds of the competencies linked to superior performance are emotional or social qualities such as self confidence,

flexibility, persistence, empathy and the ability to get along with others (cited in Cherniss 2000).

Conclusions of all these studies establish a strong link between emotional intelligence and the superior performance of the individuals and this link has been further explored by many investigators with respect to success of individuals in specific roles or domains. Leadership effectiveness, executive performance, managerial effectiveness, interpersonal effectiveness etc. had been examined in relation to emotional intelligence.

It has been identified by many researchers that EI is an important possession of successful business leaders (Cooper, 1997; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000a; Golman 1998b; Sosik and Megerian, 1999). Chen, et al., (1998) has shown that close to 90 percent of success in leadership positions are attributable to Emotional Intelligence. Now EI has been widely used as a popular measure for identifying potentially effective leaders and a tool for developing effective leadership skills. Many investigators including Goleman (1995 & 1998b), Ashkanasy et al., (2002), Caruso and Wolfe (2001), Cherniss (2000), Muchinsky (2000) and Weisinger (1998)) reported the relationship between emotional intelligence and crucial work-related factors with the help of empirical research and stated that the emotional intelligence of employees is an important aspect of organisations.

Now it is a fact that, EI has been accepted everywhere as the most important determinant of all-round successes of an individual in life rather than the IQ. The difference between these two concepts is very clear. Intelligence or IQ represents the personal competency of an individual that qualifies him for a particular job, but does not guarantee his success. At the same time, emotional intelligence is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people,

and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Emotional intelligence is tactical (immediate functioning), while cognitive intelligence is strategic (long-term capacity). Emotional intelligence helps to predict success because it reflects how a person applies knowledge to the immediate situation. In a way, emotional intelligence is the reflection of one's "common sense" and ability to get along in the world (Bar-On, 1997).

Review of literature with respect to recent psychological research reveals that people who perform their jobs in a superior manner are differentiated from those whose job performances are average or below in terms of their social and emotional competencies. EI is recognized widely as relevant to the development of organisations and its people as its principles provide a new way to understand and assess people's behaviours, management styles, attitudes, interpersonal skills, and potential. Despite this popularity, however, there is little empirical research that substantiates the efficacy of emotional intelligence in many areas of individual performance.

It is in this context the present study is carried out to verify the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales executives' performance. Since emotional intelligence is identified as a critical factor in employee performance and career successes, it is relevant to explore how far this highly dynamic and multidimensional concept influences the performance of the sales executives.

One important characteristic of emotional intelligence that makes the concept more interesting to management researchers, practicing managers and management trainers is that it is a developable trait or competency. Literature shows a growing strong consensus among researchers that this trait can be developed by training and learning (Goleman, 1995; Cooper, 1997; Steiner, 1997).

However, the view of Mayer et al., (2001) proponents of ability model of emotional intelligence does not form part of this consensus. Literature reports wide efforts by researchers and trainers to develop and design programmes that help individuals to develop their emotional intelligence (Cooper, 1997; Dulewicz et al., 2003; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004).

1.1   The Research Problem

The effective personal selling has become more and more difficult task due to the intensive competition consequent on the globalisation and advancement in technology. Sales environment has undergone several fundamental changes and made the job of sales executives very demanding and challenging. Today's sales executives are equipped with advanced technological aids such as laptops, mobile phones, voicemails, emails, fax, etc. to make their sales efforts more effective. The present day sales executives are expected to deal with a variety of job related issues as a result of increasing complexity and responsibility in the emerging competitive marketing environment. The major changes that had created impact on the sales field are with respect to four categories; customers, competitors, technology and the ethical and legal environment.

According to Ingram et al., (2005) the following are the major challenges of sales executives in the modern sales environment:

> ▶ Working smarter as task difficulty increases due to technology infusions, shorter product life cycles, and more frequent product/service adaptations.

> ▶ Coping with increasing role ambiguity, which may result from blending of sales, service, and support roles.

> ▶ Coping with increasing role conflict, which is likely when company advocate versus customer advocate roles shift.

- ▶ Dealing with increasing overall job stress resulting from increases in task difficulty and role stressors.

- ▶ Developing greater expertise in problem solving and partnering skills.

Increasing complexity of the sales job and ever growing competition in the sales environment causes a number of job-related tensions that disrupt the normal functioning of the executives and add further stress to the salesperson's job. Increased role ambiguity and role conflict, for example lead to job dissatisfaction and diminished performance and directly or indirectly influences the growing rate of sales executive turnover. The modern sales executive operates as a boundary spanner in various ways. They are playing incompatible multiple roles at a time while discharging their duties as sales executives. They need to work effectively with other people inside the company as well as with customers and partners outside the company. As sales people represent the company to customers and partners, and represent the customers and partners to the company, they need to manage with the inevitable conflicting demands from these boundaries. Resolving these conflicting demands requires extra effort and skills from the side of the executives. To effectively occupy the boundary-spanning role, salespeople must balance conflicting demands attributable to their own organization, customer organizations, the sales manager and the buyer (Behrman and Perreault, 1984; Goolsby, 1992; Singh, 1993, cited in Srivastava and Sager, 1999).

Adding more responsibility and task difficulty to the sales job, present day marketers focusing on the 'Manthra' of 'Relationship Marketing' where the sales executives have to play the role of an ambassador of the company to the customers by building mature relationships by caring, exchanging value and generating effective relationship conversations. The process of personal selling and its conventional seven steps involved in the process have remained the same since the

early 1900s. But the actual roles, duties and responsibilities of sales executives have been changing drastically and presently they are more in to 'Customer Relationship Management' (CRM) and concentrating on implementing a customer-focused strategy. Dealing with the customers of present day world is an extremely difficult task as they are more empowered with market knowledge, product information and awareness of their rights as consumers etc.

As more importance is placed on relationships, the field sales force will come under increasing pressure to build strong linkages with a valued customer base. To accomplish this objective, salespeople will need greater expertise in problem-solving and partnering skills, along with enhanced territory management skills. In addition, they may need better coping skills to deal with the likelihood of increased role conflict and role stress. The modern sales executive is expected to be more empowered both psychologically and professionally to meet all these difficult challenges in an effective manner. As mentioned by Maselli (2002) a major goal of relationship marketing is to help business manage the customer life-cycle by synchronizing sales efforts across all customer touch points.

Fred Hassan, CEO of global pharmaceutical company Schering-Plough, calls salespeople "active representatives of the company (who) can influence people's perception through their ability to interact, to customize, and to build relationships with customers" (cited in Kotler et al., 2007). This statement clearly explains the role and functions of a sales executive in the modern sales environment.

The effective CRM is possible only through maintaining comprehensively empowered, well trained, motivated and rewarded sales force and this is one important area where we need to explore the application of the concept of emotional intelligence. Gronroos (1996) states that using a relationship marketing

approach typically includes a strategy that combines the following tactical elements: seeking direct contacts with customers and other stakeholders, building a database covering necessary information about customers and others, and developing a customer oriented service system.

The aforementioned discussion concludes without any doubt that the field of sales had undergone drastic changes over the years and the roles, duties and responsibilities of sales executive is redefined in view of the difficulties, complexities and challenges of the modern sales environment. The marketers recruit only those people who have good education, good communication skills, flair for selling and urge to compete for sales as sales executives and they have been put into rigorous training to empower them psychologically and professionally to transform as best sales executives. It is also to be noted that the modern sales executives are equipped and empowered with all modern technological facilities as mentioned earlier to make them compatible to the requirements of the market.

Here come a few relevant questions, why all these carefully chosen, qualified, professionally trained sales executives not perform successfully in the modern competitive sales environment? Why some sales executives perform successfully while majority fails? Do the highly successful sales executives possess some qualities or characteristics in common? These questions give way to the problem formulation of the present research.

Kotler et al., (2007) report that one survey revealed that the top 27 % of the sales force brought in over 52 % of the sales. It clearly indicates that there is a small group of executives who perform well and generate maximum sales and profit to the company, while a large group of executives perform less and generate minimum sales to the company. Companies spending huge amount for recruiting

and training the executives and hence recruiting and training wrong people and maintaining them will lead not only to decreased sales but add a lot to the cost side of the company. Kotler et al., (2007) further report an average annual sales executive turnover rate of almost 20 % for all industries. Sales-force turnover leads to lost sales, cost of finding and training replacements, and often a strain on existing salespeople to pick up the slack.

There are visible individual differences among the sales executives in operating with boundary spanning sales roles and facing the challenges successfully. Recently the researchers and trainers have started claiming the role of soft skills including interpersonal skills of the sales executives as the most important determining factor of sales success over the professional and academic standards of the executives in the modern customer oriented selling environment. This is because the success of a sales executive still depending largely on his ability to interact freely and effectively with his clients.

As the customers in the modern buyer oriented market are becoming more empowered, educated and expecting more in terms of service from the sides of the sales executive, a transactional sales representative will not be able to rise to the level of customer expectation as he lacks the required personal skill set. It is certain that there is a human element or interpersonal factor that needs to occur in the sale before one secures a loyal, committed customer. The companies are expected to drastically modify their sales executive training programmes in order to include new inputs that make them compatible with the requirements of the highly competitive marketplace. But to do so, the companies should have a clear idea about what is to be included in the training content additionally or what training input would further develop the personal skill set of the sales executives and this study is a humble effort to find such inputs.

The recent researches in the field of executive performance reports a great association between the concept of emotional intelligence and the success of business leaders (Cooper, 1997; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000b; Goleman, 1998b; Sosik and Megerian, 1999). Goleman (1998a) and Weitz et al., (2001) suggest that emotional intelligence has been critical to effective selling. Manna and Smith (2004) states that emotional intelligence should be an essential foundation in developing various aspects of customer relationship marketing among executives as they need ability to use emotions to help others solve problems and live a more effective life.

The components of the emotional intelligence such as self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social skills and empathy (described in detail in chapter 2) are seemed to be matching with the required skills of a modern sales executive. Emotional intelligence is that part of the individual which enables him to understand, regulate and harness emotions in the self and others to enhance their personal effectiveness in interacting and relate with others. Recent psychological research in this area suggests that social and emotional competencies differentiate between people who perform their jobs in a superior manner from those whose job performance is average or below.

Referring to Goleman (2000), Goleman et al., (2002), Ingram et al., (2005) report that "emotional intelligence research in the general leadership literature has generated findings that could benefit the sales leadership area". Unfortunately, the emotional intelligence research in the field of sales is limited and definitely requires more empirical research to establish the relationship between the sales executives' performance and emotional intelligence. It is quite important to explore how far this multidimensional and dynamic concept relevant to the sales performance. Empirical evidence proving the influence of the EI on sales performance can definitely influence the development of new sales executive training programmes.

Is it the high level of emotional intelligence that makes some sales executives do better in the highly competitive modern sales environment? How the personal and occupational factors of the sales executives impact on their emotional intelligence? How does emotional intelligence related with other personality factors like locus of control and self-esteem in determining the sales effectiveness? These are the major problems addressed in this study.

1.2 Theoretical and Research Background of the Study

What are the determinants of successful sales performance? Are good sales executives born or made? Is it intelligence alone that influences the performance? Is the role of personality factors so significant in sales executives' performance? Is it the combination of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities that make things happen successfully? These are some of the questions experts in the field of sales were trying to answer with research evidence. But still no answers found to be perfect and acceptable to everyone. Some still believe good sales executives are born and others believe they are made. Another group appears to believe that successful salespeople are both born and made.

As described in the introduction, it was believed for long time that the cognitive intelligence, the primary type of intelligence, is the sole determinant of the performance and success of the individuals and it has been presumed that executives with high intelligence and educational qualifications would be highly successful in their career too. But it is revealed that all intelligent individuals were not invariably successful in professional life and even some of them who were successful in some situations were not successful in some other situations. This caused further research for identifying the factors that differentiate between highly successful individuals and unsuccessful individuals. Obviously, a lot of studies were focused on personality factors too. The subsequent researches suggest that apart from the cognitive abilities, alternative abilities such as interpersonal and

intrapersonal skills requiring emotional management should also be considered forms of intelligence (Gardner, 1983).

Evolving from the multiple intelligences theories proposed by Gardner (1983, 1991) and Williams and Sternberg (1988), emotional intelligence explains that not all problem-solving situations are cognitive; perceiving, interpreting and reacting to one's own and others' emotions are critical capabilities in terms of socialization skills. Results of different studies in various organisations conducted by various investigators including Boyatzis (1982) Lusch and Serpkenci (1990) McClelland (1999), Rosier (1994-1996) and Spencer and Spencer (1993) suggest that about two-thirds of the competencies linked to superior performance are emotional or social qualities such as self confidence, flexibility, persistence, empathy and the ability to get along with others (cited in Cherniss 2000). Goleman (1998a) revealed after conducting a detailed study among 500 companies that EI competencies explained more than 80 % of executive job performance. He also found that EI skills had more impact on job performance than IQ and experience combined. In a similar competency research in over 200 companies and organisations worldwide, Goleman (1998a) suggests that about one-third of this difference in performance is due to technical skill and cognitive ability while two-thirds is due to emotional competence.

Most of the famous theories of selling emphasise the skills of the sales executives to understand the needs, thoughts, emotions and interests of the buyers as the determining factors of the sales success. According to 'AIDAS' theory of selling, during a personal selling process, the prospect's mind passes through five successive mental states: attention, interest, desire, action and satisfaction. Implicit in the theory is the notion that the prospect goes through these five stages consciously, so the sales presentation must lead the prospect through them in the right sequence if a sale is to result (Still et al., 2007). That is, if the executive is capable of reading the mind and recognising the emotions of the buyer

successfully, he would be able to lead the customer through all the stages smoothly and end the presentation with closing the sale. The various elements of the concept emotional intelligence like empathy, social skills, self-regulation etc. seemed to be quiet relevant in a successful selling situation as explained by AIDAS theory.

'Right set of circumstances' theory, which is also known as 'situation-response' theory of selling, holds that the particular circumstances prevailing in a given selling situation cause the prospect to respond in a predictable way. If the sales person succeeds in securing the attention and gaining the interest of the prospect and if the salesperson presents the proper stimuli or appeals, the sale will result. That is, the more skilled the sales executive is in handling the set of circumstances, the more predictable is the response (Still et al., 2007). In simple words, a successful sales executive is the one who is capable of building a right buying environment for a potential customer, where the buyer feels like buying without any hesitation. To build such a motivating buying environment the sales executive need to understand the buyer properly with respect to his needs, sentiments, reservations, mental blocks etc. Hence, this theory also indirectly highlights various dimensions of emotional intelligence as essential qualities of a successful sales person.

If a sales executive can understand and recognize how a customer feels at any time during his or her contact with the company, they will be able to deal with that customer's needs more effectively, because they put emotional value into their job. Though the selling environment had undergone drastic changes over the years due to the technological innovations and increased customer expertise, the conventional personal selling process remains as same with the same old seven stages. Among these stages of personal selling, the stages of product presentation, objection handling and closing the sale requires a lot of emotional management from the side of the executive. He needs to recognize not only his emotions but

also the emotions of the buyer and need to generate appropriate responses as explained by the AIDAS theory and right set of circumstances theory.

It is only natural that a successful salesperson needs to be able to judge feelings well. Empathy is the ability to know how another feels. Using expressiveness to influence prospects, salespeople must rely on empathy to read the prospects' reactions accurately. During the stage of objection handling, if the consumer's efforts to seek redress are not met, then further dissatisfaction could result leading to more negative actions or consequences from their side towards the company. However, if an adequate explanation is supplied by the salesperson, then the consumer's sense of injustice and emotional reaction may be reduced, and if a resolution that meets the customer's expectations is achieved, then the customer satisfaction should be increased. Salovey and Mayer (1989) posited that empathy is an important component or correlate of emotional intelligence. Preliminary support for this notion came from Mayer et al., (1999) who, by using a performance measure of emotional intelligence, found that individuals with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for empathy.

James (2004) states EI as the ability of a person to use emotions as a guiding tool for interpersonal effectiveness in his or her social environment. He says that the emotionally intelligent people produce win-win relationships and outcomes for themselves and others while interacting with members of the social environment. Such people develop a magnetic field of emotional attraction around them and often are the owners of an ever increasing network of social relationships and emotional support structures. The description of given by James (2004) undoubtedly highlights the importance of EI to a sales executive in the modern selling environment where CRM is prime focus. Emotional intelligence is a theoretical framework that organizes and integrates empirical research regarding emotions. The concept of emotion and emotion management has a very important role in personal selling, especially in the modern selling environment where

customer relationship management is the concern of the marketers. Personal selling is the most effective marketing communication vehicle available to organisations because of its ability to adapt to specific customer needs. Evidence suggests that emotional intelligence is particularly important in sales, where salespeople are required to be adaptive and cope with difficult customers (Weitz et al., 2001).

But it would be difficult for anyone to confirm a strong relationship between emotional intelligence and sales executive performance in the absence of empirically proved research results. There were a few attempts to relate emotional intelligence with the successful performances of sales executives. Theoretical research in sales suggests EI may also be an essential quality of successful salespeople. The well established sales performance model by Walker et al., (1977) contend that personal characteristics impact sales performance through mediator variables. Personal variables included in this model were personality, IQ, education and experience of the sales executives and the personal variables were considered as antecedent variables influencing the salesperson's motivation, aptitude and role perceptions that, in turn, are linked directly to performance and then to satisfaction. This model was conceptualised in 1977 when cognitive intelligence was considered the primary type of intelligence and hence, the role of emotional intelligence as a personal factor was not specifically studied.

Sojka and Deeter-Schmelz (2002) modified the Walker model of sales performance by putting emotional intelligence as a variable under the personal variables and reviewed the available literature that links between emotional intelligence and sales performance (Fig. 1.1). They vouch the relationships between emotional intelligence and various aspects of sales performance and propose further testable hypotheses for establishing better relationships between EI and sales performance.
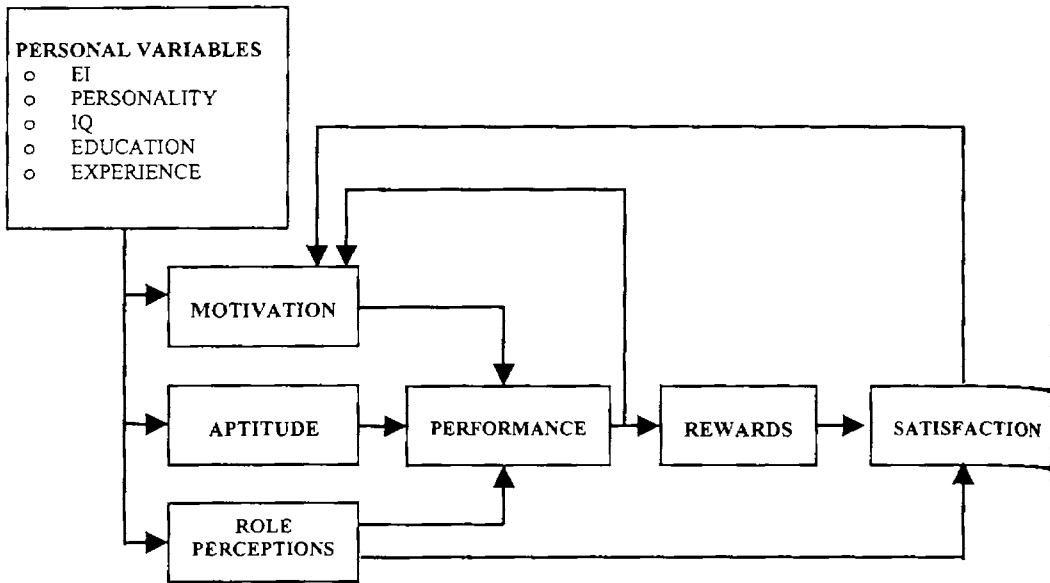
Fig. 1.1 Model of EI and Sales Person Performance proposed by Sojka and Deeter-Schmelz

A sales leadership frame-work was proposed by Ingram et al., (2005) to identify and discuss specific leadership challenges and important research questions at different sales organisation levels. Their frame-work posited that the leadership activities influence a set of key mediating variables that jointly determine sales/organizational effectiveness. They presented the key mediating variables as the determinants of salesperson performance and included four variables under that: motivation, role perceptions, skill level and aptitude. They did not make a specific mention about emotional intelligence in the frame-work but the variables included under the determinants of sales person performance were very much part of the emotional intelligence. When they concluded their discussions they proposed a few new sales leadership research and EI happened to be one of the most important sales leadership research direction proposed by them. Referring to Goleman (2000), Goleman et al., (2002), Ingram et al., (2005) report that "emotional intelligence research in the general leadership literature has

generated findings that could benefit the sales leadership area". Their work suggests that emotional intelligence consists of four domains: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Ingram et al., (2005) conclude that emotional intelligence appears to be a valuable construct for sales leadership research and observed that a little research work has been carried out in this direction.

The potential importance of emotional intelligence in the selling process has been identified and explored by some other investigators also. EI has been suggested as critical to effective selling by Goleman (1998a) and Weitz et al., (2001). Ingram et al., (2005) report a few attempts that highlighted the importance of EI in the area of selling (Shepherd et al., 2003).

From the theoretical and research background narrated above, it is obvious that identifying the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales executives' performance is of great concern to many researchers; however, a little empirical work has been reported in this area of research. That is, a research gap still exists between the conceptual frame-work of EI and its application in the area of sales performance. The present study is a humble effort by the investigator to explore the direct relationship between emotional intelligence and sales executives' performance to bridge the aforementioned research gap.

While scanning through the available research literature with respect to personality and performance, the investigator noticed the role of two important personality factors namely Locus of Control (LOC) and self-esteem on the performance of individual. A lot of research had been taken place in the area of LOC and self-esteem and both factors were found relevant in individual behaviour with respect to both personal adjustment and career performance. According to Robbins, Judge & Sanghi, (2007) an individual's core self-evaluation is determined by two main elements: self-esteem and locus of control. It was also noticed that

features of these two factors were seemed to be similar or so close to the expressions of the components of emotional intelligence. Hence the researcher wished to study the relationship between these three variables and also how do they influence the sales performance.

Locus of control (LOC) is the degree to which people believe that they are masters of their own fate. According to Rotter (1966) locus of control refers to one's belief in his or her abilities to control life events. LOC-internals are individuals who believe that they control what happens to them. LOC-externals are individuals who believe that what happens to them is controlled by outside forces such as luck or chance. A person's LOC orientation is also having significant impact on his performance. Robbins et al., (2007) reports that internals perceive their jobs to be less stressful than do externals, and internals cope better with job demands than do externals. When internals and externals confront a similar stressful, situation, the internals are likely to believe that they can have a significant effect on the results. Rotter et al., (1961) and his colleagues suggest that skill versus chance environments differentially affect behaviour.

It was found in a number of studies that internally controlled managers are better performers. Srivastava and Sager (1999) conducted a study with the proposition that internals tend to use deliberate cognitive analysis, critically examining the causes of stress and developing alternative ways to handle stress. When salespeople view variables as beyond their control, they are likely to become frustrated. Such salespeople are less likely to feel capable of translating their efforts into performance improvements. Relative to internals, externals are prone to view themselves as powerless to control their day-to-day life, and these so called "externals are more likely to attribute outcomes to outside variables such as price, quality of a competing product or personal relationships between buyer and a competing seller (Parkes 1984, cited in Srivastava and Sager 1999). The research findings of Srivastava and Sager (1999) indicate that locus of control and self-

efficacy need to be incorporated as determinants of Problem-focused coping (PFC) style when researchers develop and execute studies of salespeople's coping behaviour. They further suggest that, sales recruiters and sales managers need to develop means to reliably locate sales candidates who possess an internal locus of control or to foster a more internal orientation among salespeople so that a PFC style of coping will be applied by salespeople. Rose and Veiga (1984) reported that internals were often found to obtain and utilize information more effectively, better use their work-relevant experience to improve performance, and experience less anxiety (Cited in Roberts et al., 1997).

There were attempts to compare the impact of emotional intelligence with locus of control. People with no EI believe that their own behaviour does not matter much. They are said to be people with external locus of control, as they tend to believe that rewards in life are generally outside their control. On the contrary, people with EI have an unshakable confidence in their personality. This confidence stems from self-knowledge and honest introspection of one's own self. They are people with strong internal locus of control, for they believe that their own actions determine the rewards they obtain. They understand that life is not just about them; it's about balance (Raju, 2004).

Self-esteem is defined as individuals' degree of liking or disliking themselves and the degree to which they think they are worthy or unworthy as a person (Robbins et al., 2007). People's self-esteem has to do with their self-perceived competence and self-image. There is considerable research on the role that self-esteem may play in organizational behaviour and its outcomes. As with other constructs in the field, there are both mixed and even inconclusive results on the impact of self-esteem, but both early and the most recent studies indicate that self-esteem plays at least an important moderating role in areas such as emotional and behavioural responses and stress of organizational members (Luthans, 1995).

It is reported that employees with high self-esteem feel unique, competent, secure, empowered and connected to the people around them (Blitzer et al., 1993).

Self-esteem is a powerful thought process influencing the direction of our lives. This process can set the limits of our accomplishments, defining what we can and cannot do. According to Manning and Reece (2001) a positive self-image (high self-esteem) is an important prerequisite to success in selling. According to a study conducted by Sentry Insurance, high self-esteem mixed with candor is the vital ingredients in the make up of top salespeople (cited in Manning & Reece, 2001). Low self-esteem, according to Branden (1998), correlates with resistance to change and with clinging to the known and familiar. He notes that low self-esteem is economically disadvantageous in an information economy where knowledge and new ideas count for almost everything. In a study conducted among 104 job placement service recipients by Strauser (2002) and his colleagues, it was found that higher levels of work personality predicted an internal locus of control and higher job-related self efficacy.

It is obvious from the studies reported above that both locus of control-internal and self-esteem are positively influencing the ability to adjust with stressful situations and occupational performance as in the case of emotional intelligence. At the same time, there was only a little effort to relate self-esteem and LOC-internal with sales performance. Self-awareness, self-regulation and self-motivation are the typical characteristics of the individuals with LOC- internal orientation. The individuals with high emotional intelligence also possess the same characteristics. The term locus of control is often used interchangeably with self efficacy. However, the terms are not equivalent. While self-efficacy focuses on the perception of ability to act competently and effectively, locus of control focuses on the perception of control.

That is, there are a lot of conceptual similarities shared by these three important variables and at the same time each variable has its unique conceptual existence in predicting the performance of the individual. Verbeke (1994) and Spiro and Weitz (1990) found that personality traits such as locus of control, self-monitoring, and self-esteem are strongly correlated with job performance and career success. One unique characteristic shared by all these three variables-emotional intelligence, locus of control-internal and self-esteem- is quite attractive to any researcher, that is, all these three qualities can be developed. Researchers vouch that emotional intelligence can be developed, self-esteem can be improved and the dimensions of locus of control can be changed by training and learning.

It is in this context the present study is carried out to identify the relationship between sales executive performance and the three variables - emotional intelligence, locus of control-internal and self-esteem. The investigator presumed that all the three variables are directly influencing the sales performance and they are interrelated. The conceptual model linking these factors to the sales performance is provided in Fig 1.2.
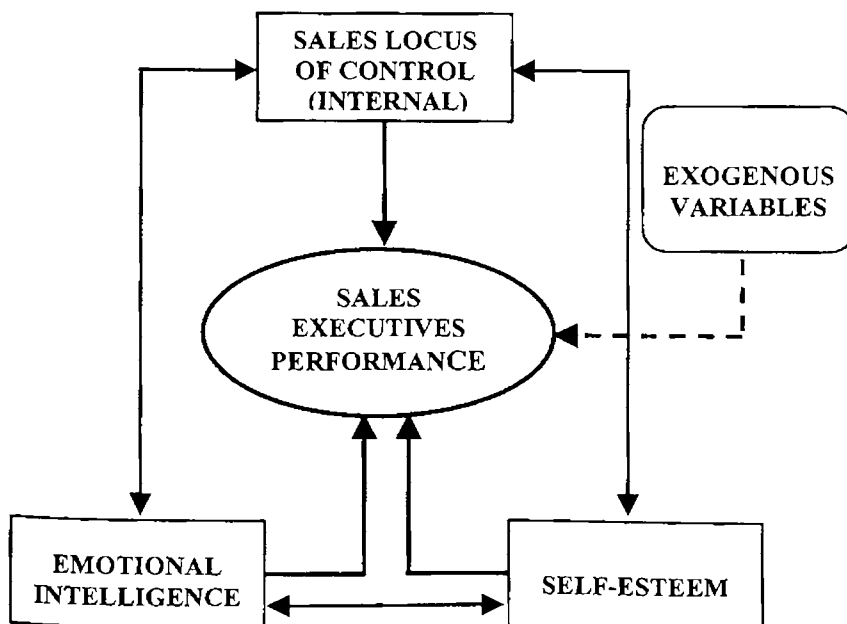
1.3   Objectives of the Study

The major focus of the study is on the emotional intelligence and its impact on performance of the sales executives. Existence of the interrelationship, if any, among EI, SLOC and self-esteem were analysed in the study. The relationship of EI with respect to the personal and occupational factors of the executives was also examined. The objectives of the study are:

1. To explain the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Sales Executives' Performance.
2. To understand whether the Performance of Sales Executives is related with Self-Esteem and Locus of Control or not.
3. To locate interrelationship, if any, among Emotional Intelligence, Locus of Control and Self-Esteem of Sales Executives.
4. To find out the influence of personal factors of executives like Age, Sex, Marital Status, Ordinal Position, Education, Experience and Parental Occupation on their Emotional Intelligence.

Chapter 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE VARIABLES

2.1   EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The term Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a popular terminology in the present day world and widely used almost everywhere, even in places where it is quite inappropriate. A lot of academic research is currently focused in the area of emotional intelligence and analyzing its influence on individual's performance in personal and professional life. The word Emotional Intelligence was originally coined by Peter Salovey and John Mayer (1990) to describe qualities like understanding one's own emotions, empathy 'for feelings of others', and managing one's emotions. The sustained interest in the topic began with the publication of two important articles in 1990 by these authors. Later the concept was popularized by Daniel Goleman (1995) with the publication of his best selling book titled 'Emotional Intelligence'. Since then, a large number of academicians, researchers and trainers started working on the concept of EI. The topic of EI and the contributions of the researchers in the field had attracted wide media coverage, culminating, perhaps, when Time Magazine asked the question "What's your EQ?" on its cover, and stated, "It's not your IQ. It's not even a number. But emotional intelligence may be the best predictor of success in life, redefining what it means to be smart" (Time, 1995).

The literature in this emerging concept contains a range of terminology, which can tend to be confusing and includes the terms emotional intelligence (Salovey and Mayer 1990, Goleman, 1995), emotional literacy (Steiner, 1997), emotional quotient (Goleman, 1995, 1997; Cooper, 1997), personal intelligences

(Gardner, 1993), social intelligence (Thorndike, 1920) interpersonal intelligence (Gardner and Hatch, 1989) etc.

Emotional intelligence is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Emotional intelligence is tactical (immediate functioning), while cognitive intelligence is strategic (long-term capacity). Emotional intelligence helps to predict success because it reflects how a person applies knowledge to the immediate situation. In a way, emotional intelligence is the reflection of one's "common sense" and ability to get along in the world (Bar-On, 1997).

Emotional intelligence represents an ability to validly reason with emotions and to use emotions to enhance thought. Emotional Intelligence is increasingly relevant to organisational development and developing people, because the EQ principles provide a new way to understand and assess people's behaviours, management styles, attitudes, interpersonal skills, and potential. Emotional intelligence is an important consideration in human resources planning, job profiling, recruitment interviewing and selection, management development, customer relations and customer service, and more.

2.1.1   Definitions of Emotional Intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence brings new depth to the understanding of human intelligence; it expands the ability to evaluate one's general or overall intelligence. Like cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence is difficult to define. Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence addresses the emotional, personal, social and survival dimensions of intelligence, which are often

more important for daily functioning than the more traditional cognitive aspects of intelligence (Bar-On, 1997).

There are lot of arguments about the definition of EI, arguments that regard both terminology and operationalizations. Salovey and Mayer (1990) had made the first published attempt toward defining the concept. The concept of emotional intelligence has been defined in various ways by different authors giving emphasis to different components of the concept. While Mayer and Salovey (1997) emphasized the cognitive elements in their definition of EI, Goleman relates it to the way people function emotionally if their function is at its potential or at least is not problematic. The definition given by Cooper and Sawaf (1997) gave greater emphasis to the higher aspects of human behaviour, particularly aspects associated with business leadership. Their concept includes factors such as intuition, integrity, personal purpose, and creativity not emphasized by Goleman. Weisinger's (1998) definition is relatively close to Goleman's definition.

Currently there are several definitions of EI in use and they do not necessarily match well. EI is a multifaceted construct and we do not have a clear, simple definition of it. Nonetheless, following are some of the widely used definitions at present.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions".

Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions, to assess and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to

understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotion so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Caruso (1999) co-creator of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), has offered another definition: 'Emotional intelligence is the ability to use your emotions to help you solve problems and live a more effective life. Emotional intelligence without intelligence, or intelligence without emotional intelligence, is only part of a solution. The complete solution is the head working with the heart'.

Martinez (1997) refers to emotional intelligence as being: "..... an array of non cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures" (cited in Len Tischler et al., 2002).

Goleman (1997) provides a useful definition of the construct of emotional intelligence, which is about:

> ▶ Knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without having them swamp you;
>
> ▶ Being able to motivate yourself to get jobs done, be creative and perform at your peak; and
>
> ▶ Sensing what others are feeling, and handling relationship effectively.

In other words Emotional Intelligence as defined by Goleman is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships.

His frame work has five branches: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) defines emotional intelligence as the ability to sense, understand, and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection, and influence.

Bar-On's (1997) non cognitive model defines emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures".

Weisinger (1998) defined emotional intelligence as "the intelligent use of emotions: you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your results".

Emotional intelligence has been defined by Mayer et al., (1999) as an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them.

EI has been defined by James (2004) as the ability of a person to use emotions as a guiding tool for interpersonal effectiveness in his or her social environment.

According to Murthy (2004) EI is the ability to choose the right feelings appropriate to a given situation and the skill to communicate these feelings effectively. It is the emotional competency which includes awareness of our own emotions, ability to identify and empathise with others' feelings, understanding the

impact of one's emotions on others and sensitivity to cultural sanctions for expression of emotions that constitutes EI.

2.1.2 Historical Roots of the Concept 'Emotional Intelligence'

When psychologists began to write and think about intelligence, they focused on cognitive aspects, and the traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized only cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving. However, in the 1900's there were several influential researchers who recognized the importance of the non-cognitive aspects. Thorndike (1920), Professor of educational psychology at Columbia University Teachers College, was one of the first to identify the aspect of EI, for which he called *Social Intelligence*. He used the term social intelligence to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people.

According to Thorndike (1920) three different types of intelligence are there. The first type is Abstract Intelligence: the type that is measured in IQ tests, that is understanding and manipulating verbal and mathematical concepts. The second, which he gave the name of Concrete Intelligence: the type that helps in understanding and manipulating objects and shapes. The third type, Social Intelligence, was in the area of what we call emotional intelligence. Thorndike defined it as the ability to understand and relate to people. He says (1920) Social Intelligence is "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls - to act wisely in human relations". It is an ability that "shows itself abundantly in the nursery, on the playground, in barracks and factories and sales rooms, but it eludes the formal standardized conditions of the testing laboratory". The social intelligence is clearly an asset in any type of teamwork.

Robert Thorndike and Saul Stern (1937) reviewed the attempts of EL. Thorndike to measure the social intelligence and could not succeed much in the attempt. They concluded their effort that "the social intelligence is a complex of several different abilities, or a complex of an enormous number of specific social habits and attitudes."

In 1935 Edgar Doll, an Australian psychologist, devised a structured interview called the Vineland Social Maturity Scale to assess social competence, which gave an SQ (social quotient) score to indicate the level of social maturity of the individual. It was forty-five years later that a clinical psychologist, Reuven Bar-On, pursued this line of research (cited in Bharwaney, 2008).

Similarly, David Wechsler (1940) explained the influence of non-intellective factors on intelligent behaviour. By non-intellective, he meant affective, personal and social factors. Wechsler (1943) was proposing that the non-intellective abilities are essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life. He had the opinion that the measure of total intelligence would not be complete until our tests also include some measure of the non intellective factors (cited in Chemiss 2004). After this there were not many initiatives or studies had not been taken place in the area for a few decades. This period had been dominated by the behaviourist paradigm and IQ testing movement.

It was Leeper (1948) who made a small but important contribution to the early work of David Wechsler, in studying 'emotional thought'. He found that emotions 'arouse, sustain and direct activity'. He proposed that 'emotional thought' was part of, and contributes to, 'logical thought' and intelligence in general. It was another thirty-five years before Howard Gardner helped to broaden the view of aspects of 'intelligence' in the twentieth century (cited in Bharwaney, 2008).

It was Howard Gardner who played a decisive role in bringing back the concept of emotional intelligence once again to the lime light. In 1975, Howard Gardner's *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences* introduced the idea of Multiple Intelligences which included two varieties of personal intelligences, the *Interpersonal intelligence* (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and the *Intrapersonal intelligence* (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations). These two intelligences comprise social intelligence. EI represents the active and intentional use of emotional knowledge to achieve desired behavioural results. The underpinnings of the construct can be found in theories of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983, 1991 cited in Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka, 2003), which suggest that individual differ in the way they approach problem solving and learning. Consistent with these theories two types of intelligence have been aligned closely with EI: interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence.

> **Interpersonal intelligence** is the ability to understand other people; what motivates them, how to work cooperatively with them. Successful sales people, politicians, teachers, clinicians, and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence.

According to Goleman (1995) interpersonal intelligence refers to an individual's ability to react to other's emotions, and includes both the ability to empathise and to perceive others' emotions.

> **Intrapersonal intelligence** is a correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life. In other words intrapersonal

intelligence relates to perceiving one's own emotions, and comprises self-awareness, self-regulation and self-motivation.

> **Emotional intelligence,** on the other hand, "is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Mayer and Salovey, 1993).

One of the most significant emotional intelligence breakthroughs took place in 1980, when the American born Israeli Psychologist Dr. Reuven Bar-On began his work in the field. He developed perhaps the first attempt to assess EI in terms of a measure of well-being. He was perplexed by a number of basic questions. Why, he wondered, do some people possess greater emotional well being? Why some are better able to achieve success in life? And, most important, why do some people who are blessed with superior intellectual abilities seem to fail in life, while others with more modest gifts succeed? By 1985, he thought he had found a partial answer in what he called a person's Emotional Quotient (EQ) an obvious parallel to the long standing measures of cognitive and rational abilities that we know as IQ, or intelligence quotient (cited in Jermy Geiser 2001). Reuven Bar-On (1988) in his doctoral dissertation used the term *'Emotional quotient'* ("EQ") long before the concept gained widespread popularity as a name for emotional intelligence and before Salovey and Mayer had published their first model of emotional intelligence.

The first use of the term "Emotional Intelligence" is usually attributed to Wayne Payne's (1985) doctoral thesis, *A study of emotion: Developing emotional intelligence.* This seems to be the first academic use of the term emotional intelligence.

The most significant contribution to the development of the EI theory in its current form was made by Peter Salovey and his colleague John Mayer (1990) with the publication of the seminal article "Emotional Intelligence". Salovey and Mayer's original Model (1990) identified emotional intelligence as the "ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action". It is to be noted that they were aware of the previous work on non-cognitive aspects of intelligence and described emotional intelligence as 'a form of social intelligence'. According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), EI subsumes Gardner's inter and intrapersonal intelligences, and involves abilities that may be categorized into five domains:

1. Self-awareness
2. Managing emotions
3. Motivating oneself
4. Empathy
5. Handling relationships

John (Jack) Mayer, of the University of New Hampshire was trained in both clinical and experimental psychology, and worked in the areas of human intelligence as well as cognition and affect (how emotions and thinking interact). Peter Salovey of Yale University had similar interests in cognition and affect, and its various applications (especially in health psychology). Though it is often referred by all that the word Emotional Intelligence was originally coined by Peter Salovey and John Mayer, they generally do not credit themselves with inventing the term and they have cited previous publications that used the term emotional intelligence. Nevertheless, their publications in the field have been extremely influential and have formed the basis for much of the academic research and thinking in the field.

During the same time Carolyn Saarni (1990), a developmental psychologist who specializes in emotional development, spoke about her work on 'emotional competency'. This focused on how children learn to accurately express, understand, and regulate emotions in their interactions with peers, parents and siblings. She published further papers in 1997 and 1999.

Goleman (1995), a psychologist and former New York Times reporter, adapted the work of Salovey and Mayer and published an international best seller, "Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ", which brought EI to the attention of the world. Hundreds of newspaper and magazine articles came out based on his book around the world which had popularized the concept. Goleman was a science writer for the New York Times, whose beat was brain and behaviour research. He had been trained as psychologist at Harvard where he worked with David McClelland, among others. David McClelland was one of the most influential psychologists in the area of competencies.

In 1997, Mayer and Salovey published their revised definition of emotional intelligence and their work on their ability measure of emotional intelligence, the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). In their seminal 1997 paper, they used the following definition: 'emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth'.

The wide acceptance of the book "Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ", motivated Goleman to publish subsequently "Working with Emotional Intelligence" (1998b), in which data from studies of more than 500 corporations were analysed to prove that emotional competencies could create

more successful employees and companies. These two books made a notable contribution in defining, applying and popularising the concept of EI and the second book particularly focused on the important contribute on that organisation members' emotional intelligence makes in the work place. Goleman explains Emotional Intelligence as the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. He described EI as abilities distinct from, but complementary to, academic intelligence, the purely cognitive capacities measured by IQ.

Since 1998, a proliferation of different models, theories, tests and books have emerged. A large number of articles got published on the topic and researchers from various parts of the world had been motivated to undertake research on the topic. Currently 'Emotional Intelligence' is a hot topic in Human Resource Management and also in the area of Organisational Behaviour and a lot of research is going on.

2.1.3   The Major Emotional Intelligence Models

The encyclopedia of Applied Psychology states that there are three major models of emotional intelligence:

a) **The Mayer-Salovey model:** which defines this construct as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking;

b) **The Bar-On model:** this describes EI as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behaviour and

c) **The Goleman model:** which views it as an array of emotional and social competencies that contribute to managerial performance.

The Bar-On Model and the Goleman Model are also known as the Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence. Models that mix together emotional intelligence qualities with other personality traits unrelated to either emotion or intelligence are often referred to as *mixed models* of emotional intelligence.

2.1.3.1 The Mayer-Salovey Model of Emotional Intelligence (Ability Model)

It is the first formal model of emotional intelligence - the 1990 model - was the one Daniel Goleman relied on in his popularization of the field. The Mayer-Salovey model of Emotional Intelligence is widely known as the 'Ability Model of EI'. The model views emotions and thoughts as working with each other in adaptive ways. This model defines EI as "intelligence" in the traditional sense, that is, as a set of mental abilities to do with emotions and the processing of emotional information that are a part of, and contribute to, logical thought and intelligence in general. These abilities are arranged hierarchically from basic psychological process to the more psychologically integrated and complex, and are thought to develop with age and experience in much the same way as crystallized abilities. Further, they are considered to be independent of traits and talents and preferred ways of behaving (Mayer and Salovey, 1993).

Emotional intelligence refers in part to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotional patterns and to reason and solve problems on the basis of them (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and

emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotion so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

The Mayer-Salovey model was initially known as Four Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence. This model describes four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe many of areas of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). The domain of emotional intelligence describes several discrete emotional abilities. As per the ability model of EI, these emotional abilities can be divided into four classes or branches, as shown below.

1. Perception and Appraisal of emotions (Identifying Emotions):

The most basic skill involves the perception and appraisal of emotion. It is the ability to recognize how you and those around you are feeling. The initial, most basic, area has to do with the nonverbal reception and expression of emotion. The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions.

Individuals who accurately appraise and express (perceive and respond to) their emotions are likely to be better understood by the people they work with, and they also have the potential to better lead and manage people when they are able to perceive the emotions of the people around them and to develop empathy- the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself (Salovey and Mayer, 1989, 1990)

2. Assimilating Emotion in Thought (Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought):

The second set of skills involve assimilating basic emotional experiences into mental life, including weighing emotions against one another and against other

sensations and thoughts and allowing emotions to direct attention. In other words it is the capacity of the emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive system and promote thinking. For example, cognitive scientists pointed out that emotions prioritize thinking. In other words: something we respond to emotionally, is something that grabs our attention. We may hold an emotional state in consciousness so as to compare it with a similar sensation in sound, colour, or taste (Mayer et al., 2000).

Individuals also differ in the ways (functional *vs.* dysfunctional) in which they utilise their emotions. Emotions can:

- Help in generating multiple future plans (flexible planning)
- Improve the decision-making process due to a better understanding of one's emotional reaction (creative thinking)
- Facilitate cognitive processes such as creativity on the one hand and punctuality on the other hand (mood redirected attention); and
- Enhance persistence regarding challenging tasks (motivating emotions) (Salovey and Mayer, 1989, 1990)

3. Understanding and Analysing Emotions:

The third level involves understanding and reasoning about emotions. It is the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional 'chains', how emotions transition from one stage to another. According to the proponents of the model, emotions convey information: Happiness usually indicates a desire to join with other people; anger indicates a desire to attack or harm others; fear indicates a desire to escape and so forth. According to Mayer and Barsade (2008) each emotion conveys its own pattern of possible messages, and actions associated with those messages. He says a message of anger, for example, may mean that the

individual feels treated unfairly. The anger, in turn, might be associated with specific sets of possible actions: peacemaking, attacking, retribution and revenge-seeking, or withdrawal to seek calmness. Understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important aspect of this area of skill. In other words, emotional intelligence involves the ability to recognize the emotions, to know how they unfold, and to reason about them accordingly.

4. Managing Emotions:

The fourth, highest level, of emotional intelligence involves the management and regulation of emotion in oneself and others such as knowing how to calm down after feeling angry or being able to alleviate the anxiety of another person. Mayer et al., (2008) says that a person needs to understand emotions convey information. To the extent that it is under voluntary control, a person may want to remain open to emotional signals so long as they are not too painful, and block out those that are overwhelming. In between, within the person's emotional comfort zone, it becomes possible to regulate and manage one's own and others' emotions so as to promote one's own and others' personal and social goals.

People differ in their ability to manage (monitor, evaluate, and adjust to changing moods) their emotions as well as in their ability to regulate and alter the affective reactions of others (Salovey and Mayer 1989, 1990). Regulation of one's own emotions and moods results in positive and negative affective states. Emotionally, intelligent individuals are adept at placing themselves in positive affective states and are able to experience negative affective states that have insignificant destructive consequences.

Mayer et al., (2000) opine that the mental ability model of emotional intelligence makes predictions about the internal structure of the intelligence and

also its implications for a person's life. The theory predicts that emotional intelligence is, in fact, an intelligence like other intelligences in that it will meet three empirical criteria. First, mental problems have right or wrong answers, as assessed by the convergence of alternative scoring methods. Second, the measured skills correlate with other measures of mental ability (because mental abilities tend to intercorrelate) as well as with self-reported empathy. Third, the absolute ability level rises with age (Mayer et al., 2000).

The model further predicts that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to (a) have grown up in biosocially adaptive households (i.e., have had emotionally sensitive parenting), (b) be nondefensive, (c) be able to reframe emotions effectively (i.e., be realistically optimistic and appreciative), (d) choose good emotional role models, (e) be able to communicate and discuss feelings, and (f) develop expert knowledge in a particular emotional area such as aesthetics, moral or ethical feeling, social problem solving, leadership, or spiritual feeling (Mayer and Salovey, 1995).

2.1.3.2 The Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence

Unlike the Ability model, the Bar-On model explicitly included non-ability traits also in its efforts to explain Emotional intelligence and it is also known as Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence. The Bar-On's (1997) non-cognitive model defines emotional intelligence as "an array of non cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. While Bar-On (2000) places this model under the banner of EI, it is a somewhat broader construct to which he more generically refers as "... emotional and social intelligence". This model describes EI as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behaviour. He defines emotional intelligence as

being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands.

This model can be divided into two main parts. The first part is the theory, or conceptualization, of emotional-social intelligence; and the second part is the psychometric aspect of the model which is, essentially, the measure of emotional-social intelligence which was based on the theory and designed to assess it. These two aspects of the model have also been referred to as (a) the Bar-On conceptual model of emotional-social intelligence and (b) the Bar-On psychometric model of emotional-social intelligence, while (c) the Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence refers to both the conceptual and the psychometric aspects of this model combined into one entity. The psychometric aspect of the Bar-On model is the measure of the construct which was created to assess the conceptual aspect of this model.

Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional intelligence was intended to answer the question, "Why are some individuals more able to succeed in life than others?" Bar-On reviewed the psychological literature for personality characteristics that appeared related to life success. He has operationalisation this model according to 15 conceptual components that pertain to five specific dimensions of emotional and social intelligence. These five major domains in Bar-On's (1997) model are:

1. Intrapersonal skills: representing abilities, capabilities, competencies and skills pertaining to the inner self.
2. Interpersonal skills: representing interpersonal skills and functioning.

3. Adaptability: representing how successfully one is able to cope with environmental demands by effectively sizing up and dealing with problematic situation.

4. Stress management : concerning the ability to manage and cope effectively with stress and

5. General mood: pertaining to the ability to enjoy life and to maintain a positive disposition.

Each broad area is further subdivided. For example, intrapersonal skills are divided into emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualisation, and independence. The 15 components of the model are described as non-cognitive variables that "…..resemble personality factors" (Bar-On, 1997).

Bar-On offered the following rationale for his use of the term emotional intelligence:

Intelligence describes the aggregate of abilities, competencies, and skills… that…represent a *collection of knowledge used to cope with life effectively*. The adjective emotional is employed to emphasize that this specific type of intelligence differs from cognitive intelligence… (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On's theoretical work combines what may qualify as mental abilities (e.g., emotional self awareness) with other characteristics that are considered separable from mental ability, such as personal independence, self-regard, and mood; this makes it a mixed model (cited in Mayer et al., 2000). Bar-On (1997) contented that to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures.

Bar-On proposes that the components of this model develop over time, change throughout life, and can be improved through training and development

programmes, and that the model relates to the potential for performance rather than performance itself.

The development of Bar-On's model of EI had been influenced by the contributions of many earlier theorists including Darwin, Thorndike and Wechsler. Darwin's early work (1837-1872) on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation influenced the development of the Bar-On model, which also stresses the importance of emotional expression and views the outcome of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour in terms of effective and successful adaptation. Thorndike's (1920) description of social intelligence and its importance for human performance as well as Wechsler's (1940) observations related to the impact of non-intellective (non-cognitive) factors on what he referred to as intelligent behaviour are also influenced the development of the Bar-On's Model. Gardner's (1983) introduction of the concept of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences, within the context of multiple intelligences, had an impact on the development of the intrapersonal and interpersonal components of the Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence.

The most popularly used measure of Emotional Intelligence is the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (the EQ-i). The development of the conceptual aspect of the Bar-On model and the construction of its psychometric component (the EQ-i) are closely interrelated. Consequently, the EQ-i may be considered an 'operationalisation' of this model.

Consistent with the way this model is conceptualized, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. This is based, first and foremost, on our

intrapersonal ability to be aware of ourselves, to understand our strengths and weaknesses, and to express our feelings and thoughts non-destructively.

On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent encompasses the ability to be aware of others' emotions, feelings and needs, and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Ultimately, being emotionally and socially intelligent means to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions as the need arises. To do this, we need to manage emotions so that they work for us and not against us, and we need to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated.

Subsequently, Bar-On (2000) defined EI in terms of an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence our overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands. This array includes

1. The ability to be aware of, to understand, and to express oneself;
2. The ability to be aware of, to understand, and to relate to others;
3. The ability to deal with strong emotions and control one's impulses; and
4. The ability to adopt to change and to solve problems of a personal or a social nature.

2.1.3.3 The Goleman Model (The Emotional Competencies Model):

Daniel Goleman's books, *Emotional Intelligence* (1995) and *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998b), have served to popularize this relatively new area 'Emotional Intelligence'. He has presented his adaptation of a few existing models of emotional intelligence and emphasized how it is altered throughout life, the

ways basic emotional skills can augment one's ability to function better and to succeed in life, and the price paid for what he calls "emotional literacy".

The EI model introduced by Daniel Goleman focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive managerial performance. The competency-based model of emotional intelligence by Goleman (2001) has been designed specifically for workplace applications. In *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman (1998b) explored the function of EI on the job, and claimed EI to be the strongest predictor of success in the workplace, with more recent confirmation of these findings on a worldwide sample seen in Bradberry and Greaves, "The Emotional Intelligence Quick Book" (2005).

In his research at nearly 200 large, global companies, Goleman found that truly effective leaders are distinguished by a high degree of emotional intelligence. Without it, a person can have first-class training, an incisive mind, and an endless supply of good ideas, but he still won't be a great leader.

Goleman's model of intelligence is also a mixed model and it is characterized by the five broad areas. They are 1) knowing one's emotions (Self-awareness), 2) managing emotions (Self-management) 3) motivating oneself, 4) recognising emotions in others (Social awareness) and 5) handling relationships (Relationship management). Goleman included a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

Goleman (1998a) summarises the five broad areas of his EI model in his famous article published in Harvard Business Review (HBR) as given in the following table:

Table 2.1: Summary of the five broad areas of competency-based model of EI by Goleman

	Definition	Hallmarks
Self-Awareness	The ability to recognize and understand your moods, emotions, and drives, as well as their effect on others.	• Self-confidence • Realistic self-assessment • Self-deprecating sense of humor
Self-Regulation	The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods. The propensity to suspend judgment-to think before acting.	• Trustworthiness and integrity • Comfort with ambiguity • Openness to change
Motivation	A passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status A propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence.	• Strong drive to achieve • Optimism, even in the face of failure • Organisational commitment
Empathy	The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people. Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions.	• Expertise in building and retaining talent • cross-cultural sensitivity service to clients and customers
Social skill	Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks. An ability to find common ground and build rapport.	• Effectiveness in leading change persuasiveness • Expertise in building and leading teams

Goleman (1995) recognized that he was moving from emotional intelligence to something far broader. He states that "ego resilience is quite similar to [this model] emotional intelligence" in that it includes social (and emotional) competencies. He goes so far as to note that, "There is an old - fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: *Character*" (Goleman, 1995).

Goleman (1995) notes that, "at best, IQ contributes about 20 % to the factors that determine life success, which leaves 80% to other factors". He further states that EI can be as powerful, and at times more powerful, than IQ" Mayer et al., (2000) opines that, 'it is hard not to conclude that at least part of the popular excitement surrounding emotional intelligence is due to these very strong claims'.

Goleman (2001) proposes that the underlying abilities of the model are necessary, though not sufficient, to manifest competence in any one of the EI domains" and that the emotional competencies are job skills that can be learned. Within this context, Goleman defines emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize and regulate emotions both within the self and others.

Table 2.2 Three Competing Models of Emotional Intelligence*

Mayer & Salovey (1997)	Bar-On (1997)	Goleman (1995)
Overall Definition	**Overall Definition**	**Overall Definition**
"Emotional intelligence is the set of abilities that account for how people's emotional perception and understanding vary in their accuracy. More formally, we define emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion and regulate emotion in the self and others". (after Mayer & Salovey, 1997)	"Emotional intelligence is an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures". (Bar-On, 1997)	" The abilities called here *emotional intelligence*, which include self control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself" (Goleman, 1995). "There is an old-fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: *Character*" (Goleman, 1995).
Major Areas of skills and Specific Examples *Perception and Expression of Emotion* • Identifying and expressing emotions in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts. • Identifying and expressing emotions in other people, artwork, language, etc.	**Major Areas of skills and Specific Skills** *Intrapersonal Skills* • Emotional self-awareness • Assertiveness • Self-Regard • Self-Actualisation • Independence *Interpersonal Skills* • Interpersonal	**Major Areas of skills and Specific Examples** *Knowing One's Emotions* • Recognising a feeling as it happens. • Monitoring feelings from moment to moment *Management Emotions* • Handling feelings so they are appropriate.

Assimilating Emotion in Thought • Emotions prioritize thinking in productive ways. • Emotions generated as aids to judgment and memory. *Understanding and Analysing Emotion* • Ability to label emotions, including complex emotions and simultaneous feelings. • Ability to understand relationships associated with shifts of emotions. *Reflective Regulation of Emotion* • Ability to stay open to feelings. • Ability to monitor and regulate emotions reflectively to promote emotional and intellectual growth". (after Mayer & Salovey, 1997)	relationships • Social responsibility • Empathy *Adaptability Scales:* • Problem solving • Reality testing • Flexibility *Stress-Management Scales:* • Stress tolerance, • Impulse control *General Mood:* • Happiness • Optimism	• Ability to soothe oneself. • Ability to shake off rampant anxiety, gloom, or irritability. *Motivating Oneself* • Marshalling emotions in the service of a goal. • Delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness. • Being able to get into the "flow" state. *Recognising Emotions in Others* • Empathic awareness. • Attunement to what others need or want. *Handling Relationships* • Skill in managing emotions in others. • Interacting smoothly with others
Model Type Ability	**Model Type** Mixed	**Model Type** Mixed

*Source: Models of Emotional Intelligence by Mayer et al., (2000).

It is evident from the table 2.2, that three models represent emotional intelligence are described in different ways by Mayer et al., (2000). Both the Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995) models are distributed across the various levels. For example, Bar-On's adaptability skills (problem-solving, reality testing, and flexibility) primarily represent cognitive skills (lower right), whereas his interpersonal skills (interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, and empathy) primarily represent more synthetic interpersonal relatedness (upper right). By way of contrast, the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model fits within the emotion and cognitive interactions area. The diagram shows in yet another way that a central difference among models is that the mental ability models operate in a region defined by emotion and cognition, whereas mixed models label a multitude of components as emotional intelligence (cited in Mayer et al., 2000).

The theory of emotional intelligence introduced in 1990 by Peter Salovey and John Mayer had undergone several modifications later on and several distinctive EI models had been generated by various investigators including Salovey and Mayer themselves.

Goleman (1998b) says that all these EI models share a common core of basic concepts. Emotional intelligence at the most general level refers to the abilities to recognize and regulate emotions in ourselves and in others.

Goleman (2004) asserts that there are human abilities which lies between the mind and the heart, or more technically, between cognition and emotion. Some abilities are purely cognitive, like IQ or technical expertise. Other abilities integrate thought and feeling and fall within the domain of emotional intelligence, a term that highlights the crucial role of emotion in their performance. He is of the opinion that all emotional intelligence abilities involve some degree of skill in the affective domain, along with skill in whatever cognitive elements are also at play

in each ability. This stands in sharp contrast to purely cognitive aspects of intelligence, which, to a large degree, computers can be programmed to execute about as well as a person can.

The most widely accepted EI model with empirical support is a four-branch model proposed by Salovey et al., (2002). This model posits that emotional intelligence consists of the abilities to: perceive one's own and others' emotions and to accurately express one's own emotions; facilitate thought and problem solving through use of emotions; understand the causes of emotion and relationships between emotional experiences; and manage one's own and others' emotions.

The personal factors model developed by Dulewicz and Higgs (2000a) measures EI in terms of seven elements, which are as follows:

1. *Self-awareness*: Being aware of one's feelings and being able to manage them.
2. *Emotional resilience*: Being able to maintain one's performance when under pressure.
3. *Motivation*: Having the drive and energy to attain challenging goals or targets.
4. *Inter-personal sensitivity*: Showing sensitivity and empathy towards others
5. *Influence*: The ability to influence and persuade others to accept your views or proposals.
6. *Intuitiveness*: The ability to make decisions, using reason and intuition when appropriate.
7. *Conscientiousness and integrity*: Being consistent in one's words and actions, and behaving according to prevailing ethical standards.

The conceptualizations of the EI construct are different among different researchers and that resulted in different approaches to the operationalisation of the concept. However they appear to share a view of the roots of EI and its place within organizational context. It can be concluded that the approaches to operationalisation tend to fall into three broad categories, namely Abilities (Mayer et al, 2001), Competencies (Goleman, 1998b) and personal factors (Bar-On, 2000; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000a)

2.1.4 Can Emotional Intelligence be Learned?

This is an interesting question and this particular aspect-learnable, made this concept so popular all over the world. Are people born with certain levels of empathy, for example, or do they acquire empathy as a result of life's experiences? Goleman (1998b) says the answer is both. He stated that the scientific inquiry strongly suggests that there is a genetic component to emotional intelligence. He further puts that psychological and developmental research indicates that nurture plays a role as well. How much of each perhaps will never be known, but research and practice clearly demonstrate that emotional intelligence can be learned (Goleman, 1998b).

He has the opinion that the EI can be improved with the help of the training programmes focused on the right part of the brain. EI is born largely in the neurotransmitters of the brain's limbic system, which governs feelings, impulses, and drives. Research indicates that the limbic system learn best through motivation, extended practice, and feedback. Compare this with the kind of learning that goes on in the neocortex, which governs analytical and technical ability. The neocortex, grasps concepts and logic. It is the part of the brain that figures out how to use a computer or make sales call by reading a book. Goleman (1998b) says not surprisingly-but mistakenly- it is also the part of the brain

targeted by most training programmes aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence. Based on his research with the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations, he further adds that when such programmes take, in effect, a neocortical approach can even have a negative impact on people's job performance. Goleman (1998b) opines that the organisations must refocus their training to include the limbic system to enhance the emotional intelligence of the employees and the training programme requires an individualized approach.

Sincere desire and concerted effort from the part of the individual is essential for building one's emotional intelligence. A brief seminar won't help; nor can one buy a how-to learn manual. It is much harder to learn to empathize- to internalize empathy as a natural response to people- than it is to become adept at regression analysis (Goleman 1998b). Goleman (1998a) concludes his famous HBR article as "It is fortunate, then, that emotional intelligence can be learned. The process is not easy. It takes time and, most of all, commitment. But the benefits that come from having a well-developed emotional intelligence, both for the individual and for the organisation, make it worth the effort".

Raju (2004) proposes the following as the ways in which one can improve his emotional intelligence:

- Take responsibility for your emotions and your happiness.
- Examine your own feelings rather than the actions or motives of other people.
- Develop constructive coping skills for specific moods. Learn to relax when your emotions are running high and to get up and move when you are feeling down.
- Make hunting for the silver lining a game. Look for the humour or life lesson in a negative situation.

- Be honest with yourself. Acknowledge your negative feelings, look for their source, and come up with a way to solve the underlying problem.

- Show respect by respecting other people's feelings.

- Avoid people who invalidate you or don't respect your feelings.

- Listen twice as much as you speak.

- Pay attention to non-verbal communication. We communicate with our whole selves. Watch faces, listen to tone of voice, and take note of body language.

- Realize that improving your EI will take time and patience.

2.1.5 Criticisms of the Theoretical Foundation of Emotional Intelligence

1. EI is too broadly defined and the definitions are unstable

The major criticism over the theoretical foundation of EI is about its definition. It is argued by many that the definition of EI is constantly changing and broadening- which has come to encompass many unrelated elements- had rendered it an unintelligible concept. Some of the critics mention that without some stabilization of the concepts and the measurement instruments, meta-analyses are difficult to implement, and the theory coherence is likely to be adversely impacted by this instability.

2. EI cannot be recognized as a form of intelligence

Goleman's early work has been criticized for assuming from the beginning that EI is a type of intelligence. Eysenck (2000) writes that Goleman's description of EI contains unsubstantiated assumptions about intelligence in general, and that it even runs contrary to what researchers have come to expect when studying types of intelligence (cited in Wikipedia, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotional intelligence). Locke (2005) argues that the concept of EI in itself is a misrepresentation of the intelligence construct, it is not another form or type of

intelligence, but intelligence (the ability to grasp abstractions) applied to a particular domain: emotions. He suggests that the concept should be re-labeled and referred to as skills.

3. Claims for the predictive power of EI are too extreme; it has no substantial predictive value

A distinction has been made between the 'commercial wing' and 'the academic wing' of the EI movement by Landy (2005). According to him, the former makes expensive claims on the applied value of EI, while the later is trying to warn users against these claims. As an example, Goleman (1998a) asserts that "the most effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: they all have a high degree of what has come to be known as emotional intelligence. .....emotional intelligence is the *sine qua non* of leadership". In contrast, Mayer (1999) cautions "the popular literature's implication - that highly emotionally intelligent people posses an unqualified advantage in life - appears overly enthusiastic at present and unsubstantiated by reasonable scientific standards."

The predictive validity of the construct EI had been questioned by a few researchers. For example, Landy (2005) has claimed that the few incremental validity studies conducted on EI have demonstrated that it adds little or nothing to the explanation or prediction of some common outcomes (most notably academic and work success). Landy proposes that the reason some studies have found a small increase in predictive validity is in fact a methodological fallacy - incomplete consideration of alternative explanations. He puts, *"EI is compared and contrasted with a measure of abstract intelligence but not with a personality measure, or with a personality measures but not with a measure of academic intelligence".*

The interpretations of the correlations between self-report EI and personality have been varied and inconsistent. Some researchers have asserted that

correlations in the 0.40 range constitute outright construct redundancy, while others have suggested that self-report EI is a personality trait in itself.

4. Ability based measures are measuring conformity, not ability

One criticism of the works of Mayer and Salovey comes from a study by Roberts et.al. (2001), which suggests that the EI, as measured by the MSCEIT may one be measuring conformity. This argument is rooted in the MSCEIT's use of consensus-based assessment, and in the fact that scores on the MSCEIT are negatively distributed (meaning that its scores differentiate between people with low EI better than people with high EI).

Brody (2004) criticized that unlike tests of cognitive ability, the MSCEIT "tests knowledge of emotions but not necessarily the ability to perform tasks that are related to the knowledge that is assessed". The main argument is that even though someone knows how he should behave in an emotionally laden situation, it does not necessarily follow that he could actually carry out the reported behaviour.

2.2 LOCUS OF CONTROL

As the environment around a person changes, he can either attribute success and failure to things he has control over, or to forces outside his influence. Which orientation the individual chooses has a bearing on his long term success; this orientation is known as his "Locus of Control". Locus of control describes the degree to which individuals perceive that outcomes result from their own behaviours, or from forces that are external to themselves.

In other words, who or what is responsible for what happens. It is analogous to, but distinct from attributions. Expectancy, which concerns future events, is a critical aspect of locus control. Locus of control is grounded in

expectancy-value theory. According to Rotter (1966) locus of control refers to one's belief in his or her abilities to control life events. The term locus of control is often used interchangeably with self efficacy. However, the terms are not equivalent. While self-efficacy focuses on the perception of ability to act competently and effectively, locus of control focuses on the perception of control.

According to Rotter (1966) Locus of Control is a fundamental personality trait referring to individual difference in a generalized belief in internal versus external control of reinforcement. He further explains that, those with an external locus of control see themselves as relatively passive agents and behave that the events in their lives are due to uncontrollable forces. Conversely, those with an internal locus of control see themselves as active agents, feel that they are masters of their fates and trust in their capacity to influence the environment.

Locus of Control refers to an individual's perception about the underlying main causes of events in his /her life. A locus of control orientation is a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions are contingent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation) (Zimbardo, 1985). An individual with an internal locus of control believes that outcomes are related to his or her behaviour or personal investment, while an individual with an external locus of control believes that outcomes are not related to his or her behaviour but to external forces beyond his or her control. Individuals with an external locus of control may perceive life events to be controlled by luck, chance, fate, or powerful others (Rotter, 1966).

2.2.1   The Origin of the Concept

The theoretical background for the locus of control construct comes from Rotter's (1954) social learning theory of personality. Social learning theory

integrated learning theory with personality theory and he published *Social Learning and Clinical Psychology* in 1954. In developing Social Learning theory, Rotter departed from instinct-based Psychoanalysis and drive-based behaviourism. He believed that a psychological theory should have a psychological motivational principle. Rotter chose the *empirical law of effect* as his motivating factor. The law of effect states that people are motivated to seek out positive stimulation, or reinforcement, and to avoid unpleasant stimulation. Rotter combined behaviourism and the study of personality, without relying on physiological instincts or drives as a motive force. The main idea in Julian Rotter's Social Learning Theory is that personality represents an interaction of the individual with his or her environment. One cannot speak of a personality, internal to the individual, which is independent of the environment.

Rotter describes personality as a relatively stable set of potentials for responding to situations in a particular way. According to him personality and behaviours are always changeable. Change the way the person thinks, or change the environment the person is responding to, and behaviour will change. He does not believe there is a critical period after which personality is set. But, the more life experience you have building up certain sets of beliefs, the more effort and intervention required for change to occur. He sees people as being drawn forward by their goals, seeking to maximize their reinforcement, rather than just avoiding punishment. He has four main components to his social learning theory model predicting behaviour. These are behaviour potential, expectancy, reinforcement value, and the psychological situation.

He originally named the concept of LOC as Locus of Control of Reinforcement. According to this theory, reinforcement strengthens an expectancy that a particular behaviour or event will be associated with that reinforcement. Rotter (1966) assumed that these kinds of expectancies or beliefs could be

generalized to different situations and therefore affects the behavioural choices an individual makes.

The history of the concept can be found in Lefcourt (1976), who early in his treatise on the topic relates the concept to learned helplessness. Early work on the topic of expectancies about control of reinforcement had been performed in the 1950's by James and Phares prepared for unpublished doctoral dissertations supervised by Rotter at Ohio State University (Lefcourt, 1976). Attempts have been made to trace the genesis of the concept to the work of Alfred Adler, but its immediate background lies in the work of Rotter students, such as William H. James who studies two types of expectancy shifts:

- *Typical expectancy shifts*, believing that a success or failure would be followed by a similar outcome; and
- *Atypical expectancy shifts*, believing that a success or failure would be followed by a dissimilar outcome.

Work in this field led psychologists to suppose that people who were more likely to display typical expectancy shifts were those who more likely to attribute their outcomes to ability, whereas those who displayed atypical expectancy would be more likely to attribute their outcomes to chance. This was interpreted as saying that people could be divided into those who attribute to ability (an internal cause) versus those who attribute to luck (an external cause). Bernard Weiner (1970) later pointed out that attributions to ability versus luck also differ in that the former are an attribution to a stable cause, the latter an attribution to an unstable cause (cited in Weiner, 1974).

In 1966, Julian Rotter published his revolutionary paper in the field in *Psychological Monographs* which outlined his now classic "locus of control"

scale. This monograph summarized over ten years of pragmatic research conducted by Rotter and his students and colleagues at Ohio State University, including multiple methods of measurement that were discarded before Rotter created the now famous I-E scale.

LOC is based on the individual's expectancy that behaviour will result in a particular reinforcement and the value associated with that reinforcement. Specifically, LOC attempts to explain why some individuals disregard reinforcement contingencies. The observation that some individuals do not predictably gravitate toward rewards or attempt to avoid punishment led to the explanation that these expectancies were violated based on perceptions of environmental control (Rotter, 1954; 1966). It was concluded that some individuals attribute the cause and control of events to be within their power. These individuals are said to possess an internal LOC (internals). Other individuals feel that the cause and control of events lie outside their abilities and attribute the course of life's events to the external environment. These individuals are said to possess an external LOC (externals).

Rotter actually bridged the gap between Behavioural and Cognitive Psychology. He believed that behaviour was greatly guided by the use of reinforcements. These punishments and rewards in turn shaped the way people interpreted the results of their own actions. Rotter's original (1966) locus of control formulation classified generalized beliefs concerning who or what influences things along a bipolar dimension from internal to external control: "Internal control" is the term used to describe the belief that control of future outcomes resides primarily in oneself, while "external control" refers to the expectancy that control is outside of oneself, either in the hands of powerful other people or due to fate/chance.

Thus, locus of control is conceptualized as referring to a unidimensional continuum, ranging from external to internal:

Figure 2.1: Locus of Control-Internal *vs.* External

External Locus of Control	Internal Locus of Control

Outcomes outside your control-determined by "fate" and independent of your hard work or decisions	Outcomes within your control-determined by your hard work, attributes of decisions
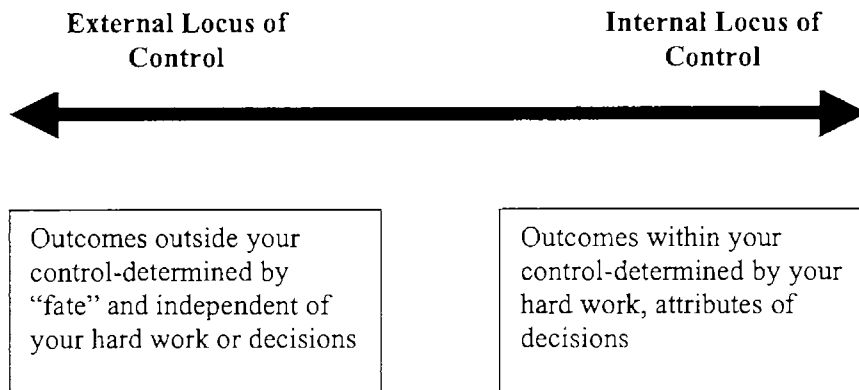
Hannah Levenson (1973) offered an alternative model. Whereas Rotter's conceptualization viewed locus of control as unidimensional (internal to external), Levenson's model asserts that there are three independent dimensions: Internality, Chance, and Powerful Others. According to Levenson's model, one can endorse each of these dimensions of locus of control independently and at the same time. For example, A person might simultaneously believe that both oneself and powerful others influence outcomes, but that chance does not.

2.2.2   Internal Locus of Control

Internal Locus of Control was defined by Rotter, Liverant, and Seeman (1962) as the perception that positive and or negative events are a consequence of one's own actions, while external control implies unrelatedness to one's own actions.

Individuals who perceive events in their environment as being contingent on their actions are said to have an internal locus of control orientation. In other words, when one believes that he has the power to control his own destiny and determine his own direction, he has a strong internal locus of control. In most cases, this is an important attitude to have if you want to be successful. People with an internal locus of control tend to work harder and persevere longer in order to get what they want. People with an internal locus of control are generally more successful, for very good reasons.

Internals were believed by Rotter (1966) to exhibit two essential characteristics - high achievement motivation and low outer-directedness. This was the basis of the locus of control scale proposed by Rotter in 1966; although this was based on Rotter's belief that locus of control is a unidimensional construct. People with strong internal locus of control tend to be very achievement - oriented and this can leave people around them feeling "trampled" or "bruised". And with a very strong internal locus of control, there is also a tendency to want to control everything, and this can lead to difficulties in taking direction.

As people grow older they tend towards a more internal locus of control. This comes from the increased ability to influence things going on in their lives and the realization that much of what happens to them is a result of what they do. In general, it seems to be psychologically healthy to perceive that one has control over those things which one is capable of influencing. Having an internal locus of control can also be referred to as "self-agency", "personal control", "self-determination" etc.

Research has found the following trends:
- Males tend to be more internal than females
- As people get older they tend to become more internal

- People higher up in organisational structures tend to be more internal (Mamlin et al., 2001).

An internal orientation usually needs to be matched by competence, self-efficacy and opportunity so that the person is able to successfully experience the sense of personal control and responsibility. Overly internal people who lack competence, efficacy and opportunity can become neurotic, anxious and depressed. In other words, internals need to have a realistic sense of their circle of influence in order to experience 'success'.

2.2.3 Benefits of an Internal Locus of Control

People with an internal locus of control are generally more successful, for very good reasons. In general, people with an internal locus of control:

- Engage in activities that will improve their situation.
- Emphasize striving for achievement.
- Work hard to develop their knowledge, skills and abilities.
- Are inquisitive, and try to figure out why things turned out the way they did.
- Take note of information that they can use to create positive outcomes in the future.
- Have a more participative management style (cited in www.mindtools.com)

2.2.4 External Locus of Control

People who tend to have an external locus of control tend to attribute their experiences to fate, chance, luck or powerful others. For example, if a student attributes either their successes or failures to having a bad day, unfair grading

procedures on their teacher's part, or even God's will, they can be said to have a more external locus of control. These students generally do not learn from previous experience. Since they attribute both their success and failures to luck or chance, they tend to lack persistence and not have very high levels of expectation.

Having an external locus of control can be an advantage, particularly in situations where people need to be considerate and more easy-going. Externals can lead easy-going, relaxed, happy lives.

Furnham and Drakely (1993) maintain that those individuals who have little access to power, opportunity or material advantage will probably develop external expectancies. This implies that the individual's locus of control belief could develop differently due to environmental factors.

2.2.5   Characteristics of Locus of Control Orientations

According to Hewitt and Flett (1996) Locus of control can be viewed either as a uni-or multidimensional construct. Unidimensionality refers to a global control belief, whereas multidimensionality indicates that people may differ in their locus of control beliefs regarding different areas of life, e.g. achievement and health outcomes.

Empirical research findings have implied the following differences between internals and externals:

1. Internals are more likely to work for achievements, to tolerate delays in rewards and to plan for long-term goals, whereas externals are more likely to lower their goals. After failing a task, internals re-evaluate future performances and lower their expectations of success, whereas externals

may raise their expectations. These differences relate to differences in achievement motivation. (Rotter (1966) believed that internals tend to be higher in achievement motivation than externals). However, empirical findings have been ambiguous here. There is some evidence that sex-based differences may complicate these findings, with females being more responsive to failures, males to successes.

2. Bialer (1961) suggest that internal locus of control is associated with increased ability to delay gratification. Walls and Miller found an association between internal locus and delay of gratification in second and third grade children, but not in adults who were vocational rehabilitation clients (cited in Lefcourt, 1976).

3. Internals are better able to resist coercion. This relates to higher outer-directedness of externals, another factor which Rotter (1966) believed distinguished the two orientations.

4. Internals are better at tolerating ambiguous situations. There is also a lot of evidence in clinical research that internality correlates negatively with anxiety, and that internals may be less prone to depression than externals, as well as being less prone to learned helplessness. However, this does not mean that the emotional life of the internal is always more positive than that of the external, as internals are known to be more guilt-prone than externals.

5. Externals are less willing to take risks, to work on self-improvement and to better themselves through remedial work than internals.

6. Internals derive greater benefits from social supports.

7. Internals make better mental health recovery in the long-term adjustment to physical disability.

8. Internals are more likely to prefer games based on skill, while externals prefer games based on chance or luck.

Generally, the development of locus of control stems from family, culture, and past experiences leading to rewards. Most internals have been shown to come from families that focused on effort, education, and responsibility. On the other hand, most externals come from families of a low socioeconomic status where there is lack of life control.

2.3   SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioural aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). Self-esteem describes how people think and feel about themselves, how they regard themselves, and the degree of worth they attribute to themselves. Self-esteem lies at the heart of ones ability to learn, overcome setbacks and respond assertively to others. It is the foundation of all self-development and it is increasingly recognised as a vital area of management development. A self-esteem result from an individual's continuing self-evaluation. In psychology, self-esteem reflects a person's overall self-appraisal of his or her own worth. Psychologists usually regard self-esteem as an enduring personality characteristic (trait self-esteem), though normal, short-term variations (state self-esteem) occur.

Self-esteem, how positively or negatively we feel about ourselves, is a very important aspect of personal well-being, happiness, and adjustment (Brown,

1998; Diener, 2000). Self-esteem is generally considered as the evaluative component of the self concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioural aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). Self-acceptance, self-love, a positive self-image and the freedom to be ourselves; all these are crucial aspects of self-esteem. Trzesniewski et al., (2003) report that level of self esteem is quite stable over the life span, with correlations of 0.50 to 0.70 from childhood to old age (cited in Passer and Smith, 2007).

Nathaniel Branden (1969) says "Healthy self-esteem correlates with rationality, realism, intuitiveness, creativity, independence, flexibility, ability to manage change, willingness to admit (and correct) mistakes, benevolence and cooperation. Poor self-esteem correlates with irrationality, blindness to reality, rigidity, fear of the new and unfamiliar, inappropriate conformity or inappropriate rebelliousness, defensiveness an overly complaint or controlling behaviour, and fear or hostility towards others" (cited in http://www.kidshealth.org/kid/feeling/ emotion/selfesteem.html).

Self-esteem has become the third most frequently occurring theme in psychological literature: as of 2003 over 25,000 articles, chapters and books referred to the topic. The Oxford English Dictionary traces the use of the word "self-esteem" in English as far back as 1657. Self-esteem has been characterised as both a trait variable (long-term, affectively laden self-evaluation) and a state variable (short-term, situational, affectively laden self-evaluation) and it has been studied at many levels - global, intermediate (e,g, organisation-based) and task specific (cited in Strauss, 2005).

While the construct is most often used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-confidence or body-esteem are used to imply

'a sense of self-esteem in more specific domains. It is also widely assumed that self-esteem functions as a trait , that is, it is stable across time within individuals. Self-esteem is an extremely popular construct within psychology, and has been related to virtually every other psychological concept or domain, including personality (e.g., shyness), behavioural (e.g., task performance), cognitive (e.g., attribution bias), and clinical concepts (e.g., anxiety and depression). Self-esteem has been related both to socioeconomic status and to various aspects of health and health-related behaviour (http://www.lifepositive.com/mind/personal-growth/self-love/esteem.asp).

2.3.1 Definitions of Self-Esteem

Morris Rosenberg (1965) and Social-learning theorists defined self-esteem in terms of a stable sense of personal worth or worthiness, measurable by self-report testing.

Nathaniel Branden (1969) defined self-esteem as "the disposition of experiencing oneself as competent in coping with the basic challenges of life and as being worthy of happiness". This two-factor approach provides a balanced definition that seems to be capable of dealing with limits of defining self-esteem primarily in terms of competence or worth alone. There are two components to Branden's definition. The first he calls self-efficacy: "confidence in the functioning of my mind, in my ability to think, understand, learn, choose, and make decisions; confidence in my ability to understand the facts of reality that fall within the sphere of my interests and needs; self-trust, self-reliance".

The second is self-respect: "Self-respect means assurance of my value; an affirmative attitude towards my right to live and be happy; comfort in appropriately

asserting my thoughts, wants and needs; the feeling that joy and fulfilment are my natural birthright".

Branden's (1969) description of self esteem includes the following primary properties:

- Self-esteem as a basic human need.
- Self-esteem as an automatic and inevitable consequence of the sum of individuals' choices in using their consciousness.
- Something experienced as a part of, or background to, all of the individual's thoughts, feelings and actions.

In his famous book, '*The power of self-esteem*' Nathaniel Branden (1992) remarks that "self-esteem is the experience that we are appropriate to life and to the requirements of life. More specifically, self-esteem is :

1. Confidence in our ability to think and to cope with the basic challenges of life.
2. Confidence in our right to be happy, the feeling of being worthy, deserving, entitled to assert our needs and wants and to enjoy the fruits of our efforts".

According to Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) self-esteem refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself.

According to "Contingencies of self-worth model" developed by Crocker and her colleagues (2000) people differ in their bases of self-esteem. Their beliefs about what they think they need to do or who they need to "be" in order to class as a person of worth form these bases. Crocker and Wolfe (2001) identified six

"domains" in which people frequently derive their self-worth, including: virtue, support from the family, academic competence, physical attractiveness, gaining others' approval. Individuals who base their self-worth in a specific domain (such as, for example, academic success) leave themselves much more vulnerable to having their self-esteem threatened when negative events happen to them within that domain.

2.3.2 Why Self-Esteem is Important?

As Branden notes, "positive self-esteem is the immune system of the spirit, helping an individual face life problems and bounce back from adversity". Self-esteem affects behaviour in organisations and other social settings in several important ways. It is related to initial vocational choice. For example, individuals with high self-esteem take risks in job selection, are attracted to high-status occupations and are more likely to choose unconventional or non-traditional jobs than are individuals with low self-esteem. In a general sense, self-esteem is positively related to achievement and a willingness to expend effort to accomplish tasks. Clearly, self-esteem is an important individual difference in terms of work behaviour (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2004).

Good self-esteem is important because it helps a person to hold his head high and feel proud of him and what he can do. It gives him the courage to try new things and the power to believe in himself. It lets you respect yourself, even when you make mistakes. And when you respect yourself, adults and other kids usually respect you too. One who has good self-esteem knows that he is smart enough to make his own decisions (cited in www.wikipedia).

People who have a positive view of themselves and their capabilities tend to like themselves and see themselves as valuable. People with low self-esteem are

more susceptible to external influences, suggesting that low-self-esteem individuals depend on the receipt of positive evaluations from others. As a result, people with low self-esteem are more likely to seek approval from others and are more prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviours of those they respect than are people who believe in themselves. Studies have shown that people with low self-esteem may benefit more from training programmes because their self-concept is more influenced by such interventions (Robbins et al., 2007).

2.3.3 High and Low Self-esteem - A Comparison

Individuals with high self esteem tend to be confident and thus act more confidently. They value their strengths over their weaknesses. Individuals and teams with high self-esteem tend to be higher performers and are more satisfied with their work. Individuals with low self-esteem emphasize their weaknesses over their strengths, perceive themselves negatively, and are more concerned about how others view and feel about them. People with low self-esteem usually cannot tolerate criticism well and are apt to criticize people who attempt to offer them constructive feedback (Weiss, 2001).

High self-esteem is important because confident people usually have better relationships with others, can accomplish more, and lead fuller, more satisfying lives. People with good self-esteem are usually optimistic and expect others to like and welcome them. They make better parents and are able to manage life's struggles. In contrast, those who think the worst of themselves may distrust others and may be afraid to try doing things that could bring them success. Those with low self-esteem may fall into destructive behaviour and may get along poorly with friends and with their own parents and children.

Low self-esteem has an impact on every area of life including work, personal relationships, and emotional state. Kundu and Rani (2007) report studies that have consistently shown that low self-esteem is related to psychological problems, unemployment, and maladaptive behaviours. Low self-esteem is associated with a greater concern with social evaluation by others as it has been linked to a higher need for social approval (Vermunt et al., 2001), higher social anxiety and stronger reliance on social relations like group membership (van Prooijen and van Knippenberg, 2000, cited in Kundu and Rani, 2007).

Low self-esteem people are more adaptive in their behaviour based on feedback or situations and more responsive to external cues than high self-esteem individuals (Brockner, 1988; Sandelands, 2000 cited in Kundu and Rani, 2007).

Employees with low self-esteem are more easily influenced by the opinions of other workers than are employees with high self-esteem. Employees with low self-esteem set lower goals for themselves. Employees with low self-esteem are more susceptible to adverse job conditions such as stress, conflict, ambiguity, poor supervision, poor working conditions and the like.

High self-esteem is related to many positive behaviours and life outcomes. People with high self-esteem are happier with their lives, have fewer interpersonal problems, achieve at a higher and more consistent level, are less susceptible to social pressure, and are more capable of forming satisfying love relationships (Brown, 1998). In contrast people with poor self-images are less likely to try to make themselves feel better when they experience negative moods in response to perceived failures in their lives (Heimpel et al., 2002).

2.3.4   Organisation-Based Self-Esteem

A concept related to self-esteem and widely used in the area of organisational behaviour is *Organisation-Based Self-Esteem* (OBSE). The values, attitudes and beliefs of the individuals working in an organisation are important indicators of what has been termed Organisation-Based Self-Esteem, that is, "the self-perceived value that individuals have of themselves as organisation members acting within an organisational context" (Pierce et al., 1989). Individuals with high self-esteem tend to feel good about themselves and generally act more confidently and capably; they are also more readily accepted by their peers. Self-esteem is also an important ingredient in the cognitive link between personal system and organisational productivity. The opposite tend to hold for personas with low self-esteem. The OBSE model has been extensively tested and validated. High scores see themselves as effective, important, worthwhile and meaningful in their organisation (Weiss, 2001).

Determinants of OBSE include managerial respect, organisational structure, and job complexity. Employees' self-esteem increases when they believe their supervisors respect them and are concerned about their welfare. Moreover, organic, flexible organisational structures tend to positively influence OBSE more than mechanistic, rigid structures. Challenging, rich, and complex jobs can also positively influence OBSE, in comparison with boring, repetitious, and simple jobs. Factors that are positively influence OBSE, in comparison with boring, repetitious, and simple jobs. Factors that are positively related to high OBSE and negatively related to low OBSE include global self-esteem, job performance, organisational commitment and satisfaction, intrinsic motivation (personal feelings of individual accomplishment), and citizenship behaviour [performing helpful tasks for the organisation] (Weiss, 2001).

3.5   Measuring Self-esteem

For the purpose of empirical research, psychologists typically assess self-esteem by a self-report questionnaire yielding a quantitative result. Popular lore recognises just "high" self-esteem and "low" self-esteem. Among the most popular and well-utilized measures of self-esteem are the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (1965) and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967/1981). Rosenberg's scale was originally developed to measure adolescents' global feelings of self-worth or self-acceptance, and is generally considered the standard against which other measures of self-esteem are compared. It includes 10 items that are usually scored using a four-point responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree (www.lifepositive.com/mind/personal-growth/self-love/esteem.asp).

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was developed through research to assess attitude toward oneself in general, and in specific contexts: peers, parents, school, and personal interests. It was originally designed for use with children, drawing on items from scales that were previously used by Carl Rogers. Respondents state whether a set of 50 generally favourable or unfavourable aspects of a person are "like me" or "not like me" (www.lifepositive.com/mind/personal-growth/self-love/esteem.asp).

The biggest limitation of all measures of self-esteem is their susceptibility to socially desirable responding. Most measures are self-report, and it is difficult to obtain non-self-report measures of such a personal and subjective construct. Also scores tend to be skewed toward high self-esteem, with even the lowest scores on most tests scoring above the mean and exhibiting fairly high levels of self-esteem (www.lifepositive.com/mind/personal-growth/self-love/esteem.asp).

2.3.6   How to build self-esteem?

Healthy self-esteem originates in the environment found in the: family, school, peer group, work place, and community. For healthy self-esteem individuals need to receive nurturing from the people in their environment, to include:

- Unconditional warmth, love and caring; to realize that other people recognise them as deserving to be nurtured, reinforced, rewarded, and bonded to.

- Acceptance for who they are; to recognise that other people see them as worthy individuals who have a unique set of personality characteristics, skills abilities and competencies making them special. Acceptance enables people to develop relationships with others, yet maintain healthy boundaries of individuality within themselves.

- Good communication; being listened to and responded to in a healthy way so that healthy problem solving is possible (cited in www.macses.ucsf.edu/ Research/Psychosocial/notebook/selfesteem.html).

The family is a strong force in the development of self-esteem. The early years are particularly important in establishing an 'authentic and abiding self-esteem' in a person. Higher parental self-esteem is crucial to the ability to nurture high self-esteem and personal effectiveness in children. Children develop higher self-esteem when their parents communicate unconditional acceptance and love, establish clear guidelines for behaviour, and reinforce compliance while giving the child freedom to make decisions and express opinions within those guidelines (Brown, 1998; Coopersmith, 1967). Beginning in early childhood, success in achieving positive outcomes builds a sense that one is an effective person (Hawley and Little, 2002, cited in Passer and Smith, 2007).

Feedback received from other people also has an impact on the child's sense of self. One study showed that when low-self-esteem children were exposed to highly supportive youth sport coaches who gave them large amounts of positive reinforcement and encouragement, the children's self-esteem increased significantly over the course of the sports season (Smoll et al., 1993). Apparently, the positive feedback caused the children to revise their self concepts in a positive direction. High self-esteem can never be given to a person by another person or society. It must be sought, 'earned' by the individual for him or herself.

To improve self-esteem, Nathaniel Branden suggests a technique called Sentence Completion, which you can use with the six pillars of self-esteem. The technique is based on the premise that all of us have more knowledge than we are normally aware of, more wisdom than use, more potential than we reveal in our behaviour. The technique basically consists of creating an incomplete sentence and writing six different endings to it as rapidly as possible.

Chapter 3

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The conceptual framework of the three independent variables is presented in previous chapter in detail. This chapter contains important findings and propositions which came out as a result of researches carried out by various investigators in the area of emotional intelligence, locus of control and self-esteem. The focus of the investigator while choosing studies to put under this chapter was on studies which were linking the aforementioned variables with the performance of executives in general and performance of sales executives in particular and the contents of the chapter are organised under three parts as mentioned below:

Part-I: Review of literature in the area of Emotional Intelligence

Part-II: Review of literature in the area of Locus of Control

Part-III: Review of literature in the area of Self-Esteem

3.1 REVIEW OF LITERATURE IN THE AREA OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Many investigators including Goleman (1995; 1998b), Ashkanasy et al., (2002) Caruso and Wolfe (2001), Cherniss (2000), Muchinsky (2000), Weisinger (1998) reported the relationship between emotional intelligence and crucial work-related factors with the help of empirical research and stated that the emotional intelligence of employees is an important aspect of organisations.

Findings of studies in different organisations conducted by various investigators including Boyatziz (1982), Lusch and Serpkenci (1990), Mc Clelland

(1999), Rosier (1994-1996) and Spencer and Spencer (1993) suggest that about two-thirds of the competencies linked to superior performance are emotional or social qualities such as self confidence, flexibility, persistence, empathy and the ability to get along with others (cited in Cherniss 2000).

People high in EI are expected to perform better in any job having social demands, and almost all jobs do more or less. Carlson, Kacmar & Williams (2000) state that people who adjust well to the social environment, at work or at home, are also expected to function better in their professional roles (cited in Sjoberg and Engelberg, 2005). Engelberg (2001) and Sjoberg (2001) suggested that people high in EI are less materialistic than others and Sjoberg (2001) suggested that they are less inclined towards adopting a cynical and manipulative attitude (cited in Sjoberg and Engelberg, 2005).

To have a systematic and precise view of the related findings, studies in this part are organised under three parts:

1. Emotional Intelligence and Sales Executives' Performance.
2. Emotional intelligence and Executives'/Individuals' Performance.
3. Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness.

3.1.1 Emotional Intelligence and Sales Executives' Performance

In a study conducted among salespersons in a telecommunications company, perceived risk, emotional intelligence (EI) a number of additional dimensions of work motivation and personality, and performance were tested by Sjoberg and Littorin (2005). It was found that EI was related to other variables, most notably to life/work balance (positively), to positive affective tone (positively), and to materialistic values and money obsession (negatively). EI was

most clearly related to citizenship behaviour and less to core task performance. Core task performance was strongly related to conscientiousness and positive affect, and also to willingness to work and work interest. Job satisfaction had a weaker relationship to performance, in agreement with much earlier work. EI emerged as a dimension possible to measure and with expected properties. They also commented that the people who are strongly driven by a sense of duty, at the same time as they have a positive and cheerful outlook on life appear to be the best salespersons.

Kernbach and Schutte (2005) examined the influence of service provider emotional intelligence on customer satisfaction. The study was conducted among a community sample of 150 participants whom viewed video clips depicting a service provider displaying three different levels of emotional intelligence in high or low service difficulty transactions. The results reveal that customers are more satisfied when they deal with service providers with high emotional intelligence. Further the researchers found that the emotional intelligence of service providers significantly interacts with the level of difficulty of the service transaction. In the low transaction difficulty condition there was progressively more satisfaction at each higher level of emotional intelligence of the service provider. In the high transaction difficulty condition, there was low satisfaction in the low service provider emotional intelligence condition, but no significant difference in satisfaction between the high and medium levels of service provider emotional intelligence.

Controlled problem solving has been identified as the most important predictor variable of job satisfaction by Sinha and Jain (2004). Controlled problem solving refers to using one's cognitive capacities for productive purpose by keeping oneself cool and calm in adverse conditions, which involves self-

regulation, an important aspect of emotional intelligence. Controlled problem solving is highly important during the sales presentations.

A study was reported by Manna and Smith (2004) in which 515 professional sales representatives located in Pittsburgh were chosen to respond to a number of questions concerning sales training and related sales experience to see if emotional intelligence and awareness training should be introduced into sales training programmes and to see if emotional intelligence training is necessary for success in the sales profession. It was found that the communication skills, negotiating skills, emotional intelligence, and presentation skills, and the need to differentiate personality types were found to be very important to the sales practitioners.

Rozell et al., (2004) conducted a study to determine the relationship existing between customer-oriented selling, emotional intelligence and organisational commitment and it was found that a salesperson's customer orientation level is significantly related to emotional intelligence. The study was conducted with the assumption that the professional salespeople are often placed in situations where role conflict and ambiguity are prevalent. The concept of customer-oriented selling illustrates the conflict, as sales people are required to forgo immediate benefits in lieu of long-term rewards. Implications of the findings indicate that managers should consider using emotional intelligence as a selection and human-resource development tool, as improvements in emotional intelligence are correlated with greater levels of customer orientation.

A study was conducted among the financial advisors in the insurance/financial service sector for revealing the relationship between emotional intelligence and their actual performance with the help of Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). The investigators Beekie and Raj (2004) measured the sales performance by taking the commission earned by the financial advisors in 2003

and concluded that that a positive relationship exists between emotional intelligence and sales performance.

Goleman (2004b) asserted that to attain competency in Customer service or conflict Management, requires an underlying ability in EI fundamentals, specifically Social Awareness and Relationship Management

Lopes et al., (2004) conducted studies with respect to emotional intelligence with the help of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) among two different samples and found positive relationships between the ability to manage emotions and the quality of social interactions. In the case of first sample which consists of 118 American college students, higher scores on the managing emotions subscale of the MSCEIT were positively related to the quality of interactions with friends, evaluated separately by participants and two friends. In a diary study of social interaction with 103 German college students (second sample), managing emotions scores were positively related to the perceived quality of interactions with opposite sex individuals. Scores on this subscale were also positively related to perceived success in impression management in social interactions with individuals of the opposite sex. In both studies, the main findings remained statistically significant after controlling for Big Five personality traits.

It is also reported by Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) that they found evidence to support the widely held belief that emotional intelligence is capable of being developed. In particular their hypothesis that the 'enabler' elements of Emotional Intelligence can be developed after relevant training action was borne out by the improvement of scores observed after training.

Preliminary evidence of a relationship between sales performance and emotional intelligence was found by Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka (2003) during an

empirical study conducted by them through one-on-one depth interviews and they have the opinion that the training in emotional intelligence offers a means for developing the communication and interpersonal skills needed by salespeople to develop and improve relationships with customers. They further assert that the Emotional Intelligence may be a factor that helps differentiate an average salesperson from an outstanding one.

In an exploratory study, Constantine (2003) tested a model of emotional intelligence and a measure of sales performance. One hundred twenty-eight adult sales professionals working in the personal home products industry were taken as the sample and they completed a measure of emotional intelligence and sales performance data. The major finding of the study was that emotional intelligence positively related to sales performance. Moreover, the findings showed that the emotional intelligence of high performing sales professionals was significantly different from the emotional intelligence of low performing sales professionals. Age, formal education, professional experience, and ethnicity did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance. The findings suggest that emotional intelligence, when viewed from a global perspective, provides a valuable link with existing theories regarding sales success.

After reviewing various research reports Bardzil and Slaski (2003) commented that the EQ can be developed and which provides support for the argument that higher levels of EQ within organisations will facilitate the appropriate conditions for a positive climate for services to emerge. It is further suggested that measurement of EQ should form part of the selection process, for management and customer-facing staff, and that development of emotional intelligence should be incorporated into staff training programs.

Further support for the proposition that EI can be developed is provided by Dulewicz et al., (2003). From an analysis of EQ-i data gathered in the retail study described above, they found improvements in EQ-i scores, based on a comparison of the scores of a 'training' group and a control group before and after the 'training' group had attended the an Emotional Intelligence training course.

The social and emotional competencies of retail floor covering sales people and their sales performance were studied by David (2003). Correlation analysis found that statistically significant positive relationships exist between annual income and two emotional competencies: self-regard and assertiveness. Correlation analysis also found statistically significant inverse relationships exist between income and two other measures of emotional competencies: the stress management cluster scores and impulse control. Subsequent multiple regression analysis also found that when the effects of age, gender, and experience were statistically controlled and the five EQ cluster scores were included, there was a significant inverse relationship between stress management cluster scores and income. In similar multiple regression analysis, there also was a significant inverse relationship between impulse control scale score and income.

Jermy Geiser (2001) conducted a study at Ohio University among a sample of 57 sales executives representing two public and one private company, with a hypothesis that high achieving sales professionals have significantly higher EI scores than low achieving sales professionals. He found a noticeable difference between the high achieving sales people and underperforming sales people. The study concluded that the Emotional Intelligence was a significant determinant of sales success and the five factors that most set the two groups apart were, in order, impulse control (0.91 difference), assertiveness (0.88 difference), emotional self-awareness (0.87 difference), Self-regard (0.87 difference) and happiness (0.86).

Barlow and Maul (2000) theorised that high emotional intelligence in service providers contributes to customer satisfaction. They posited that customer satisfaction relates to a customer's emotional experience during the service encounter, and that service providers with high emotional intelligence should be better able to create a positive emotional experience for customers.

Optimism, which is an important aspect of EI, had been identified as contributing to superior performance. Seligman and his colleagues found in a research conducted at Met Life that new salesmen who were optimists sold 37 per cent more insurance in their first two years than pessimists did. When the company hired a special group of individuals who scored high on optimism but failed the normal screening, they outsold the pessimists by 21 percent in their first year and 57 percent in the second. They even outsold the average agent by 27 percent. (Cited in Cherniss, 2000b).

As the personality factor optimism was identified as an indicator of success and a strong element of emotional intelligence, "Metropolital Life" who was suffering with the severe problem of heavy employee turnover, decided to look at optimism in their prospective recruits. They recruited people who scored high on this section of the EQ-i scale. The result was that the optimist outsold the pessimist by 21 percent in their first year and by 57 % in their second year. They stayed with the company because they were doing well and could easily ride the rejections that are part of the job (Book and Stein 2000) (cited in Geiser (2001).

The "American Express" conducted an experiment with a group of sales people by putting them through a 20-hour training program on one aspect of emotional intelligence, coping skills. In order to study the comparative effect of training a control group, who was not provided with this extra training, was also maintained and monitored. A comparison between these two groups was made

after six months and found that the trained group outperformed the control group by 10 per cent, adding significantly to the American Express bottom line (Book and Stein 2000) (cited in Geiser (2001).

Daniel Goleman (1998b) formulated EI in terms of a theory of performance and he stated that an EI based theory of performance has direct applicability to the domain of work and organizational effectiveness, particularly in predicting excellence in jobs of all kinds, from sales to leadership. Handley (1998) states "optimism has been shown to be one of the strongest predictors of success and employee retention in a sales environment" (cited in Geiser (2001).

Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group (1997) reported that sales people at a national furniture retailer hired on the basis of emotional competence had half the dropout rate during their first year. In an another study carried out with a national insurance company, Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group (1997) found that insurance sales agents who were weak in emotional competencies such as self-confidence, initiative, and empathy sold policies with an average premium of $54,000. Those who were very strong in at least five of eight key emotional competencies sold policies worth $114,000 (cited in Golman, 1998b).

Hein (1996) had identified characteristics of the people with high score on EQ, as encompass clarity in thoughts and expressions, high optimism, ability to read non-verbal communication, emotional resilience and moral autonomy, and high level of self-motivation. Characteristics of people with high EI revealed in the study is of high importance in the field of selling.

In two correlational studies conducted by Price et al., (1995) and Winsted (2000), it was found that service provider qualities such as civility, concern, attentiveness and congeniality were associated with customer satisfaction.

In another study among retail sales, Pilling and Eroglu (1994) reported that buyers found that apparel sales representatives were valued primarily for their empathy, which is an important aspect of emotional intelligence. The buyers further stated that they wanted representatives who could listen well and really understand what they wanted and what their concerns were.

Rosenthal (1977) and his colleagues at Harvard discovered that people who were best at identifying other's emotions were more successful in their work as well as in their social lives. This clearly indicates that 'empathy' an important element of EI contributes very much to the occupational success. More recently, a survey of retail sales buyers found that apparel sales reps were valued primarily for their empathy. The buyers reported that they wanted reps who could listen well and really understand what they wanted and what their concerns were.

3.1.2 Emotional intelligence and Executives'/Individuals' Performance

Sinha and Jain (2004) who examined the relationship between EI and some organisationally relevant variables among 250 middle-level male executives of two-wheeler automobile manufacturing organisations in India showed that the dimensions of EI were meaningfully related with personal effectiveness, organisational commitment, reputation effectiveness, general health, trust, employee turnover, organisational effectiveness and organisational productivity.

The impact of the trait-Emotional Intelligence (EI) was studied among a sample of 1186 top managers who filled out questionnaires for Emotional Intelligence and the Big Five by Van Der Zee and Wabeke (2004). The subjects were evaluated by a consultant on their competencies. Three higher-order factors were found to underlie the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On, 1997): sense of accomplishment, empathy, and planfulness. The EI-factors predicted

additional variance over and above the Big Five in competency to support. On the whole, top managers scored higher on the EI dimensions compared with a general population sample. High EI scores were particularly found among managers from enterprising occupational environments, that is environments dominated by activities that entail persuading and leading others to attain organizational goals or economic gain.

Jordan and Troth (2004) examined the utility of emotional intelligence for predicting individual performance, team performance, and conflict resolution styles. Three-hundred-and-fifty respondents working in 108 teams were administered a measure of team members' emotional intelligence. Participants then completed a problem-solving task, individually and as a team member, and afterwards reflected on the conflict resolution tactics used to achieve the team outcome. In was found that the emotional intelligence indicators were positively linked with team performance and were differentially linked to conflict resolution methods.

Taking a sample of 137 professionals Vakola et al., (2004) conducted a study to know emotional intelligence and the "big five" dimensions of personality can facilitate organisational change at an individual level by exploring the relationship between these attributes and attitudes toward organisational change. The professionals completed self-report inventories assessing emotional intelligence, personality traits and attitudes towards organisational change. The results confirmed that there is some relationship between personality traits and employees' attitudes toward change. Similarly, the contribution of emotional intelligence measure above and beyond the effect of personality.

Langhorn (2004) described the research conducted in relating the emotional competencies of individual general managers to the key performance

outputs under their direct control. He conducted the study by administering Bar-on Eqi among a group of managers operating in the pub restaurant sector of the leisure industry in UK. Evidence was found of correlation in key areas of profit performance relating to the emotional intelligence pattern of the general managers.

James (2004) states that companies that have adopted EI competency models have experienced quick and powerful changes in employee behaviour that can be sustained over time. After making a review of various researches he found evidence from industry, government, and organisations of all types points out that the number of organisations benefiting from EI competency applications is on the increase.

Goleman (2004b) opined that the IQ would be a more powerful predictor than EI of individual's career success in studies of large population over the career course because it sorts people before they embark on a career, determining which fields or professions they can enter. But when studies look within a job or profession to learn which individuals raise to the top and which plateau or fail, EI should prove a more powerful predictor of success than IQ.

Cherniss (2004) reports that the ability to manage feelings and handle stress, an important aspect of EI has been found to be important for success. A study of store managers in a retail chain found that the ability to handle stress predicted net profits, sales per square foot, sales per employee, and per dollar of inventory investment.

A study was conducted to test the relationships of the three dimensions of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-regulation and empathy) to manager's concern for the quality of products and services and problem solving behaviour of subordinates during conflict by Rahim and Minors (2003) and the results shown

that self-awareness and self-regulation were positively associated with problem solving, and self-regulation was positively associated with concern for quality. The implication of the study is that supervisors, who are deficient in EQ, may be provided appropriate training in it that will improve their concern for quality and problem solving.

The relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and the performance of call centre agents was studied in UK. The research was conducted by Higgs (2004) among a sample of 289 call centre agents taken from three organizations. Results included a strong relationship between overall EI and individual performance, as well as between several EI elements from the model and performance.

Carmeli (2003) had commented after conducting an empirical study among a group of senior managers that the emotional intelligence augments positive work attitudes, altruistic behaviour and work outcomes and moderates the effect of work-family conflict on career commitment but not the effect on job satisfaction.

In a study conducted to provide a preliminary insight into the area of entrepreneurship research by Cross et al., (2003), several Australian entrepreneurs were examined in relation to their Emotional Intelligence ability through the use of qualitative methods, EQ was examined via in-depth structured interviews. It was predicted that the entrepreneurs would significantly exhibit these ratios and hence an EQ level beyond the norm. Not only did the study yield such a result, it also showed that the entrepreneurs exhibited high levels of all the sub-scales in each model. The outstanding performance of each entrepreneur in Emotional Intelligence ability, as well as all the sub-scales, strongly supports the concept that EQ may be the missing factor that researchers have been searching for in entrepreneurship studies

In a survey conducted by Katherine Hawes Connolly (2002), a group of nurses and business executives were asked to identify desirable management traits and they identified professional and personal characteristics that were very much related and resembled with the factors of EI. The findings confirm that EI outweighs education level or past managerial experience. The surveyed executives specifically preferred applicants who were team oriented, independent, organised and visionaries with strong interpersonal skills. They disliked and even terminated individuals who lacked these EI qualities (80 % of the nurse executives and 60 % of the business executives admitted to removing someone from a management position because of lacking emotional intelligence).

Jordan et al., (2002) found in a study conducted for assessing the 'Workgroup Emotional intelligence Profile' (WEIP) that coaching can substitute for lack of innate ability based on emotional intelligence. In their study, student participants were organised into 'semiautonomous learning teams' in a class based on student centred learning principles. Teams received coaching in goal setting and interpersonal skills over a 9-week period. Weekly logbooks kept by the teams were later coded to assess the teams' performance on the course skills. At the end of the 9-week period, team members completed the WEIP. Results of this study showed that low emotional intelligence work teams performed initially at a lower level than high emotional intelligence teams, but that both high and low emotional intelligence teams performed equally well at the end of the period.

In reviewing prior research on Emotional Intelligence and on spirituality, Tischler et al., (2002) established that both EI and spirituality seem to lead to greater individual work success and that the effect size is important enough to investigate further. They tried to capture the essential components or elements of enhanced EI and of enhanced spirituality that might have a positive impact or work success at the individual level. The study demonstrates the relationship between

each element and some aspect of work success. It found great similarities among these elements for EI and spirituality. They organised the elements into four types of competency enhancements: Personal awareness, personal skills, social awareness and social skills.

Based on Bar-On's previous work, Bar-On et al., (2000) view emotional intelligence as a non-cognitive intelligence which is defined as an array of emotional, personal, and social abilities and skills that influence an individual's ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures.

Schutte et al., (2001) examined the link between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations in 7 studies. In studies 1 and 2, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for empathic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situations. In study 3, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence displayed more cooperative responses toward partners. In study 5, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for close and affectionate relationships. In study 6, the participants' scores for marital satisfaction were higher when they rated their marital partners higher for emotional intelligence. In Study 7, the participants anticipated greater satisfaction in relationships with partners described as having emotional intelligence.

Dulewicz and Higgs (2000a) made an excellent review of the Emotional Intelligence literature and demonstrated clearly the impact of EI on work Success. Work success was defined in this review as advancement in one's organisation. They further conducted research among 100 managers of several organisations over seven years and found clear evidences to support the view that the emotional intelligence is aligned with the concept of competencies. They conducted the research by using a competency frame-work among the managers by looking at a

variety of their competencies and at their climb in their organisations. Apart from IQ, EI and potentially related personality traits they measured a third set of factors which they called Managerial Quotient also and found that EI contributes more to advancement than traditional IQ and concluded that EI and IQ together predict organisational advancement considerably better than either predict alone.

Cherniss (2000b) reports from Snarey and Vaillant (1985) about Sommerville study as an example of the research on the limits of IQ as a predictor of individual performance. Sommerville study was a 40 year longitudinal investigation of 450 boys who grew up in Sommerville, Massachusetts. Two-thirds of the boys were from welfare families, and one-third had IQ's below 90. However, IQ had little relation to how well they did at or in the rest of their lives. What made the biggest difference were childhood abilities such as being able to handle frustration, control emotions, and get along with other people.

Mc Clelland (1999) reports his observation from a large beverage firm that 50 per cent of its division presidents who are hired through standard methods left the organisation within two years, mostly because of poor performance. Later when the selection was based on emotional competencies such as initiative, self-confidence, and leadership, only 6 percent left in two years. Furthermore, the executives selected based on emotional competence were far more likely to perform in the top third based on salary bonuses for performance of the divisions they led: 87 percent were in the top third. Also, division leaders with these competencies outperformed their targets by 15 to 20 percent, while those who lacked them underperformed by almost 20 percent.

Salovey et al., (1999) claim that more emotionally intelligent individuals cope more successfully, because they "accurately perceive and appraise their emotional states, know how and when to express their feelings, and can effectively

regulate their mood states". They found that individuals who scored higher in the ability to perceive accurately, understand, and appraise others' emotions were better able to respond flexibly to changes in their social environments and build supportive social networks.

Johnson and Indvik (1999) commented that a person with high emotional intelligence (EI) has the ability to understand and relate to people. The emotional intelligence considered to have greater impact on individual and group performance than traditional measures of intelligence such as IQ. They further suggested that, when EI is present, there is increased employee cooperation, increased motivation, increased productivity, and increased profits.

In a study conducted among 500 companies including IBM, Pepsi Co and British Airways, Goleman (1998a) found that EI competencies explained more than 80 % of executive job performance. He also found that EI skills had more impact on job performance than IQ and experience combined. In a similar competency research in over 200 companies and organisations worldwide, Goleman (1998a) suggests that about one-third of this difference in performance is due to technical skill and cognitive ability while two-thirds is due to emotional competence.

In another study by Goleman (1998a) on competence models for 181 different job positions drawn from 121 organisation worldwide, the models showed what the management in each organisation agreed on as the profile of excellence for a given job. He found that 67 percent - two out of three - of the abilities regarded as essential for effective performance were emotional competencies. Emotional competency is a learned ability based on EI, which exists when one has reached a required level of achievement. Goleman (1998a) revealed that emotional

intelligence was two times more important in contributing to excellence than intellect and expertise alone.

Based on a competency study drawing on models from forty companies Goleman (1998b) reported that strength in purely cognitive capacities were 27 per cent more frequent in the stars than in the average performers, whereas greater strengths in emotional competencies were 53 per cent more frequent. In yet another study Daniel Goleman (1998b) reports that emotional competence emerges as a hallmark of star performers, particularly among supervisors, managers, and executives. Performers with emotional competence draw on a wider range of persuasion strategies than others do, including impression management, dramatic arguments or actions and appeals to reason. It is asserted by Goleman (1998a) that those who do not develop their emotional intelligence have difficulty in building good relationships with peers, subordinates, superiors and clients.

Accurate Self-Assessment was the competence that Kelley (1998) found in virtually every "star performer" in a study of several hundred knowledge workers - computer scientists, auditors and the like - at companies such as AT&T and 3M.

After reviewing data from more than thirty different organisations and for executive positions in varied professions, such as banking, managing, mining, geology, sales and healthcare, Mc Clelland (1998) showed that a wide range of EI competencies (and a narrow range of cognitive ones) distinguished top performers from average ones. Those that distinguished most powerfully were Achievement Drive, Developing others, Adaptability, Influence, Self-Confidence, and Leadership. The one cognitive competence that distinguished as strongly was Analytic Thinking (cited in Goleman 2004b).

After analysing the competency model, Goleman (1998b) found that for jobs of all kinds, emotional competencies were twice as prevalent among distinguishing competencies as were technical skills and purely cognitive abilities combined. He further stated that 85 % of the competencies of individuals in leadership positions were in the EI domain.

In a longitudinal study conducted among 58 general managers in U.K. to compare the contribution to work performance (as Gauged by promotions) of cognitive competencies and EI competencies, Dulewicz and Higgs (1998) found that their measure of emotional intelligence accounted for 36 % of the variance in organisational advancement where as IQ accounted for 27 % and Managerial competence (MQ) 16 per cent. This suggests that EI contributes slightly more to career advancement than does IQ (cited Goleman, 2004b)

In a study where 360-degree competence assessments were carried out, Goleman (1998b) found average performers typically overestimate their strengths, whereas star performers rarely do; if anything, the stars tended to underestimate their abilities, an indicator of high internal standards.

In the context of managerial behaviour, and how this is learned within an organisation Hopfl and Linstead (1997) and Fineman (1997) say that there is an increasing articulation of the reality that emotions form a part of that learning and are not merely a by-product of the process. Fineman argues that managerial learning is emotional and that the traditional cognitive approach to management has ignored the presence and role of emotion. This may be a causal factor in the frequent dysfunctionalities of the managerial learning process

In a study, Higgs (1997) has demonstrated the importance of managerial team interaction processes in determining the effective performance of these teams.

Thus whilst not addressing emotional intelligence specifically, that may be seen to be implicit evidence to support the construct within a group or team setting.

Hooijberg et al., (1997) and Zaccaro (2001) have noted that social skills are essential for executive level leaders; as individuals ascend the organisational hierarchy, social intelligence becomes an increasingly relevant determinant of who will and will not be successful.

Feist and Barron (1996) concluded one of their studies stating that social and emotional abilities are four times more important than IQ in determining professional success and prestige. The study was conducted among 80 PhDs in science who underwent a battery of personality tests, IQ tests and interviews in the 1950s when they were graduate students at Berkely. Forty years later, when they were in their early seventies, they were tracked down and estimates were made of their success based on resumes, evaluations by experts in their own fields, and sources like American Men and Women of science and the above conclusions were drawn.

Hershenson (1996) theorises that work adjustment consists of two elements, the person and the person's environment. The person consists of three subsystems that include work personality, work competencies, and appropriately crystallised work goals. Work competencies consists of work habits, physical and mental skills, and work related interpersonal skills (Szymanski and Hershenson, 1998). According to Hershenson (1996), work habits include promptness, neatness, and reliability, while work related interpersonal skills include responding appropriately to supervision and getting along with co-workers.

Goleman (1995) in his book "emotional intelligence" has cited the results of the experiments conducted by Bell Labs of USA with their engineers and

scientists who had top scores in IQ tests. The results of this experiment were: 1) Star performers have higher EI, 2) Academic talent is not a good predictor of on-the-job productivity nor is IQ, and 3) Star performers, with higher EI, were found to be highly adaptive with excellent informed networks enabling them to move diagonally and elliptically, skipping entire functions to get things done. Bell Lab stars were found to be excellent in coordinating their efforts in teamwork, being leaders in building consensus, being able to see things from the perspective of others, such as customers or others in a work team, persuasiveness, and promoting cooperation while avoiding conflicts.

Goleman (1995, 1998a, 1998b) makes claims for the predictive validity of his mixed model. He states that emotional intelligence will account for success at home, at school, and at work. Among youth, he says, emotional intelligence will lead to less rudeness or aggressiveness, more popularity, improved learning and better decisions about "drugs, smoking and sex". At work; emotional intelligence will assist people "in teamwork, in cooperation, in helping learn together how to work more effectively"

More generally, emotional intelligence will confer "an advantage in any domain in life, whether in romance and intimate relationships or picking up the unspoken rules that govern success in organisational politics" (Goleman 1995).

An analysis of job competencies at 286 organisations world wide by Spencer and Spencer (1993) indicated that eighteen of the twenty one competencies in their generic model for distinguishing superior from average performers were EI based (cited in Goleman 2004a).

Kelley and Caplan's (1993) significant study focused on research teams in the Bell Laboratories, provides support for the ability of emotional intelligence to

differentiate between high and average performers. It was found that IQ did not differentiate between "stars" and other team members in the group. Academic talent was not found to be a good predictor of either "star" rating or productivity. However, the interpersonal strategies employed by team members were found to be differentiators.

The ability to manage feelings and handle stress is another aspect of emotional intelligence that has been found to be important for success. Lusch and Serpkenci (1990) found in a study conducted among store managers in a retail chain that the ability to handle stress predicted net profits, sales per square foot, sales per employee, and per dollar of inventory investment (cited in Cherniss 2000b).

In a classical study by Boyatzis (1982) of more than two thousand supervisors, middle managers and executives at twelve organisations, all but two of the sixteen abilities setting the star apart from the average performers were emotional competencies.

Barton, Dielman and Cattell (1972) conducted a study to fully assess the relative importance of both ability and personality variables in the prediction of academic achievement. One of the conclusions they reached was that IQ together with the personality factor - which they called conscientiousness - predicted achievement in all areas. What was tested under personality was whether the student is reserved or warm hearted, emotionally unstable or emotionally stable, undemonstrative or excitable, submissive or dominant, conscientious or not, shy or socially bold, tough-minded or tender-minded, zestful or reflective, self assured or apprehensive, group dependent or self-sufficient, uncontrolled or controlled, relaxed or tense. Since all these factors are included in the components of

Emotional intelligence by Goleman (1988), this study also reflects the relationship between the EI and achievement of individuals (cited in Jermy Geiser (2001).

In the 1940s, under the direction of Hemphill (1959), the Ohio State Leadership Studies suggested that "consideration" is an important aspect of effective leadership. More specifically, this research suggested that leaders who are able to establish "mutual trust, respect, and a certain warmth and rapport" with members of their group will be more effective (cited in Cherniss 2000b).

3.1.3   Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness

A significant relationship between EI and career success and EI and job satisfaction had been identified in an Indian study conducted among 291 Indian army officers by Kailash and Bharamanaikar (2004). They also found a strong relationship between EI and transformational leadership.

An exploratory study was conducted among 40 senior managers working within the New Zeland Public Service (NZPS) in order to explore the extent to which the claims for the importance of emotional intelligence as a predictor of leadership potential are borne out. The investigators Higgs and Aitken (2003) conducted the study at leadership development centre and the participants completed an established measure of emotional intelligence - EIQ Managerial. The results provide some evidence to support the relationships between EI and leadership potential from the theoretical standpoint.

Inspired by Daniel Goleman's article -'What Makes a Leader?" - published in the Harvard Business Review in 1998, the top management team of Johnson and Johnson decided to fund a study that "would assess the importance of Emotional Intelligence in leadership success across the J and J consumer companies (JJCC)'.

The study, which was conducted by Cavallo and Brienza (2002) on a randomly selected 358 managers, found a strong relationship between superior performing leaders and emotional competence.

Niroshaan Sivanathan and Cynthia Fekken (2002) explored the association of emotional intelligence and moral reasoning to leadership style and effectiveness by using university residence (Ontario University) staff as leaders of interest. A total of 58 residence staff completed questionnaires assessing their emotional intelligence and moral reasoning. The leadership behaviours and effectiveness of these residence staff were rated by both subordinates and supervisors. Analysis showed that leaders who reported higher levels of emotional intelligence were perceived by their followers as higher in transformational leadership and more effective. Interestingly, having high emotional intelligence was not related to supervisor's ratings of effectiveness. Supervisors associated greater job effectiveness with higher moral reasoning.

The influence of emotional intelligence on effective leadership has been discussed by Caruso et al., (2002), they hypothesised specifically how emotional intelligence facilitates the functioning of an effective leader. Their hypothesised relationship are derived from Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four-branch model of EI (identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions). They highlighted the role of self-awareness on performance. Caruso et al. propose that self-awareness allows the leader to be aware of their own emotions and the emotions of subordinates, assisting them to differentiate between honest and false emotions in others. They argue that leaders who are able to use emotions to guide decision making are able to motivate subordinates engaging in activities facilitated by emotions and are able to encourage open-minded idea generation, decision making and planning, because they can consider multiple points of view. Caruso et al., (2002) asserts that the ability to understand emotions provides the

leader with the ability to understand their own and other people's point of view (cited in Gardner and Stough, 2002).

In an exploratory study conducted by Chi-sum Wong and Kenneth's Law (2002), evidences were found for the effects of the EI of both leaders and followers on job outcomes. Applying Gros's emotion regulation model, they argue that the EI of leaders and followers should have positive effects on job performance and attitudes. The emotional labour of the job moderates the EI -job outcome relationship. Results show that the EI of followers affects job performance and job satisfaction, while the EI of leaders affects their satisfaction and extra role behaviour. For followers, the proposed interaction effects between EI and emotional labour on job performance, organisational commitment, and turnover intention are also supported.

Palmer et al., (2001) conducted a study to empirically prove the emotional intelligence as a measure for identifying potentially effective leaders, and as a tool for developing effective leadership skills among a sample of 43 managers with a modified version of the Trait Meta Mood Scale. They identified effective leaders as those who displayed a transformational rather than transactional leadership style. Emotional intelligence correlated with several components of transformational leadership suggesting that it may be an important component of effective leadership. It is also reported that, emotional intelligence in particular may account for how effective leaders monitor and respond to subordinates and make them feel at work.

The role of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness was emphasised by George (2000), he proposes that the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in oneself and in others theoretically contributes to the effectiveness of leaders. George argues that the emotional intelligence

enhances leader's ability to solve problems and to address issues and opportunities facing them and their organisation. He specifically proposes that leaders high on emotional intelligence will be able to use positive emotions to envision major improvements to the functioning of an organisation. She further suggests that a leader high in emotional intelligence is able to accurately appraise how their followers feel and use this information to influence their subordinate's emotions, so that they are receptive and supportive of the goals and objectives of the organisation. It is also stated that leaders within this conceptualisation are able to improve decision making via their knowledge and management of emotions (cited in Gardner and Stough, 2002).

Contrary to our belief that academic achievement matters very much in the success we have in working life, Chen et al., (1998) has shown that close to 90 per cent of success in leadership positions is attributable to Emotional Intelligence. In a study Chen et al., (1998) found that greater strengths in cognitive capacities were 27 percent more frequent in star performers than in average performers, while greater strengths in emotional competencies were 53 percent more frequent. In other words emotional competencies were twice as important in contributing to excellence as were intellect and expertise.

The significance of Emotional Intelligence in Business leadership was identified by Goleman (1998b). According to him the business leaders who must understand, guide and motivate their constituents, have been shown to have a high degree of emotional intelligence. In his book, Goleman (1995; 1998b) proposes that EI accounts for success at home, school and work, enabling individuals to become more cooperative and effective team members and to build their technical skills and IQ for jobs at all levels.

3.2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE IN THE AREA OF LOCUS OF CONTROL

The relationship between locus of control and job performance have been investigated by a number of researchers and they have come out with mixed results. Some of the investigators including Broedling (1975), Majumder, MacDonald & Greever (1977) found that Internals perform better than externals, while some studies either report no relationship between locus of control and performance (Johnso, Luthans & Hennessey, 1984; Szilagyi, Sims and Keller, 1976) or that externals perform better (Brownell, 1981) (all cited in Gary Blau, 1993).

One area of competent performance that has received a substantial amount of attention in the locus of control research has been the relationship between locus of control and school achievement. As mentioned above, here also the results are mixed in nature. Some authors have found negative associations (with locus of control scored towards externality) between locus of control and school achievement (Coleman et al., 1966; Crandall et. al., 1965; McGhee & Crandall, 1968). Others have found no significant association (Butterfield, 1964) and Hjelle (1970) has even found an inverse relationship.

A schemata drawn from the literature addressing core self-evaluations was tested by Sager et al., (2005) with the use of a sample of commissioned sales people and the research propositions were tested for the internal locus of control, high self-efficacy beliefs group and for the external locus of control, low self-efficacy group of salespeople. Support was derived for several of the propositions. The relationship between performance and cell membership indicated that both internal, high self-efficacy beliefs salespeople and external, high self-efficacy beliefs salespeople perform at a higher level than those in the other cells.

The research findings of Roberts et al., (1997) provide support for the proposition that a salesperson with an internal locus of control will be better able to cope with work stressors than his/her externally focused sales counterparts. It was found that externally oriented salespeople experienced more stress when confronted with excessive work demands.

Thomas et al., (2006) carried out a Meta analysis of relationship between locus of control (LOC) and a wide range of work outcomes. The work outcomes were categorized according to three theoretical perspectives: LOC and well-being, LOC and motivation and LOC and behavioural orientation. It was found that internal locus of control was positively associated with favourable work outcomes, such as positive task and social experiences, and greater job motivation.

The relation of locus of control and competence in school achievement, social interactions, sports and home related activities was examined by Naditch and DeMaio (2006) among a sample of 346 ninth grade students. The competence was measured using self-reports, national test battery test scores, grades, and sociometric ratings. It was found that, among males, locus of control was significantly related to competent performance only among those subjects who placed a high value on outcomes in each area. Among females, the pattern was exactly reversed. Locus of control and various forms of competence were related only in areas of low interest value.

Martin et al., (2005) examined the relationship between locus of control, the quality of exchanges between subordinates and leaders (LMX), and a variety of work-related reactions (intrinsic/extrinsic job satisfaction, work- related well-being, and organisational commitment). It was predicted that people with an internal locus of control develop better quality relations with their manager and this, in turn, results in more favourable work-related reactions. Results from two

different samples (N=404, and N=51) supported this prediction, and also showed that LMX either fully, or partially, mediated the relationship between locus of control and all the work-related reactions.

The moderating role of locus of control on job stress and turnover intentions in a practical setting was explored by Chiu et al., (2005) among 242 professional staff across a wide range of departments of a large organisation in metropolitan Taipei, Taiwan. Test results indicate that global job satisfaction influences turnover intentions and organizational commitment is more for internals than externals. Organisational commitment influences turnover intentions similarly for both internals and externals. Furthermore, the influence of perceived job stress on job satisfaction and organizational commitment is stronger for external than internals. Finally, leadership support influences job satisfaction more for internals than externals.

A model of turnover intentions (TI) that uses locus of control (LOC) as a moderator has been proposed by Chiu, Chou-Kang et al., (2005), in which a causal model and a firm specific sample were used to compare the different personality traits of LOC. The study was conducted among a sample of professional and managerial personnel in a service-based commercial bank in Taiwan. The antecedent examined was perceived organizational support (POS); job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment (OC) were mediating constructs. Test results indicated a stronger influence of job satisfaction on TI and OC among those with an internal LOC than those with an external LOC. However, the influence of POS on job satisfaction and OC was stronger among externals than internals. Finally, the influence of OC on TI was similar in both internals and externals.

People with no EI believe that their own behaviour does not matter much. They are said to be people with external locus of control, as they tend to believe

that rewards in life are generally outside their control. On the contrary, people with EI have an unshakable confidence in their personality. This confidence stems from self-knowledge and honest introspection of their self. They are people with strong internal locus of control, for they believe that their own actions determine the rewards they obtain. They understand that life is not just about them; it's about balance (Raju, 2004).

The research of Schneewind (1995) suggests that "children in large single parent families headed by women are more likely to develop an external locus of control" (cited in Schultz and Schultz, 2005). According to Schultz and Schultz, (2005) the children who develop an internal locus tend to come from families where parents have been supportive and consistent in self-discipline. Psychological research has found that older children have more internal locus of control than younger children. Lefcourt (1976) summarizes the findings of the early studies on the familial origins of locus of control as "Warmth, supportiveness and parental encouragement seem to be essential for development of an internal locus".

Muhonen and Torkelson (2004) report several studies in one of their writings that show positive relation between internal WLC and different organisational outcomes such as motivation, job performance, job satisfaction, perception of organisational climate and organisational commitment.

The impact of locus of control on communication skills of the medical specialists were assessed by Libert et al., (2003) in a simulated interview and a clinical interview among a group of 81 medical specialists. Results show that physicians with external LOC give more appropriate information than physicians with internal LOC in simulated interviews and less premature information than physicians with internal LOC in clinical interviews. This result provides evidence

that physician's LOC can influence their communication style in oncological interviews and in particular the way they provide information to the patient.

Kasl's hypothesis that positive psychological health, and in particular self-esteem, facilitates re-employment had been examined by Waters and Moore (2002) by assessing levels of self-esteem, cognitive appraisals and coping efforts among unemployed persons and relating these factors to their employment status six months later. A sample of 201 unemployed and 128 employed respondents were used. Comparison of baseline appraisals revealed that future re-employed participants rated their latent deprivation lower and their internal locus of control higher than those continuously unemployed and they also derived more internal meaning from leisure activities. Overall, the results provide support for Kasl's reverse causation hypothesis extended to these other domains of psychological health.

Meta analytic results of the relationship of 4 traits- self-esteem, generalized self efficacy, locus of control and emotional stability (low neuroticism) -with job satisfaction and job performance was reported by Timothy and Joyce (2001). In total, the results based on 274 correlations suggest that these traits are among the best dispositional predictors of job satisfaction and job performance.

Boone et al., (1996) reported that Chief Executive Officer (CEO) locus of control was significantly associated with profitability in a cross-sectional study of 39 small firms. Boone et al., (2000) later conducted a follow up study among the same 39 firms to analyse the relationship between locus of control and long-run organisational survival. They found that 21 percent of the 39 firms studied in Boone et al. (1996) went bankrupt within six years. Among the CEOs classified as internals, only one company failed (one out of 14), whereas among the external CEOs 45 percent did not survive (5 out of 11). It was also found that the

differences between internal and external CEOs were only observable for firms that were relatively unprofitable in 1990-1991, indicating that short-term performance shields the companies from subsequent bankruptcy. They concluded that their findings suggest that CEO locus of control is an important predictor of small firm performance.

The moderating effect of Locus of Control on the relationship between job characteristics and procrastination in the workplace had been examined by Jennifer and Karen (2000) among 147 employees of a health care maintenance organisation. Results showed that the job enrichment is associated with lower procrastination. A significant interaction was found between work Locus of Control and autonomy in predicting procrastination. Internal and Externals, with low autonomy reported the most procrastination, followed by externals with high autonomy. Internals with high autonomy reported the least procrastination. Greater autonomy for employees, particularly for internals, may be associated with less procrastination in the workplace.

Srivastava and Sager (1999) conducted a study with the proposition that internals tend to use deliberate cognitive analysis, critically examining the causes of stress and developing alternative ways to handle stress. When salespeople view variables as beyond their control, they are likely to become frustrated. Such salespeople are less likely to feel capable of translating their efforts into performance improvements. Relative to internals, externals are prone to view themselves as powerless to control their day -to-day life, and these so called "externals are more likely to attribute outcomes to outside variables such as price, quality of a competing product or personal relationships between buyer and a competing seller (Parkes 1984, cited in Srivastava and Sager 1999). The research findings of Srivastava and Sager (1999) indicate that locus of control and self-efficacy need to be incorporated as determinants of Problem-focused coping (PFC)

style when researchers develop and execute studies of salespeople's coping behaviour. They further suggest that, sales recruiters and sales managers need to develop means to reliably locate sales candidates who possess an internal locus of control or to foster a more internal orientation among salespeople so that a PFC style of coping will be applied by salespeople.

Marks (1998) has stated that individuals with an internal locus of control are more likely to change their behaviour following reinforcement than are individuals with an external locus of control.

Garson and Stanwyck (1997) used a simulation game of employees working in self-managed teams to test the effects of locus of control and performance-contingent incentives on productivity and job satisfaction. The only performance effect was that participants with external locus of control (externals) in the incentive condition outperformed externals without incentive. Participants with internal locus of control (internals) were more satisfied with their supervisors than were externals.

Marla and Lillian (1997) explored the impact of intrinsic factors behind empowerment and work excitement with respect to the locus of control. They also studied concepts related to control, mastery, and stress management are as they relate to individual's affinity for generative learning as opposed to adaptive learning. It was found that the internally oriented, proactive individuals perceive their jobs to be more enriched and intrinsically motivating than externally oriented, reactive individuals who report low levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of perceived powerlessness.

Rose and Veiga (1984) reported that internals were often found to obtain and utilize information more effectively, better use their work-relevant experience to improve performance, and experience less anxiety (cited in Roberts et al., 1997).

The differences in excuse-making and blaming by subjects with internal or external locus of control had been examined by Dengfeng and Norman (1994) with the help of two studies. In study I, 39 internals and 30 externals judged acceptability of various excuses in three situations and also assigned blame for cheating and lying in other situations. Externals were uniformly more prone to use excuses than internals, both for other actors and for themselves. Also, externals tended to assign less blame for cheating and lying. In study II, 24 internals and 32 externals divided blame among themselves, another person, and 'no one to blame' in 10 joint-responsible situations. Externals assigned more blame to the other person and less to themselves, but approximately the same blame to 'no one'. Externals also had higher tendencies to blame others and were more sensitive to being blamed. These results point to a 'missing dimension' of interpersonal relations in studies of excuse-making and blame.

Riggio et al., (1990) state that socially skilled people have confidence in their social abilities and are more likely to attribute their success in social situations to internal factors as opposed to external causes. The adolescents who have not had the opportunity to learn social skills may handicap this deficit by externalizing it in order to preserve self-esteem. Mallon (1992) states that youth in residential care who receive structured social skills training will show an increase in internal LOC and this training could further increase their independence during their adolescent years.

Sadowski's (1990) meta-analysis of 12 studies indicates a moderate relationship between tenure and locus of control among teachers. Consistent with

the results of studies using samples from other occupations, longer tenure was associated with a more internal locus of control orientation. Locus of control was found to be more strongly related to tenure when seniority and contract status were the tenure criterion than when years of teaching experience was the criterion. Seniority and contract status are criteria which are closely conceptually related to the stability of the employment environment. Teachers with less seniority or on a probationary contract find themselves in a tenuous position due to enrollment or fiscal changes from year to year. It was concluded that, it is not surprising that individuals in such positions would tend to believe they do not have much influence on their environments.

Locus of control has been implicated in a wide variety of career and vocational behaviours. Spector, who developed the Work Locus of control Scale (Spector, 1988) as a measure of generalized control in work settings, later suggested along with O'Connell that (Spector and O'Connell, 1994) the work locus of control may act as a strong mediating variable in job stress and strain.

Hambrick and Finkelstein (1987) argued that an internal locus of control contributes to the 'managerial discretion or latitude of managerial action' of CEOs, because internality is associated with higher levels of concern, involvement and vitality in general (cited in Boone et al., 2000)

The relationship of Locus of Control with perceived stress and performance of student teachers was examined by Cyril et al., (1986). The LOC scale for Teachers and a measure of perceived stress were completed by 27 student teachers. A measure of teaching performance was also obtained by the investigators. There was a significant negative correlation between locus of control and perceived stress and a significant positive correlation between locus of control

and performance. These results indicate that internally oriented student teachers can more adequately cope with the demands of pre-service teachers.

Cyril et al., (1985) investigated the relationship between teaching - specific locus of control and the performance of student teachers. The Locus of Control Scale for Teachers was administered to 38 undergraduates involved in a pre-service teaching internship. Internal and external student teachers were compared on the ratings of their performance made by their supervisors. It was found that internals had higher ratings than externals.

The relationship between locus of control and assertiveness was investigated by Eileen et al., (1984) among college undergraduates. Fifty-five students were administered both the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External control Scale and the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule. There was a significant correlation between internality and assertiveness for males but not for females.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) states that control beliefs are important in determining how one assesses the potential threat of a situation, as well as how a person evaluates his or her capacity to resolve problems causing the stress. Hoza et al., (1993) and Chandler (1985) found that individuals with an internal locus of control experience more success in coping with stressful situations than those who attribute the outcomes of the events in their lives to outside sources such as fate or luck (cited in Gonzalez and Sellers, 2002).

Spector (1982) has suggested that the personality construct locus of control (Rotter, 1966) is an important individual difference variable related to success in the working setting. According to Spector (1982), internals look to themselves for direction, while externals depend on outside factors such as their supervisor or company rules. Concerning the implications of locus of control for individual job

performance, Spector (1982) predicts that: 'when tasks or organisational demands require initiative and independence of action, the internal would be more suitable; when the requirement is for compliance, however, the external would be more appropriate'.

Janek and Tewary (1979) conducted a study among 44 subjects who were applicants for industrial units to understand the relationship between locus of control and the achievement value of entrepreneurs. The results revealed that the applicants selected by a technical committee on the basis of their entrepreneurial potential showed significantly greater amount of v-Ach and more internality on the scale of locus of control. It was also found that the subjects above 35 years in age were found to be lower in v-Ach combined with less internality than those who were below 35 years of age.

Shavit and Rabinowitz (1978) explored Locus of Control as a determinant of effective coping with failure among 117 internal and external eighth-grade children under conditions which made denial of personal responsibility for outcomes difficult. Both internals and externals were equally pleased by success feedback received. However, internals exhibited more effective coping with failure than did externals. They improved their performance following failure feedback relatively more than after success and no external feedback conditions, and their perceived competence did not decrease in comparison with externals.

Stephen and Diane (1978) attempted to clarify the conceptual relationship between expectancy for personal control, stress, and behavioural re-actions to stress. Expectancy for control was assessed as a personality characteristic of internal control; stress was experienced as strong environmental interruptions, disturbances, and unpredictable obstacles encountered during the performance of assigned tasks. Subjects were junior high school aged students who attempted to

complete three academic type tasks during one of two levels of stress or a base line, no stress, condition. It was concluded that (a) Internal subjects were capable of sustaining task performance under high stress, but external students experienced performance decrements as stress increased; (b) time to complete the mathematics task reflected a facilitating effect of stress for internals but a debilitating effect for externals; (c) performance differences between internal and external students, in the absence of differences in reported anxiety, is attributed to the stronger reward expectancies possessed by the internal individual.

Andrasani and Nestel (1976) found that internally focused employees earned higher compensation and job status, and were more satisfied with their jobs. It was found that internals take a more active posture with respect to their environment, pursue rewards more aggressively (Kren, 1992), feel they have more control over their time (Mitchell et al., 1975), and perceive goal attainment as more important than externals (Hullenbeck and Brief 1987) (cited in Roberts et al., 1997).

Organ and Greene (1974) examined the relationship between job tenure and locus of control; they contend that longer tenure promotes a sense of empowerment in conducting one's job activities. Consistent with this premise, an internal locus of control orientation has been found to be associated with longer tenure among research scientists and engineers (Organ and Greene, 1974). Harvey (1971) found the same relationship among public administrators also (cited in Sadowski, 1990).

In a study conducted to examine the internal versus external attribution of task performance as a function of locus of control by Gilmor and Minton (1974) found internals attributing responsibility for success to their ability, a stable internal source, while externals tended to attribute responsibility for success to

good luck, a variable external source. Under failure, the opposite but no significant trend was found; internals tended to be more external in their attribution for failure than were externals.

DuCette and Wolk (1973) have suggested that internals not only perceive themselves more able to control reinforcements, But also prefer control to a greater extent than externals do. Thus, for internals, self-knowledge could be a means to achieving control of reinforcement. The external is less concerned with achieving an accurate evaluation of himself possibly because it appears to be of lesser importance to him since he perceives himself as less able to change his behaviour [cited in Shavit and Rabinowitz (1978)].

Weiner et al., (1971) found that high resultant achievement motivation subjects (high in need for achievement and low in test anxiety) were more likely to attribute success internally (to their ability) than were those low in resultant achievement motivation (low in need for achievement and high in text anxiety). Under failure, low resultant achievement motivation subjects as compared to the high resultant achievement motivation subjects were more internal in their attribution for the outcome (saw their failure as due to lack of ability) (cited in Gilmor and Minton, 1973).

The hypotheses that subjects having external locus of control orientations (E's) would conform to both subtle and overt influence attempts, whereas internals (I's) would react against such attempts had been tested by John and MacDonald (1971) among undergraduate students against a proposed grading procedure pre- and post influence. Data were analysed in a completely crossed and balanced 3-way factorial design, which included 3 levels of locus of control (I's, middles, and E's), 3 levels of influence (no, low, and high) and two levels of sex (male and

female). Results showed that E's conformed to both levels of influence and I's reacted against high influence. I's were not responsive to low influence.

3.3   REVIEW OF LITERATURE IN THE AREA OF SELF-ESTEEM

The concept of self-esteem has been studied in relation to various aspects of individuals such as motivation, performance, stress, workplace outcome, leadership etc. by a large number of researchers. The present study is an effort to link the self-esteem of the sales executive with their sales performance. Baumeister et al., (2003) report early reviews of studies on the relationship betweens self-esteem and work performance and noted the high variability of the reported size and nature of this relationship. Theoretical approaches to self-esteem vary from suggesting that high levels of self-esteem should relate to positive outcomes and vice versa (Korman, 1970) to arguing that low self-esteem people are more adaptive in their behaviour based on feedback or situations than high self-esteem individuals (Brockner, 1988).

There has been a mixed result supporting a direct relationship between self esteem and job performance and most of the recent studies are bringing support for the relationship between self-esteem and job performance (Carson et al., 1997, Strauss, 2005; Erez and Judge, 2001; Gardner and Pierce, 1998). Judge and Bono (2001) surveyed the results of 40 studies (with more than 5,000 participants) and found that most of them showed weak positive relationships.

There were very few studies on self-esteem with specific reference to sales executives' performance. This session of the review of literature gives some important research findings reported by various researchers with respect to the relationship between self-esteem and performance of the individual.

Robbins et al., (2007) report that people with low self-esteem are more susceptible to external influences, suggesting that low-self-esteem individuals depend on the receipt of positive evaluations from others. As a result, people with low self-esteem are more likely to seek approval from others and are more prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviours of those they respect than are people who believe in themselves. Studies have shown that people with low self-esteem may benefit more from training programmes because their self-concept is more influenced by such interventions.

The intersection of employees' self-concept, a pivotal self-regulatory mechanism, with their organisational commitment was examined by Johnson and Chu-Hsiang (2006). They supported their hypothesis that unique associations exist between affective commitment and collective self-concept, due to their shared group-oriented focus and internalisation of collective goals and norms. They observed unique associations between continuance commitment and individual self-concept, likely owing to a shared emphasis on preserving personal investments and avoiding adverse outcomes. They also show that self-concept moderates relationships between commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), such that affective (continuance) commitment-OCB relationships were stronger for employees with high collective (individual) self-concept levels.

Using longitudinal data on a cohort of high-school graduates, Waddell (2006) found evidence that poor attitude and self-esteem in high school are significant predictors of structural outcomes, such as the degree of supervision under which individuals subsequently work, job characteristics, and on-the-job activities. These relationships suggest that real economic consequence exist in fostering positive attitude and self-esteem in youth.

The researches for a period of ten years on an organisation-based conceptualisation of self-esteem has been reviewed by Pierce and Gardner (2004) to understand the significance of self-esteem in determining employee motivation. They observed that sources of organisational structure, signals about worth from the organisation, as well as, success-building role conditions predict organisation-based self-esteem. The organisation-based self-esteem is related to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, motivation, citizenship behaviour, in-role performance, and turnover intentions, as well as, other important organisation-related attitudes and behaviours.

The influence of general self-efficacy and self-esteem on motivational and affective constructs was studied by Chien et al., (2004) on a sample from academics and work settings. They found that general self-efficacy is more highly related to motivational variables than is self-esteem, whereas self-esteem is more highly related to affective variables than is general self-efficacy, as hypothesised. The results supported the notion that motivational and affective states differentially mediate the relationships of general self-efficacy and self-esteem with task performance. They had the opinion that these results confirm the theoretical distinction between general self-efficacy and self-esteem and suggest that failure to distinguish between them might exact price in terms of precision, validity, and understanding of determinants of performance.

Crocker and Park (2004) propose that the importance of self-esteem lies more in how people strive for it rather than whether it is high or low. They argue that in domains in which their self-worth is invested, people adopt the goal to validate their abilities and qualities, and hence their self-worth. When people have self-validation goals, they react to threats in these domains in ways that undermine learning; relatedness; autonomy and self-regulation; and over time, mental and

physical health. The short-term emotional benefits of pursuing self-esteem are often outweighed by long-term costs.

Firth et al., (2004) investigated the variables that may be predictive of intentions to leave a job and tested a model that includes mediating variables among a total of 173 retail salespeople. Questionnaires were administered measuring commitment to the organisation for which they worked, job satisfaction, stress, supervisor support, locus of control, self-esteem, the perceived stressors in the job and their intention to quit the job. It was reported that emotional support from supervisors and self-esteem mediated the impact of stressors on stress reactions, job satisfaction, commitment to the organisation and intention to quit.

After reviewing a large number of studies Baumeister et al., (2003) concluded that, "it is difficult to draw firm causal conclusions about self-esteem and other aspects of job and task performance. Overall, there are weak positive correlations between job performance and self-esteem, but these may be due in whole or in part either to successful performance improving self-esteem or to self report biases. There is no strong evidence indicating specifically that high self-esteem leads to improved performance on the job. The link between self-esteem and job performance deserve more systematic and careful study, using objective measures and longitudinal designs. However, if high self-esteem consistently produced better performance in laboratory tasks, this would be well established by now, and the lack of such evidence suggests to us that self-esteem has little impact on task performance".

Research by Crocker and her Colleagues (2003) suggests that contingencies of self-worth have self-regulatory properties. Crocker et al., (2006) defines successful self-regulation as "the willingness to exert effort toward one's most important goals, while taking setbacks and failures as opportunities to learn,

identify weaknesses and address them, and develop new strategies toward achieving those goals".

The antecedents of organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) in Korean context were examined by Lee (2003) among two Korean banks. He found that job complexity, participatory management, job security concern, co-worker support and organisational tenure are the antecedents of OBSE. However, intrinsic job characteristics (e.g. job complexity and participatory management) appear to be more influential antecedents than are extrinsic job characteristics (e.g. job security concern and co-worker support) and individual characteristics, thus confirming the results of North American studies.

Bono and Judge (2003) summarised current research on core self-evaluations reporting a factor a loading of 0.91 for self-esteem and a correlation of 0.23 between core self-evaluations and job performance- providing indirect empirical evidence for the importance of self-esteem.

The concept that self-esteem, locus of control, generalised self-efficacy, and neuroticism form a broad personality trait termed core self-evaluations is examined by Erez and Judge (2001) in relation to their impact on motivation and performance. They conducted three studies and the first study showed that the four dispositions loaded on higher order factor. Study 2 demonstrated that the higher order trait is related to task motivation and performance in a laboratory setting. Study 3 showed that the core trait is related to task activity, productivity as measured by sales volume, and the rated performance of insurance agents. Results also revealed that the core self-evaluation trait is related to goal-setting behaviour. When the 4 core traits were investigated as 1 nomological network, they proved to be more consistent predictors of job behaviours than when used in isolation.

The results of a survey carried out among detainees in Dutch jails and police stations by Vermunt et al., (2001) showed that outcome-fairness judgements of individuals with high self-esteem were more strongly related to outcome consideration than to procedural considerations, whereas outcome-fairness judgements of individuals with low self-esteem were more strongly related to procedural considerations than outcome considerations. It was proposed that these differences were due to the fact that (a) procedures more strongly express a social evaluation than outcomes and (b) individuals with low self-esteem are more concerned with social evaluations than individuals with high self-esteem.

Forret and Dougherty (2001) conducted a study among 418 managers and professionals to examine the relationship of personal and job characteristics to involvement in networking. Networking is an important strategy for managing one's career. The multiple regression results showed that gender, socioeconomic background, self-esteem, extraversion, favourable attitudes toward workplace politics, organisational level, and type of position are significant predictors of involvement in networking behaviours.

Judge and Bono (2001) report meta-analytic results of the relationship of 4 traits-self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional stability- with job satisfaction and job performance. In total, the results based on 274 correlations suggest that these traits are among the best dispositional predictors of job satisfaction and job performance.

The effects of organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) on managers' development in the face of challenging job experiences were investigated and Brutus et al., (2000) found that OBSE moderated relationships between specific types of challenges and development outcomes. It was found that those with low OBSE were more sensitive to challenging job components than those with high OBSE.

The intervening role of organisation-based self-esteem in the relationship between generalised self-efficacy and two outcomes-employees' job performance and job-related affect (job satisfaction)- had been explored in empirical examination by Gardner and Pierce (1998) and they found the organisation-based self-esteem as the stronger predictor of ratings of performance and employee satisfaction, and it appears to act as a mediator in the relationship between generalised self-efficacy and the employee responses.

A secondary analysis of data from 843 members of the "Youth in Transition" panel of young men was performed by Mortimer and Finch (1986) to investigate the development of self-esteem in the early work career. The experience of autonomy at work was found to have significant positive effect on self-esteem. The findings suggest that conditions of work are more consequential for the self-image than socioeconomic standing. They opined that the results of this study contribute to the growing evidence that persons respond similarly to experiences of autonomy in work, irrespective of age.

Howell et al., (1987) examined the relationship of self-esteem, role stress and job satisfaction among sales and advertising managers. Role stress found to be inversely related to job satisfaction for both groups. High self-esteem was found to lessen the role stress felt by the manager, thereby indirectly affecting job satisfaction. Self-esteem, however, did not relate to job satisfaction directly nor did it moderate the relationship between role stress and job satisfaction.

Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory hypothesises that an individual's self-esteem is a determinant of the outcome he/she will seek to attain. According to Korman, all else equal, individuals are motivated to perform on a task or job in a manner consistent with their self-esteem.

Branden says "Healthy self-esteem correlates with rationality, realism, intuitiveness, creativity, independence, flexibility, ability to manage change, willingness to admit (and correct) mistakes, benevolence and cooperation. Poor self-esteem correlates with irrationality, blindness to reality, rigidity, fear of the new and unfamiliar, inappropriate conformity or inappropriate rebelliousness, defensiveness an overly complaint or controlling behaviour, and fear or hostility towards others" (cited in www.kidshealth.org/kid/feeling/emotion/selfesteem.html)

3.4 Conclusions from the Literature Review

Literature review gives strong evidence to support the view that the variables of emotional intelligence, locus of control and self-esteem are strongly associated with the performance of the individuals.

The implications of EI found to be of most interest are social in nature as mentioned above. Sjoberg and Engelberg (2005) reported that EI is being used both for selection and training, presumably because of such social implications. Goleman (1995) stated that, while Emotional intelligence is amenable to development, it is intervention during childhoods which are most effective. Indeed, he had some doubts about the efficacy of learning interventions at later stages in life, although his views had changed in his second book in which he proposes a number of broad principles to develop EI (Golemman, 1988). Based on the propositions of researchers it can be concluded that emotional intelligence is a construct which offers significant potential to account for variances in "life success" (Goleman, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The study, as explained in the first chapter, was aimed at identifying the relationship between sales executives' performance and the variables such as emotional intelligence, sales locus of control and self-esteem. It was also intended to identify the interrelationship, if any, among the variables of emotional intelligence, sales locus of control and self-esteem. The present study is basically explanatory and diagnostic in nature. The objectives of the study are finalised after the review of literature and hypotheses were formulated accordingly. The methodology followed for carrying out the study with respect to defining major concepts, defining the population, sampling methods and tools of data collection and tools used for analysis are explained in this chapter.

4.1 Variables of the Study

The three important independent variables considered for the study are as follows:

a. Emotional Intelligence

b. Sales Locus of Control

c. Self-Esteem

The sales locus of control scale (SLCS), instrument used for assessing the Locus of control belief of the executives, had measured three dimensions of the concept and they are:

➢ Sales Locus of control-Internal

➢ Sales Locus of control-External and

➢ Sales Locus of control-Chance

Age, Sex, Marital status, number of Siblings, Ordinal position, Experience, Educational Qualification and parental occupation were also taken as independent variables.

Sales Performance of the executives is considered as the major dependent variable and the same has been measured in terms of overall performance assessment provided by the sales supervisors.

Though emotional intelligence is the major independent variable of the study, the relationship of emotional intelligence with other variables like Sex, Marital status, number of Siblings, Education, Ordinal position etc. were also tested. While analysing such relationship, the variable emotional intelligence has been taken as dependent variable.

4.2   Hypotheses

After reviewing the literature ten (alternate) hypotheses were formulated by the researcher based on the anticipated relationship among the variables in the study.

H1   Higher the level of emotional intelligence, higher is the performance of the sales executives.

H2   Executives with high internal sales locus of control will have significantly higher sales performance.

H3   Executives with high external sales locus of control will have significantly lower sales performance.

H4   Executives with high chance sales locus of control will have significantly lower sales performance.

H5   Higher the self-esteem, higher is the performance of the sales executives.

H6   There exist a positive interrelationship among Emotional intelligence, Self Esteem and Sales Locus of Control-internal of sales executives.

H7   Higher the experience, higher is the level of emotional intelligence of the sales executives.

H8   Age, Sex, Marital status and Educational Qualifications of the sales executives have a significant influence over their emotional intelligence.

H9   Parent's occupational status of the sales executives has a significant influence over their emotional intelligence.

H10   The frequent switch over of sales executives from company to companies are attestably influenced by the emotional intelligence.

4.3   Scope and Significance of the Study

The present study is carried out among the sales executives to identify the relationship between their sales performance and the three variables of emotional intelligence, sales locus of control and self-esteem. The total number of sales executives in Kerala is unknown and they are engaged in different forms of selling and that too with different types of products. Hence, the present study is confined to the sales executives of selected companies, which are selling either tangible or intangible products directly to the end user through sales presentations. The sales executives who were selling only to industrial buyers were excluded from the scope of this study.

This present study is highly significant from both the application and theoretical perspectives. If the hypotheses stated related to sales performance and personality factors like emotional intelligence, SLOC and self-esteem are proved, it would be of great educative value to the field of salesforce management. As mentioned during the problem formulation, all these three factors are developable qualities of an individual. Once the influence of these factors on sales performance

and sales executive turnover is proved, appropriate training programmes can be developed for enhancing their EI, improving self-esteem and developing internal locus of control. Such training intervention would not only enhance the sales performance of the executives but also reduce the rate of sales force turnover, and in turn, reduce the operating cost of the sales departments.

The study is important from the academic or theoretical perspectives in the sense that it gives results which are empirically valid with respect to the relationship between the sales performance and the aforementioned variables. If the present study establishes a positive relationship among the three major independent variables chosen- EI, SLOC and self-esteem- and also relate them positively with the sales performance, that would lead to development of new performance models in the area of sales management.

4.4   Definitions of Major Concepts

The concepts of sales executive, emotional intelligence, sales locus of control and self-esteem are operationally defined.

4.4.1   Sales Executive

Normally the concept of Sales Executive is defined as a man whose job involves selling or promoting commercial products, either in a store or visiting potential clients in various locations to get orders.

Operational definition:

The concept of sales executive is defined as any executive who exerts efforts to generate the sales of commercial products to the company by satisfying the following conditions:

1. He must be on the payroll of the company and should have an experience of not less than three months with the present company.

2. He must be directly interacting with the potential buyers at various locations and making sales presentations to generate sales.

3. He must be assigned with a specific sales target (in terms of amount or number of units of products) by the company.

4.4.2 Emotional Intelligence

According to Mayer and Salovey (1997) "Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth".

Goleman (1997) provides a useful definition of the construct of emotional intelligence, which is about:

> ▶ Knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without having them swamp you;

> ▶ Being able to motivate yourself to get jobs done, be creative and perform at your peak; and

> ▶ Sensing what others are feeling, and handling relationship effectively.

Operational definition:

Emotional intelligence is a performance characteristic or ability of the executives that enables them to understand, regulate and harness emotions in the self and others to enhance their personal effectiveness (performance) in a selling situation.

In the study, operationally, EI has been taken as the scores attained by the executives on Emotional Intelligence Test by Dr. Chadha (2003).

4.4.3 Sales Locus of Control

According to Rotter (1966) Locus of control is a fundamental personality trait referring to individual difference in a generalized belief in internal versus external control of reinforcement. He further explains that, those with an external locus of control see themselves as relatively passive agents and behave that the events in their lives are due to uncontrollable forces. Conversely, those with an internal locus of control see themselves as active agents, feel that they are masters of their fates and trust in their capacity to influence the environment. In short, Rotter (1966) says locus of control refers to one's belief in his or her abilities to control life events.

Operational definition:

Sales locus of control describes the degree to which the executives perceive that their sales outcomes result from their own efforts and behaviours (internal control orientation), or due to the influence of others or from forces that are external to themselves and beyond their control (external control orientation) or just as a matter of situation and luck or fortune (chance orientation).

In the study, operationally, the dimensions of SLOC has been taken as the scores attained by the executives on Sales Locus of Control Scale (SLCS) by Chung and Ding, (2002).

4.4.4 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem reflects a person's overall self-appraisal of his own worth. Many theorists defined self-esteem in terms of a stable sense of personal worth or

worthiness, measurable by self-report. Nathaniel Branden (1992) defined self-esteem as follows:

"Self-esteem is the experience that we are appropriate to life and to the requirements of life. More specifically, self-esteem is:

1. Confidence in our ability to think and to cope with the basic challenges of life.

2. Confidence in our right to be happy, the feeling of being worthy, deserving, entitled to assert our needs and wants and to enjoy the fruits of our efforts".

Operational definition:

Self-Esteem is defined as the overall feeling of self-worth of the executives based on the evaluation of their strengths and confidence and that helps them to cope up with challenging and stressful selling situations.

In the study, operationally, Self-esteem has been taken as the scores attained by the executives on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE).

4.5 Universe and the Selection of the Respondent Executives

The primary intention of the research was to examine the relationship between the performances of the sales executives and their personal factors - Emotional Intelligence, Sales Locus of Control and Self-Esteem. It is obvious that the data had to be collected from the personnel who were involved with selling process and it is a fact that a large number of sales executives are available with various companies with varying sales jobs. Apart from the availability of the sales executives, the researcher had to give priority to the availability of reliable performance data of the sales executives as it forms the major dependent variable

of the research. Hence it became imperative from the part of the investigator to rely on those institutions which were willing to give the reliable information about the performances of the executives based on their past employment records.

The Universe of the study was confined to the sales executives who have been in the employment of a firm in Kerala for a consecutive period of three months and whose performance assessments were officially rendered available by the sales supervisors. The investigator was unable to ascertain the exact size of the population.

The investigator employed the concept of multistage sampling for drawing the sample of the study as the universe consisted of large number of executives belonging to wide spectrum of companies with variety of products and varying selling environments. While adopting the multistage sampling technique, the investigator's concern was to ensure both the availability of data with respect to the sales performance of the executives and maximum uniformity among the members of the sample in terms of their sales job. In the first stage of sample selection, the investigator included only private sector companies as these companies were found to have a lot of similarities with respect to the practice of maintaining systematic, objective and consistent measures of data regarding sales, compensation and performance figures and competing with each other to capture the market.

In the second stage of sampling, a subset of firms willing to permit the investigator to enjoy access to the sales supervisors from whom the assessment of performance of sales executives could be obtained were drawn to arrive at a cohort of 23 companies in the state. Further, the collection of data was restricted to the sales executives engaged in direct selling of the products to the end users. This enabled the investigator to account for their achievements based on personal

selling abilities that entailed considerable application of the independent variable namely emotional intelligence.

Of the 23 companies short listed in the second phase, 9 had to be excluded at the final phase due to definitional specifications stipulated in the second phase and a final list of 14 companies was arrived at. The 14 firms, due to their organisational restrictions, allowed the investigator access to 406 sales executives. Methodological considerations of completeness, adequacy and appropriateness of responses recorded again caused the investigator to discard 76 filled in data instruments bringing the final sample size to 330 (Table 4.1). Out of the 76 defective data, some of them were incomplete and in rest of the cases, executives were having less than three months of experience with the present company (three months with the present company was stipulated as the qualifying experience).

4.6   Method of Data Collection

The primary data required was collected directly by the investigator from the sales executives belonging to 14 companies. The investigator sought the permission of the companies to collect the data during the sales meetings of the companies concerned and the same was allowed by the companies. Hence, the data collection was carried out during the sales meetings. The test instruments were administered to all the sales executives who were attending the meeting. The responses of the Sales supervisors were sought immediately after the data collection from each company. The data have been collected during the months of April, May and June 2008.

Table 4.1 The Break-up and nature of data collected from various companies

Sl. No	Company	Nature of the products	Category of the Product	Total sample taken
1	Kotak Life Insurance	Intangible	Insurance	17
2	Bajaj Alliance Insurance	Intangible	Insurance	21
3	Metlife Insurance	Intangible	Insurance	45
4	ICICI Prudential	Intangible	Insurance	57
5	Bharathi AXA Insurance	Intangible	Insurance	31
6	HDFC Sales	Intangible	Home loans	16
7	HDFC Bank	Intangible	Home loans	20
8	HDFC Bank	Intangible	Personal loans	16
9	TVS Motors	Tangible	Cars	10
10	Indus Motor company	Tangible	Cars	39
11	MGF Hyundai	Tangible	Cars	10
12	Eureka Forbes	Tangible	Aqua guard	20
13	Eureka Forbes	Tangible	Vacuum cleaner	13
14	Others (3)	Tangible	Tiles/Solar Water Heater/Steel products	15
TOTAL				330

4.7   Tools of Data Collection

The data have been collected from the respondent sales executives by administering four test instruments. The three major independent variables of the study, Emotional intelligence, Sales Locus of control and Self-Esteem were measured by administering three independent tests of proven validity and reliability and they are listed below:

1. Emotional Intelligence Test by N. K. Chadha (2003).

2. Sales Locus of Control Scale (SLCS) by Chung and Ding (2002), and

3. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE).

Detailed descriptions of all the three tests are given below. The personal and occupational factors of the sales executives were surveyed by administering a Sales Executive Profile Sheet along with the aforementioned tests.

4.7.1 Emotional Intelligence Test by N. K. Chadha

An EQ test which measures emotional intelligence developed by Dr. N. K. Chadha (2003), a Psychology Professor at the University of Delhi, has been used in the study for measuring the EI of the Sales executives. Prof. Chadha has prepared the 'Emotional Intelligence Test' for the Indian population and it has been standardised on Indian managers, businessmen, bureaucrats and industrial workers. This is the first test developed for Indian population to measure emotional intelligence. The investigator was so particular in using an EI test which is developed in Indian culture as cultural differences were reported with respect to EI measurements by some researchers. For example, Sharma (2005) has studied Goleman's model in Indian context and has found cultural differences on some competencies (cited in McShane et al., 2006).

Prof. Chadha had established high validity and reliability for this test. As far as reliability is concerned, test-retest and split-half reliabilities were computed for the present scale. The retest reliability for the test was found to be 0.94. The split-half reliability in the case of odd-even items was 0.89 and for the first half and second half was 0.91. Both reliability coefficients are significantly higher, and indicate that the present EQ scale enjoys high reliability.

Validity of this instrument was determined with the help of two techniques 1) face validity and 2) empirical validity. The empirical validity of the scale was assessed by correlating the scale with 'external criteria'. The test, designed by Goleman and the present scale were administered to a group of subjects and the scores obtained from both tests were correlated to determine the validity index. The validity was found to be 0.92, which indicates that the present EQ scale is valid.

4.7.2 Sales Locus of Control Scale (SLCS)

The sales locus of control scale (SLCS), displaying satisfactory internal consistency reliability and evidence for validity, is a new LOC scale developed by Chung and Ding (2002), suitable specifically for salespeople. It is composed of 12 items that assess three factors {internal, chance and powerful others (external)}. A total of 1153 Taiwan insurance and industrial salespeople were used for development and evaluation of the scale. Construct validity, validities related to 29 criteria and reliabilities were all evaluated. Results indicated that reliabilities, the construct validity and most criterion-related validities are supported. Results also indicated that the criterion validities of the SLCS are generally better than those of locus of control scales developed by Rotter (1966), Levenson (1973) and Spector (1988). Moreover, situation-specific and multidimensional SLCS contains fewer items, and it is relatively independent of social desirability. The Reliability of the SLCS had been tested in a local sample of 50 sales executives and the Cronbach's Alpha found to be 0.754, 0.709 and 0.737 for SLOC-Internal, SLOC-Chance and SLOC-External respectively.

It was decided to use Sales Locus of Control Scale by Chung and Ding (2002) instead of the scale developed by Rotter due to several reasons. The most popular Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966) has been criticised

on several grounds. The major point of criticism was on the unidimensionality of the LOC construct in the scale, as it was not considering separate measurement for internality and externality. Phares (1976) recommended that researchers develop more domain-specific locus of control measures than the Rotter (1966) scale to enhance the predictiveness of locus of control. The Rotter (1966) measure is very general because its items cut across different domains (e.g. education, work, politics, and life in general). Rotter (1975) himself stated that instruments more sensitive than generalised LOC scales might be necessary to predict behaviour in specific situations.

The concept of using goal-specific measures of LOC as a better predictor than generalised LOC measures had been supported by other researchers also (Lefcourt, 1979). Ang and Chang (1999) also found that domain-specific measures of LOC are better predictors of behaviour for respective domain-relevant goals than for goals in the non-related realm. They concluded this after exploring the effects of domain-specific LOC on need achievement and need affiliation using the Multidimensional-Multiattributional Causality Scale (MMCS) developed by Lefcourt (1979). It is reported by Lefcourt (1992) that18 scales measuring control beliefs in different specific domains had been developed in 1980's and early 1990's due to the widely accepted view that LOC is multidimensional and requires the use of domain-specific measure instead of a global measure.

Models of salespeople's behaviour might be better tested using the SLCS as an indicator of sales-specific locus of control beliefs. This is why SLCS has been used in the study instead of the scale developed by the Rotter (1966). All the statements in the scale are specific to sales job and the scale measures the multidimensional aspect of the control belief, such as Externality, Internality and Chance.

4.7.3 The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE)

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale was developed by Morris Rosenberg in 1965. The scale is used to assess global self-esteem and it is one of the most widely used self-esteem tests among psychologists and sociologists all over the world. It has been translated to 28 languages, across 53 nations. It was originally developed to assess self-esteem among adolescents.

The RSE is a 10-item self-report measure of global self-esteem. All the 10 statements related to overall feelings of self-worth or self-acceptance and the test can be completed in less than 5 minutes. The items were scored on a four-point scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Scores range from 10 to 40, with higher scores indicating higher self-esteem.

Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale is a brief and unidimensional measure of global self-esteem. Extensive and acceptable reliability (internal consistency and test-retest) and validity (convergent and discriminant) information exists for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). The scale has been validated for use with both male and female adolescent, adult and elderly populations. The Reliability of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale had been tested in a local sample of 50 sales executives and the Cronbach's Alpha found to be 0.786.

4.7.4 Sales Executive Profile Sheet

The researcher wanted to study the influence of the personal and occupational factors of the sales executives on their emotional intelligence and also their relationship with the sales performance. Hence, a Sales Executive Profile Sheet was developed by the researcher to collect the relevant details with regard to the personal and occupational factors of the sales executives.

Apart from the introductory details such as Name, Age, Sex etc., 12 Questions were included in the profile sheet to collect information about the sales executives with respect to the total experience, experience with the present company, educational qualifications, marital status, percentage of target attainment, sales conversion rate, training programmes attended, number of siblings, ordinal position, parents education and occupation. A set of another three questions were included to obtain the supervisors' comments with respect to the performances of the executives.

The preliminary form of profile sheet was administered to a sample of 50 sales executives to validate the same and also to ensure the ease and simplicity of the words used. Based on the feedback some of the questions were modified to improve their clarity and avoid confusion. A couple of questions were deleted and a few questions added based on the experience in the pilot study. The final set of questions in the profile sheet was submitted to half a dozen experienced sales managers to establish the face validity to the profile sheet. The final Sales Executive Profile Sheet approved by the sales managers had been used in the study for collecting personal and the occupational details of the sales executives and the same is appended as Annexure-IV.

4.8   Measurement of Sales Executives' Performance

The major objective of the study was to identify the relationship between the sales performance and the three factors - emotional intelligence, sales locus of control and self-esteem- of the executives. It is very obvious that the measurement of the performances of the sales executives became the most important aspect of the study as it is the single most important dependent variable of the study. Deciding how to measure the performance was a difficult task to the investigator. Different methods of assessing sales performances were examined during the review of literature.

Mostly three methods were used in previous studies to measure the sales performance, one common method used in studies originated from United States was considering the pay of the executive as the measure of performance (Jeremy Geiser, 2001). That is, highly paid executives are highly performing executives. Another method was depending on the self-report measure of the executives. Self-report measures of sales performance have been used frequently in sales research and have been found to be a reliable measure by many researchers (Bagozzi, 1978; Behrman and Perrault, 1982; Churchill et al., 1985; Cravens et al., 1993). Under self-measure method respondents were asked to report their perceived sales performance. But these two measures need not be that accurate in Indian context, as getting both the actual remuneration statistics and unbiased self-report measures by the executives are difficult tasks.

Third method of measure is taking Sales performance against the sales quota assigned to the executives. Since sales quota represents an objective for the sales executives, it is widely accepted as a standard of performance measurement (Good and Stone, 1991). Quota based measure is an outcome-based performance measure seemed to be objective also. Oliver and Anderson (1994) also report that quota serves as a catalyst affecting attitudes, motivations, strategies and performance and it is an outcome-based performance measure. Darmon (1997) opined that sales quotas serve to channel salespeople's effort according to managerial priorities and/or for providing convenient benchmarks against which actual sales performance can be assessed and controlled (cited in Schwepker Jr & Good, 2004).

The investigator initially considered sales quota as a valid measure of performance which can be applied in Indian context. It gives objectivity to the measurement as the same can be collected from the sales supervisors or managers based on the past sales records. But, it was realised that performance measure exclusively based on sales quota would not give an overall performance dimension

as it does not include other dimensions related to the performance of the executives such as customer relations, operational costs, knowledge of the firm's policies, competitors, customers, products as well as planning. Since the sales job is highly competitive and the customer relationship management and operational cost effectiveness are of utmost importance in the present day marketing environment, assessing the sales performance of the executives based on the sales quota alone would not give a perfect picture of the sales performance.

Keeping the above in mind, the investigator interacted with sales executives, sales managers and supervisors of various sales organisations to reach a final decision. Considering the feedback from the experts both from the companies and the academic sector, it was finally decided to take an overall assessment of sales performance of the executives rated by the immediate sales supervisors as the performance measure. Hence, three questions were included at the end of the Sales Executive Profile Sheet to enable the supervisors to rate the performances of the executives. Out of the three questions, one was rating the performance against the sales quota, second was rating them based on the customer feedback and the third was the overall assessment of the supervisor about the executives considering their all-round performance. The questions were asked in such an order to create an appropriate evaluative mind among the supervisors before making the overall assessment about the executives' performance. The sales supervisors were asked to put the executives into any of the following group based on the overall assessment- Poor Performer, Average Performer, Above Average Performer or Excellent Performer. This overall assessment about the executives' performance by the supervisors had been taken as the performance measure in the study by rating it on a four point scale, that is, a poor performer gets minimum score and excellent performer gets maximum score.

4.9 Data Processing and Analysis

The collected data had been processed and analysed by the investigator with the help of SPSS. The 330 data were carefully entered to the SPSS spread sheet for analysis. Descriptive And inferential statistical tools were used to get different measures, coefficients and test results. Statistical tests like t-test, ANOVA, Correlation and Post-Hoc Test were used to verify the relationships between various independent and dependent variables considered during the study. The Q-Q plot has been used for testing the distribution of the responses. The Statistical inferences have been drawn at 5 % level of significance (p= 0.05).

4.10 Organisation of Thesis

The entire content of the thesis is organised and presented in eight chapters as shown below:

1. Introduction
2. Conceptual Framework of the variables - EI, LOC and Self-Esteem
3. Review of Literature - EI, LOC and Self-Esteem
4. Methodology of the Study
5. Profile of the Sample and the Distribution Pattern of the Responses.
6. Analysis and Interpretations
7. Findings and Discussion
8. Summary, Implications and Conclusions
   References
   Appendices

4.11 Data Presentation

The data analysis and interpretation part of the research has been organised in three chapters. The analysis of the profile of the sample with respect to their age, sex, marital status, education, experience etc. have been presented in the fifth chapter. The investigator had examined the nature of the distribution of the data with respect to the major variables of the study such as emotional intelligence, sales locus of control and self-esteem and also with respect to the performance rating s of the sales executives by themselves and also by the sales supervisors for understanding the normality of the sample. The normality analysis carried out is also presented in chapter-5. Chapter-5 is named as the "Profile of the sample and the Distribution Pattern of the responses".

Chapter-6 contains the analysis of the influence of the independent variables on the performance of the sales executives. This chapter presents the analysis of the interrelationships between emotional intelligence, sales locus of control and self-esteem and also the impact of personal factors of the sales executives on the level of their emotional intelligence. Presentation of findings and discussions in relation to the findings of previous researches are included in chapter-7.

4.12 Limitations of the Study

1. The data had been collected only from those executives who were directly selling to the end user and the universe excluded sales executives belonging to the group of channel salesmen or missionary salesmen. Executives who were selling products to the industrial buyers alone and executives who were doing telemarketing were also excluded. Hence, it would not be appropriate to generalise the findings of the study with such groups of sales executives.

2. While measuring emotional intelligence, overall emotional intelligence of the sales executives had been measured and did not undertake any micro analysis on impacts of various components of EI on performance.

3. There may be intervening variables (other personality factors and situational factors) that were not considered during the study that may have an impact on sales executives' performance.

Chapter 5

PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE AND THE DISTRIBUTION PATTERN OF THE RESPONSES

The first part of the data analysis was focused on identifying the profile of the sample and analyzing the nature of distribution of the responses with respect to different variables considered for the study and the same is presented in this Chapter. The contents of this chapter are organized in two parts as shown below.

Part: I - Profile of the respondent sales executives

Part: II - Distribution of the responses with respect to different variables used in the study

The details of the analysis carried out in each part are explained below.

5.1   PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENT SALES EXECUTIVES

During the study the researcher had collected details of many personal and occupational factors of the sales executives such as age, sex, education, experience, marital status, type of products selling and company switchover for depicting their profile in order to understand their influence over the variables emotional intelligence. The sample consisting of 330 sales executives from various companies selling either tangible or intangible products. The performances of the executives were rated by both the sales executives themselves and the sales supervisors. The data collected with respect to their personal and occupational profile are presented below one after the other in a summarized manner.

5.1.1   Age, Experience and Company Switchover

To develop a better picture about the professional profile of the sample, information with respect to the age, total experience, experience in the present company and total number of firms worked by the sales executives were explored.

The age of the 330 sales executives were varying from 21 years to 56 years with a mean age of 27.5485. The interval between the minimum age and the maximum age is very wide as executives belonging to various age groups were included in the sample and most of them were belonging to the 25-35 age group. The total experience of the sales executives were varying from three months to 240 months (20 years) with a mean experience of 46.2545 months (3 years and 10.25 months).

The total experience of the sales executives with their current company was also examined and the same was varying from three months to 160 months (13 years and 4 months). Data collection was restricted to the sales executives who were having at least three months of experience with the current company with an intention to ensure maximum objectivity with regard to the performance rating by the supervisors. The mean experience of the sample with the present company is 20.5121 months (one year and 8.5 months).

Table: 5.1   Descriptive statistics with respect to age, experience and company switchover of the sales executives

Qualifications	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age of the Sales Executive	330	21.00	56.00	27.5485	5.08640
Total Experience as Sales Executive in Months	330	3.00	240.00	46.2545	37.69203
Total Experience in the present Company in Months	330	3.00	160.00	20.5121	18.86284
Total Number of Firms worked with so far in career in Sales	330	1.00	9.00	2.1364	1.22891

To understand the frequency of the job change (only sales job is considered) from one company to other, the total number of firms worked by the respondents was surveyed during the study. It is clear from Table 5.1 that the total number of firms varies from one to nine with a mean company switchover of 2.1364.

5.1.2   Educational Qualifications of the Sales Executives

The educational qualifications of the sales executives were surveyed with the presumption that these qualifications would influence either the development of some of the key personality variables or the performing skills of the executives. The details of the qualifications of the respondents are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Educational profile of the sales executives

Serial No.	Qualifications	Frequency	Percent
1	Plus 2	9	2.7
2	Graduate	186	56.4
3	Post Graduate	26	7.9
4	Technical/Professional	38	11.5
5	Sales Diploma	2	0.6
6	MBA	69	20.9
	Total	330	100.0

More than the half of the respondents were graduates (56.4 %) and 20.9 % of the executives were Masters in Business Administration (M.B.A). Executives with technical/professional qualifications other than M.B.A. were 12.1 % whereas Postgraduates other than M.B.A. were just 7.9 % (Post graduates including MBA's were 28.8 %). There were only a few executives who were having just plus 2 as their qualifications (Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1 Educational profile of sales executives
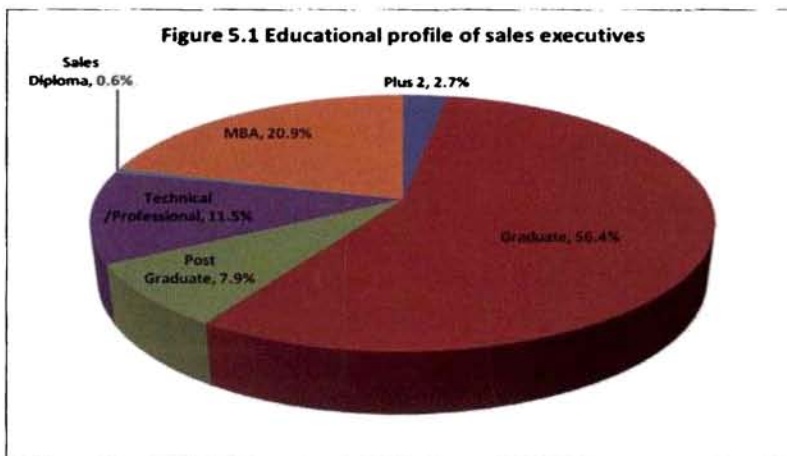
5.1.3   Marital Status

Out of the 330 Sales executives only 129 were married (39.1 %) and the rest of the 201 (Figure 5.2) were unmarried (60.9 %).

Figure 5.2 Marital status of the respondents
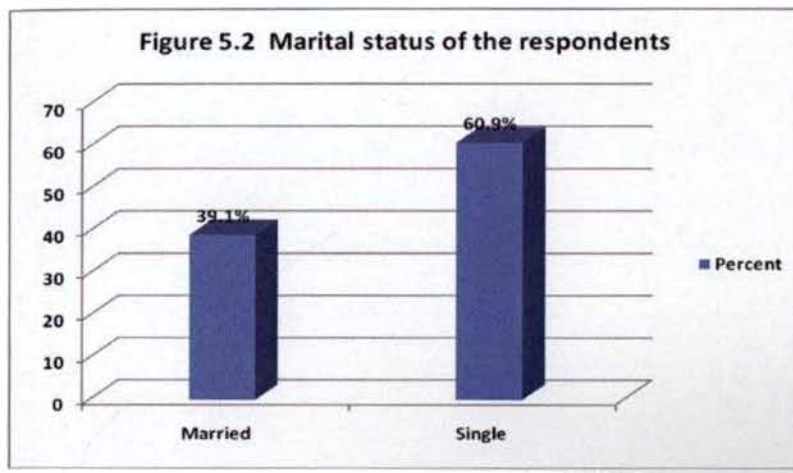
5.1.4   Sex Composition of the Sample

The sex composition of the respondent sales executives are as shown in Figure 5.3. Even though the data were collected from different companies the representation of the female executives happened to be comparatively low. There were only 25 (7.6 %) females in the sample whereas the male executives were 305, i.e. 92.4 %.

Figure 5.3 Sex composition of the sample

Female
8%

Male
92%
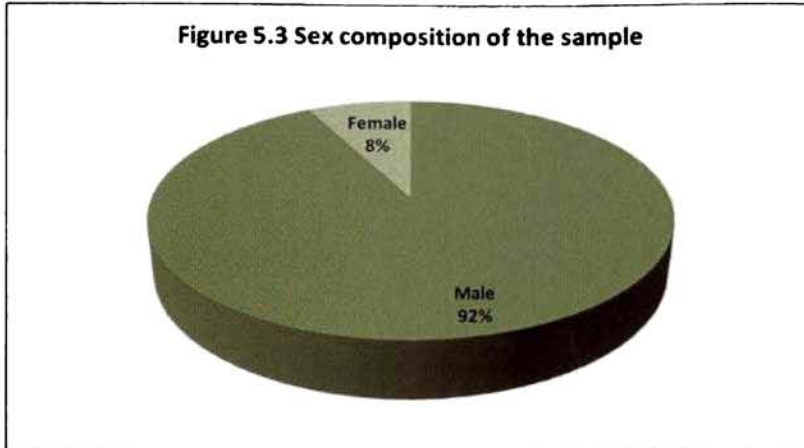
5.1.5 Type of the Products Sold by the Executives

The data were collected from sales executives who were selling various products and services and hence a distinction was made between the executives who were selling tangible and intangible products (Figure 5.4). A great majority of the sample were selling intangible products. There were 223 sales executives (67.6 %) who were selling intangible products and they were drawn from various insurance companies and banks, whereas the 32.4 % of the executives (107 No.s) were selling tangible goods like cars, aqua guards and vacuum cleaners.

Figure 5.4 Types of products sold by the executives

Tangible
32%
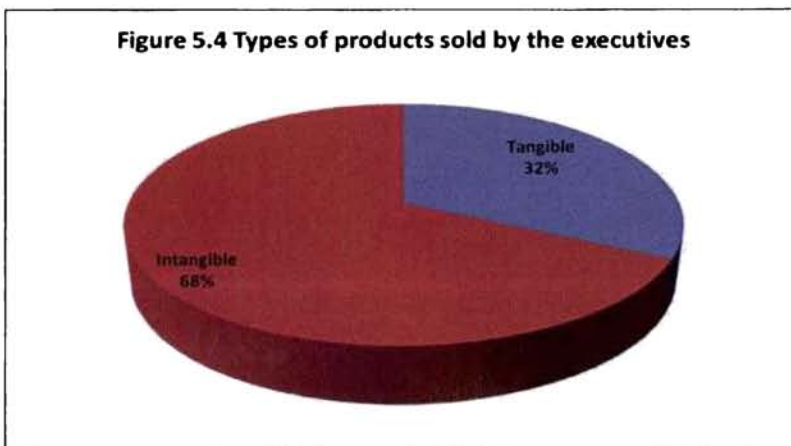
Intangible
68%

5.1.6   The Category of Products Sold by the Executives

Apart from the tangible and intangible nature of the products, the category of products sold by the executives was also analyzed. The executives included in the sample were selling more than half a dozen variety of products including insurance policies, cars, home loans etc. and the details of the same is summarized in Table 5.3. It is obvious from the table that the majority of the respondent executives (51.8 %) were the insurance sellers and nearly 18 % were selling cars. The executives who were selling Loans, either Home loans or Personal loans constituted 15.7 % of the sample, while the 10 % was constituted by the respondents who were selling vacuum cleaner and Aqua guard (Figure 5.5).

Table 5.3 Category of products sold by the executives

Serial No.	Product Category	Frequency	Percent
1	Insurance	171	51.8
2	Car	59	17.9
3	Home loans	36	10.9
4	Personal loans	16	4.8
5	Vacuum Cleaner	13	3.9
6	Others	15	4.5
7	Aqua guard	20	6.1
	Total	330	100.0

Figure 5.5 The category of products sold by the executives
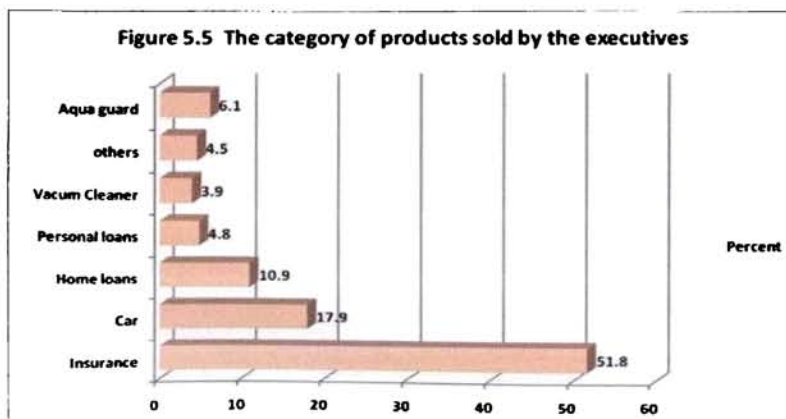
5.1.7 Rating of the Sales Performance and Sales Conversion Rate

The performances of the sales executives included in the sample were rated against the sales targets by the sales executives themselves and the sales supervisors. It was necessary to measure the performances of the sales executives in order to compare and relate the same with various personality factors considered for the research. The sales executives were asked to rate their performances against the sales targets assigned to them by the company concerned over a period of time. The sales executives with a minimum of three months (one quarter) experiences with the current company were only considered for the study. The sales supervisors were asked to rate the performances of the executives concerned based on the past sales records of the executives with respect to their target achievement.

Table 5.4 Descriptive statistics with respect to the performance of the sales executives and their sales conversion rate

Qualifications	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Percentage of attainment of Sales Quota	330	20.00	123.00	78.3697	20.43545
Average effective sales out of 10 sales attempts	330	1.00	10.00	4.9273	2.07917
Supervisor's Rating of Sales Performance attainment (percentage of target)	330	20.00	120.00	75.8061	23.32613

The details of the performance ratings by both the executives and the supervisors are summarized in Table 5.4. The lowest performance and the highest performance as per the self rating of the sales executives are 20 % and 123 % respectively with mean performance of 78.3697 %. Supervisor's rating of performance shows 20 % and 120 % as the lowest and highest sales performance of the executives respectively with a mean performance of 75.8061 %.

The effective sales performances in relation to the actual sales attempts by the executives were explored by asking them to rate their effective sales out of ten sales presentations. It is clear from the Table 5.4 that the effective sales varies from one to ten out of ten selling attempts as reported by the sales executives. It is found that the mean effective sale is almost five out of ten attempts.

5.1.8   Customer Feedback According to Supervisor

The customer feedback to the company about the executive is one component of sales executive's performance and the same was examined during the study. The supervisors were asked to rate the customer feedback with respect to each executives in terms of Good, Satisfied, Dissatisfied and Poor (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 Customer feedback according to supervisor

Serial No.	Customer Feedback according to Supervisor	Frequency	Percent
1	Good	196	59.4
2	Satisfactory	127	38.5
3	Dissatisfied	7	2.1
	Total	330	100.0

Figure 5.6 Customer feedback according to supervisor
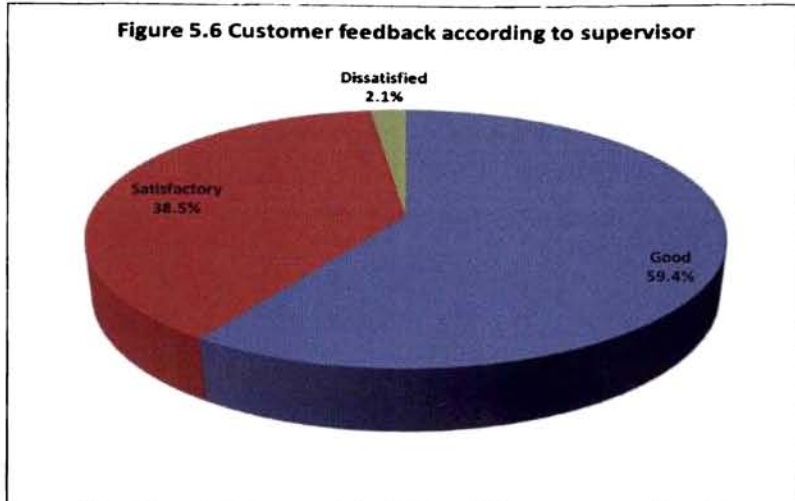
From Figure 5.6 it can be understood that only a negligible percentage of the sales executives failed to generate positive feedback from the customers. Supervisors reported that 59.4 % of the executives brought in good feedback and the customers were satisfied in case of 38.5 % of sales executives.

5.1.9 Overall Assessment of Sales Executives' Performance by the Supervisors

The performance of the sales executives are influenced by many factors and target attainment is only one among them. Hence, the measurement of performance just based on the sales target need not give an exact picture all the time about the executives' performance. Many important factors such as Customer feedback, expense incurred for per unit sale, his method of customer relationship management, leads generation, seasonal effect on sale, complexity and familiarity of the product etc. are need to be considered while assessing the performance of the executives. Keeping this in mind the sales supervisors of the executives included in the sample were asked to make an overall assessment about the performance of the executives by considering all the relevant factors as mentioned

above. The supervisors were asked to place the executives to any of the four choices given to them as shown in Table 5.6 based on their overall assessment about the executives.

Table 5.6 Overall assessment of sales executives' performance by supervisors

Serial No.	Supervisor's assessment of performance	Frequency	Percent
1	Poor Performer	12	3.6
2	Average Performer	150	45.5
3	Above Average Performer	107	32.4
4	Excellent Performer	61	18.5
	Total	330	100.0

The supervisors rated 45.5 % of the sample as the average performers on the basis of their overall assessment whereas 32.4 % as above average performers. The executives who were rated as poor performers constituted 3.6 % of the sample, while 18.5 % were assessed as excellent sales executives (Figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7 Overall assesment of sales performance by supervisors
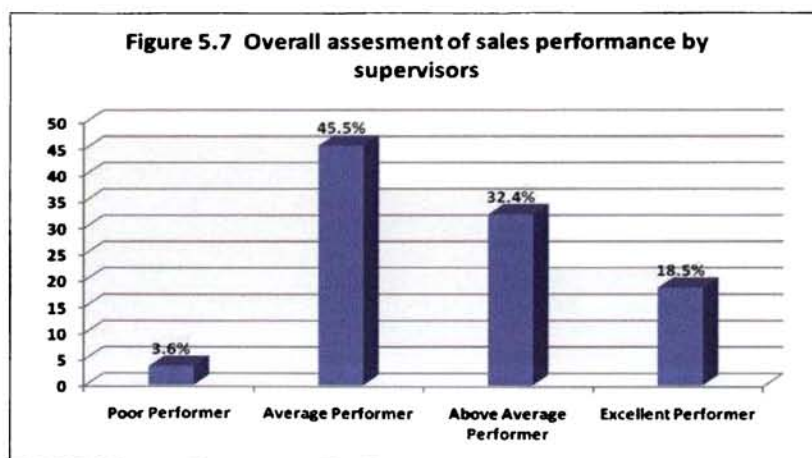
5.2 DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONSES WITH RESPECT TO DIFFERENT VARIABLES USED IN THE STUDY

The research was carried out primarily to verify the relationships if any exists between the performances of the sales executives and their some of the personal factors namely Emotional Intelligence, Sales Locus of Control and Self-Esteem. The aforementioned variables were measured with the help of standardized tests of proven validity and reliability and the details of the instruments are mentioned in Chapter 4. The performance of the sales executives were measured with the help of five questions put in the executive profile sheet. Out of the five questions two were asked to the sales executives to rate their performance by themselves and the rest were asked to sales supervisors to rate the executives based on different criteria.

During the analysis of the data the researcher analyzed the normality of the distribution of the sample with respect to both the independent and dependent variables. This analysis is presented under two major headings:

1. Analysis of distribution of the sample with respect to independent variables
2. Analysis of distribution of the sample with respect to dependent variables

5.2.1 Analysis of Distribution of the Sample With Respect To Independent Variables

The three major independent variables used in the study to know their impact over the performance of the sales executives are Emotional Intelligence, Sales Locus of Control and Self-Esteem. To examine whether the responses of the sample with respect to these independent variables are following normal

distribution, normal curve have been plotted over the histogram that represent the frequencies of each variable.

5.2.1.1 Emotional Intelligence

It is very clear from Figure 5.8 that the distribution of the Emotional Intelligence scores is normal. Normal Q-Q Plot have also been used to verify the normality of EI distribution as it is the major variable of the study and the same is shown in Figure 5.9. Normal Q-Q Plot also confirms the normality of the distribution.

Figure 5.8 Distribution of the EI scores of the respondents
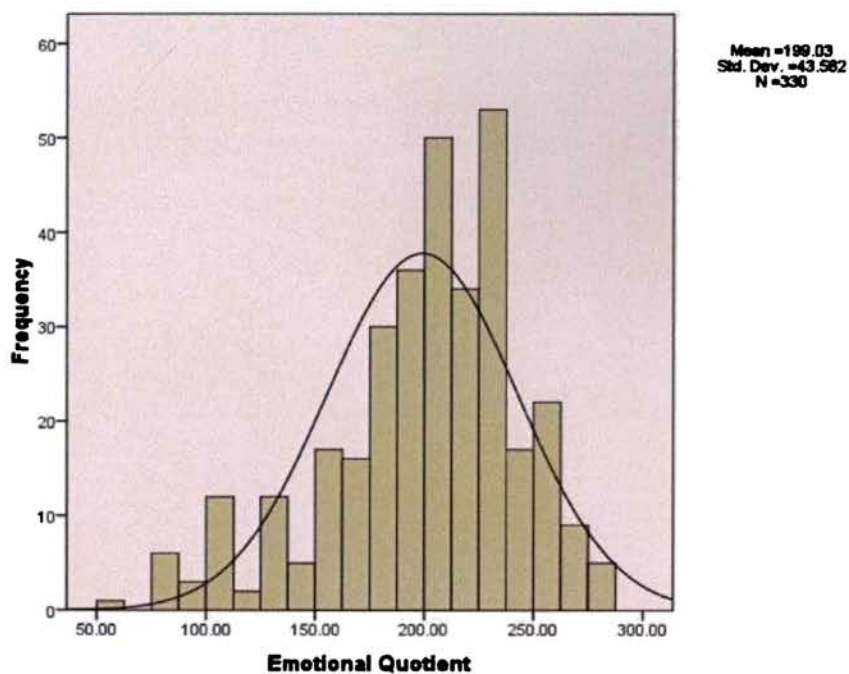
Figure 5.9 Normal Q-Q Plot of Emotional Quotient
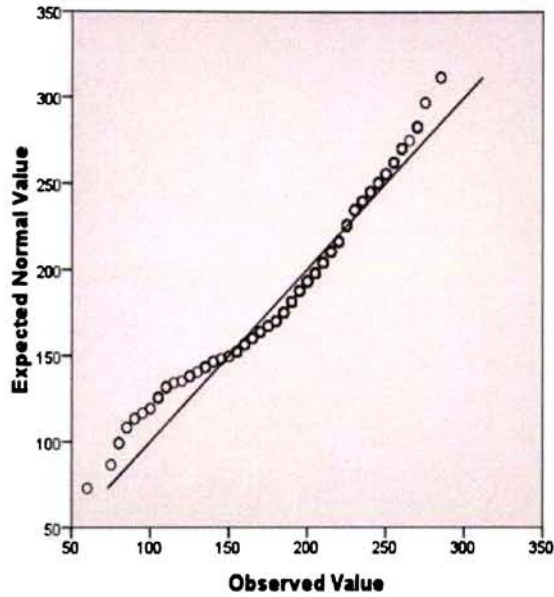
5.2.1.2 Sales Locus of Control

The independent variable Sales Locus of Control has three dimensions-External, Internal and Chance and all the three were measured. The distributions of all the three dimensions of Sales Locus of Control were tested for normality by plotting normal curve and found normal. Some of them are shown in Figures 5.10, 5.11 and 5.12.

Figure 5.10 Distribution of the SLOC-external scores of the respondents
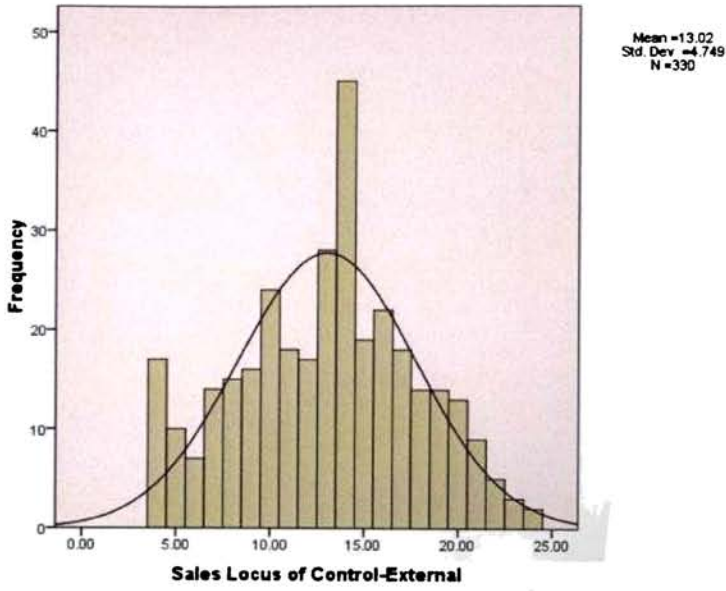
Figure 5.11 Normal Q-Q Plot of Sales Locus of Control-External
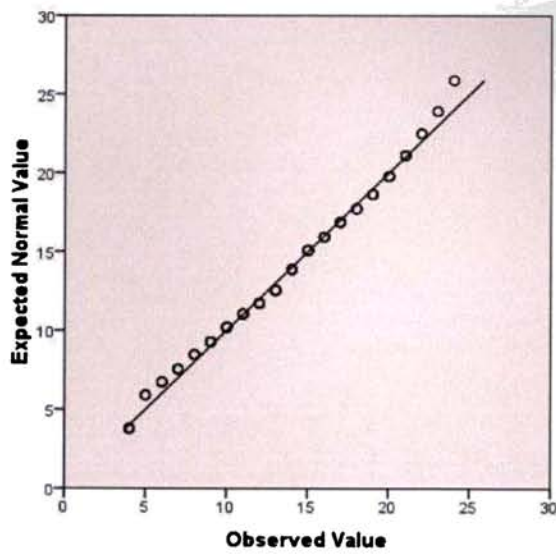
Figure 5.12 Distribution of the SLOC-Chance scores of respondents

Sales Locus of Control-Chance
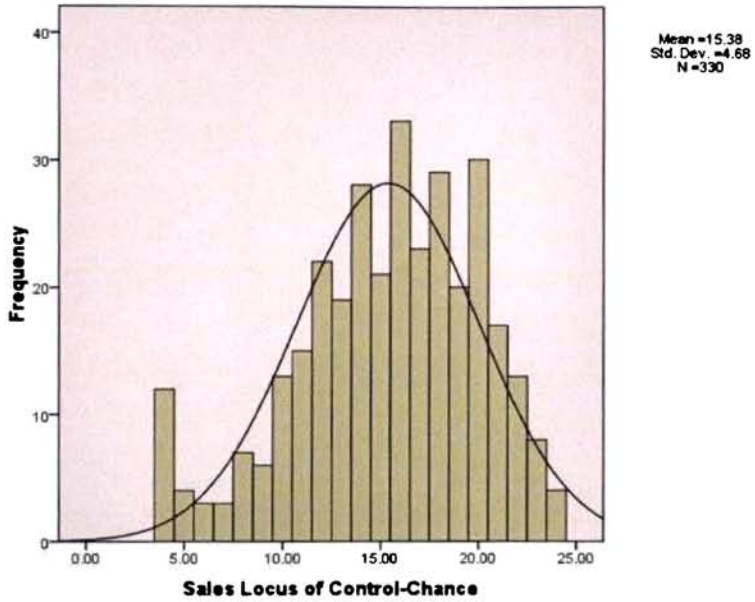
5.2.1.3 Self-Esteem

Figure 5.13 Distribution of the Self-esteem scores of respondents
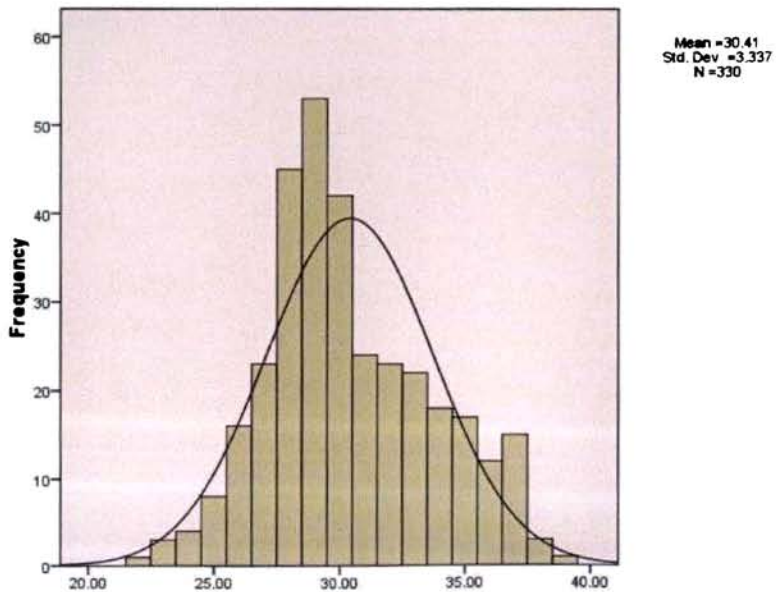
The overall Self-Esteem scores were subjected to normality testing with the help of Normal curve and Normal Q-Q Plot testing and found normal. The Normal curve and Normal Q-Q Plot plotted for Overall Self Esteem are shown in Figures 5.13 and 5.14 respectively.

Figure 5.14 Normal Q-Q Plot of Overall Self Esteem
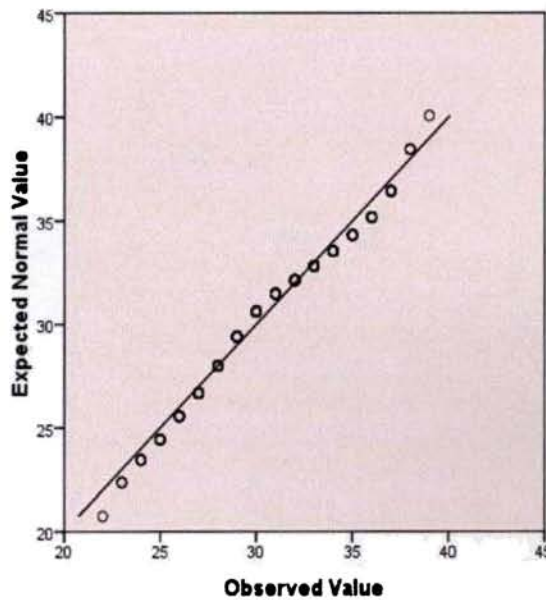
5.2.2 Analysis of Distribution of the Sample with respect to Dependent Variable

Since the Sales Executive's performance is taken as the single dependent variable, it became very important for the researcher to ensure whether the outcome variables is normally distributed or not. Hence all the outcome measures (data related to the performance) were subjected to Q-Q Plot test to observe the normality of the data and the results are plotted in the following figures. Histograms were developed based on the frequency of each out put measures and normal curve was plotted on the same for easy understanding of the distribution.

5.2.2.1 Percentage of attainment of Sales Quota (Self Rating by the Sales executives)

The Sales executives rated their performance with respect to their attainment against the sales targets and the data had been tabulated and represented in the histogram shown in Figure 5.15 and the normal curve is also plotted. It is obvious from the graph that the distribution of the data is normal. The Normal Q-Q Plot is also shown (Figure 5.16) a normal distribution.

Figure 5.15 Distribution of percentage of attainment of sales Quota (self rating by the sales executives)
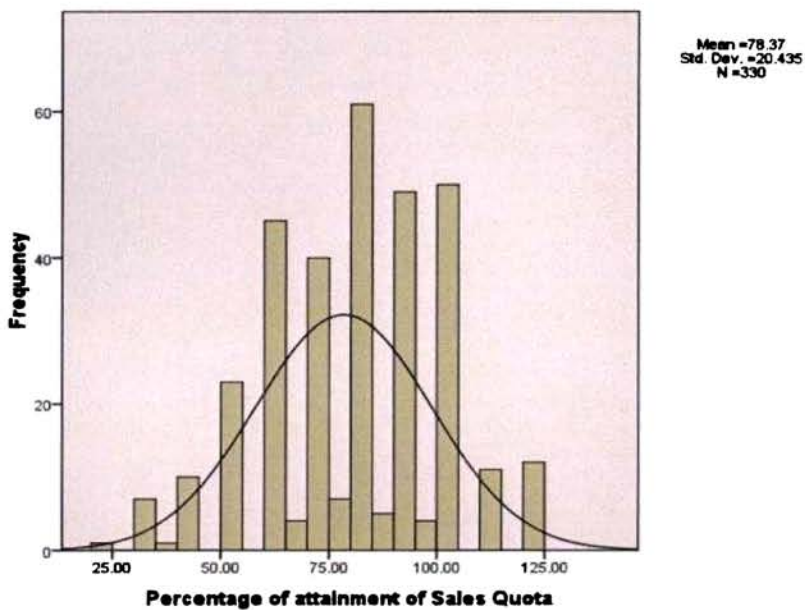
Figure 5.16 Normal Q-Q Plot of Percentage of attainment of Sales Quota
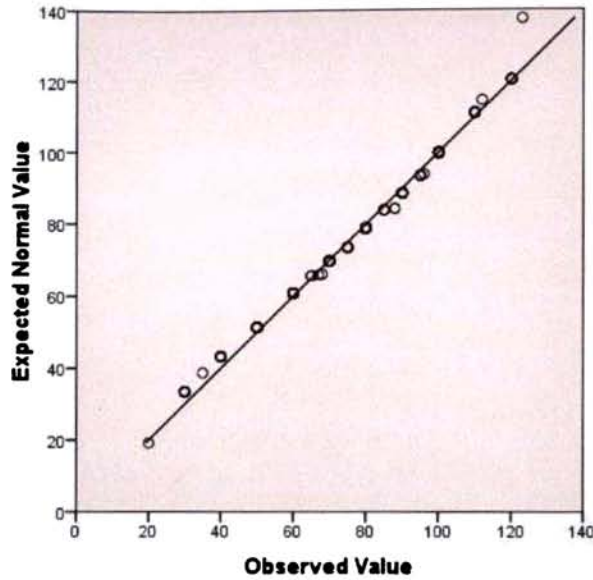
5.2.2.2 Effective Sales Conversion out of ten Selling Attempts

The sales conversion rates of the sales executives out of ten sales presentations were also studied as a measure of performance. The data collected as reported by the executives are plotted in Figure 5.17. Both the Normal curve and Normal Q-Q Plot show (Figure 5.18) a normal distribution.

Figure 5.17 Distribution of effective sales conversion out of ten selling attempts

How many effective sales will you make out of 10 attempts
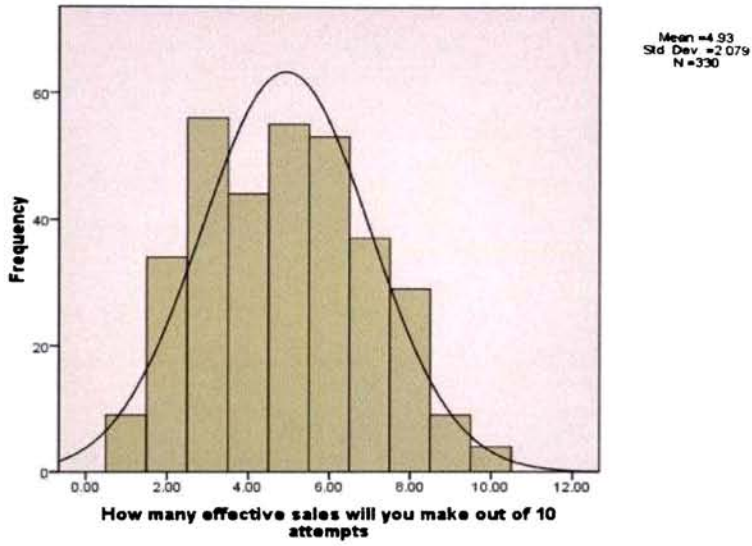
Figure 5.18 Normal Q-Q Plot of How many effective sales will you make out of 10 attempts
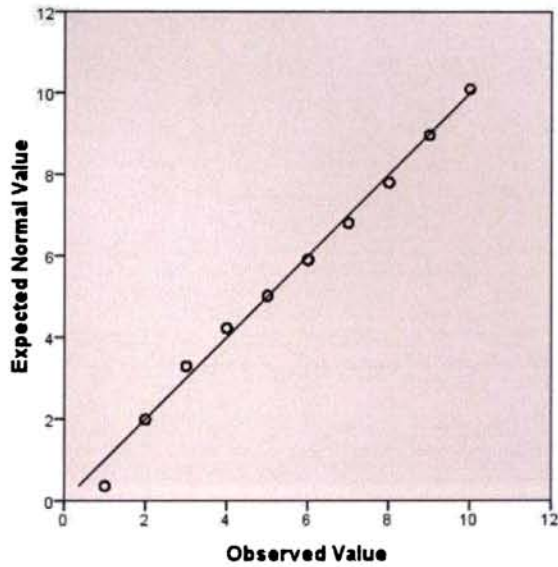
5.2.2.3 Percentage of Attainment of Sales Quota (Rating by the Sales Supervisors)

The sales supervisors rated the performance of the Sales executives with respect to their percentage of attainment against the sales targets. Sales supervisors relied on the past company records to rate the performance. The data were subjected to the normality analysis. Both the Normal Curve and Normal Q-Q Plot show a normal distribution (Figures 5.19 and 5.20).

Figure 5.19 Distribution percentage of attainment of sales quota

(rating by the sales supervisors)

Mean =75.81
Std. Dev. =23.326
N =330
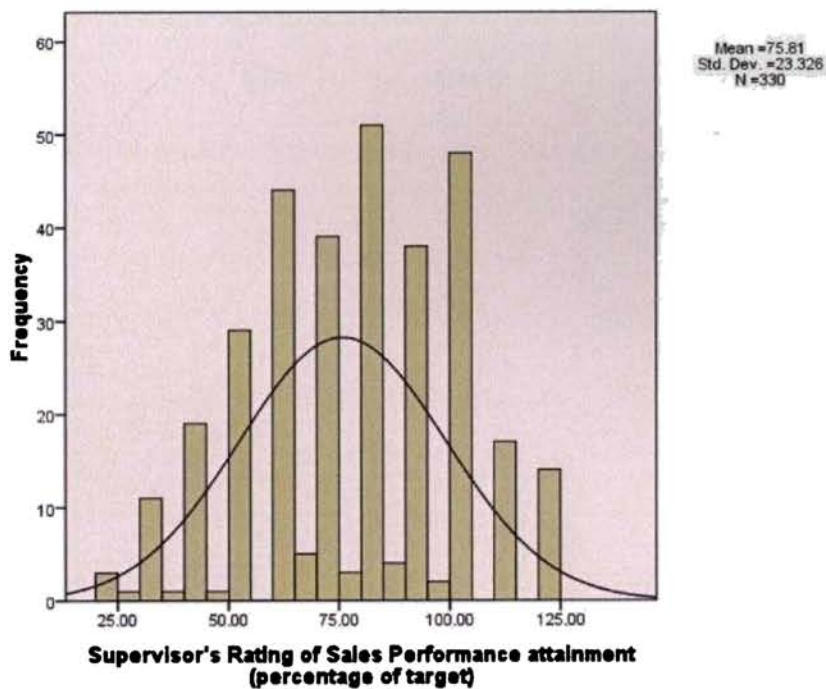
Figure 5.20 Normal Q-Q Plot of Supervisor's Rating of Sales Performance attainment (percentage of target)
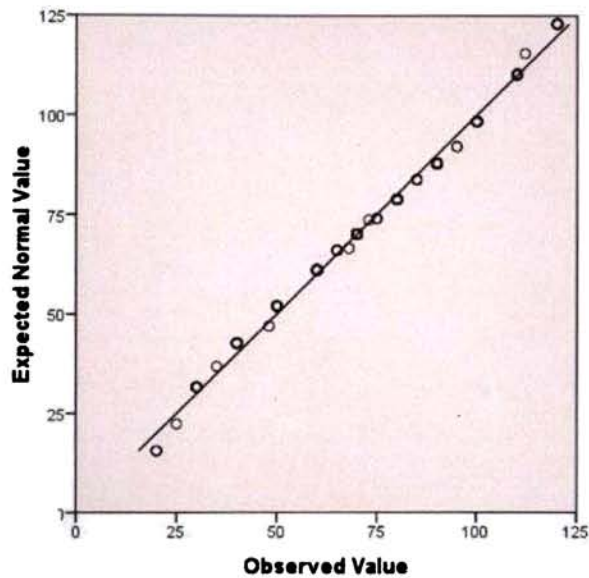
5.2.2.4 Cross Comparisons of Performance Measures

After conducting Q-Q plot, it is found that all the output variables were normally distributed. Further, to check whether the performance measures are consistent, cross comparisons were made between the self rating of the executives and the ratings by the sales supervisors. The supervisors' assessment on sales executives with respect to their overall performance classifies the executives into four groups- Poor Performer, Average Performer, Above Average Performer and Excellent Performer. These overall assessments were compared against the Executive's Self-rating against the quota, self rated Conversion rates and Supervisor's rating against the quota. The comparisons are shown in Figures 5.21, 5.22 and 5.23 and all figures show consistent and complementary results.

Figure 5.21 Comparison between attainment of sales quota and overall assessment of sales performance by the supervisor
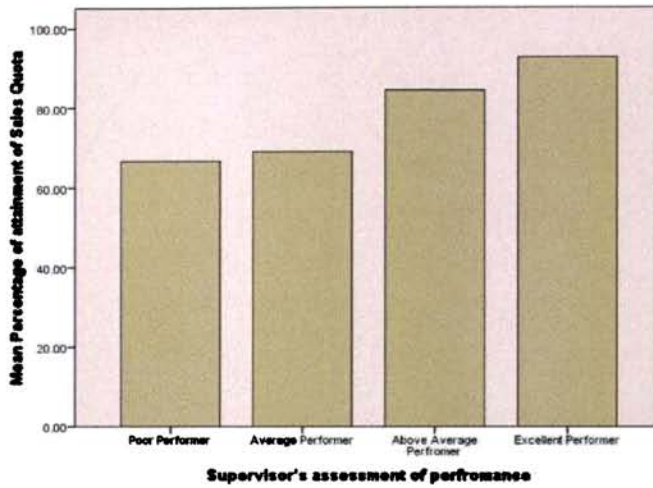
Figure 5.22 Comparison between effective sales conversion rate and supervisors' assessment of performance
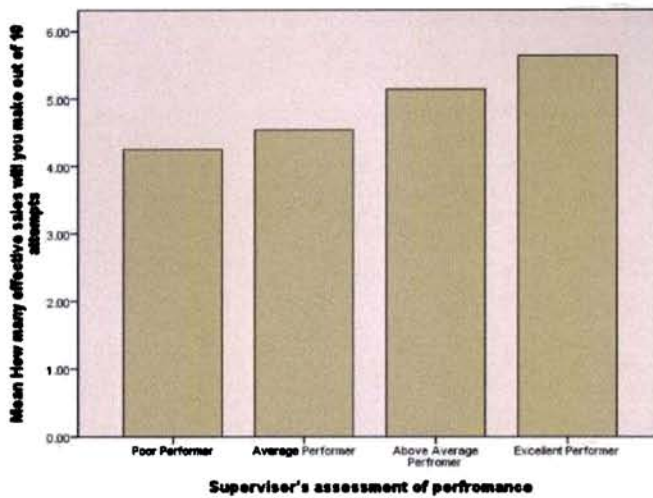
Figure 5.23 Comparison between Supervisors' rating and overall assessment of sales executives' performance
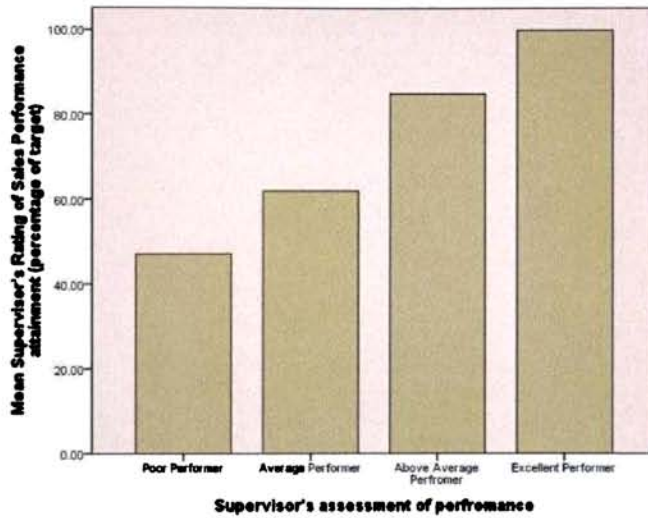
Figure 5.24 Scatter Plot for Self rating and supervisors rating of sales executives' performance
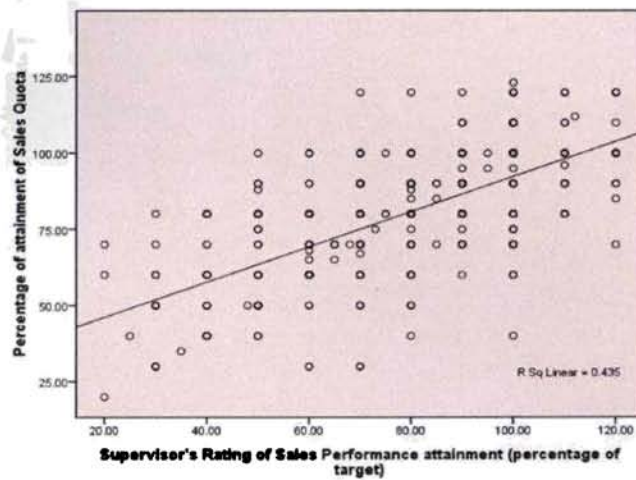
The Scatter plot was also carried out between ratings of performance against the sales quota by the sales executives and the sales supervisors in order to check the distribution and the Figure 5.24 shows both the consistency and the normality of the distribution.

Chapter 6

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The analysis of the collected data has been carried out with the help of SPSS. All the hypotheses formulated in the fourth Chapter were tested using appropriate statistical tests like t-test, ANOVA and Correlation. The Post Hoc test was carried out in places wherever it was necessary. The statistical inferences have been drawn at 5 % level of significance (p= 0.05).

The overall assessment of sales executives by the supervisors had been taken as the measure of sales performance throughout the analysis.

In the analysis the testing and reporting of null hypotheses are sequenced according to the order of the (alternate) hypotheses stated in Chapter 4.2. The analysis of independent variables in relation to sales performance is reported first, subsequently the analysis of personal and occupational factors of the executives in relation to their emotional intelligence is presented. Some additional analysis is carried out in between with respect to certain variables even though specific hypotheses are not formulated earlier in such cases. This is done due to the academic interest of the investigator. The analysis of the data is presented below one by one.

6.1   Emotional Intelligence and Sales Executives' Performance

Literature review undoubtedly established a strong relationship between emotional intelligence and executive performance in general. The investigator wished to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and the sales executives' performance in particular. A strong influence of emotional intelligence

is expected over the performances of sales executives in personal selling situations. Executives have to manage a lot with respect to the emotions of themselves and the clients during a selling situation. Personal selling involves many stages in which a high level of emotional management is required. It is in this context the first hypothesis was formulated.

H1: Higher the level of emotional intelligence, higher is the performance of the sales executives.

The sample was split into two groups based on the median of the emotional intelligence (EI) as group with low EI and high EI and the mean performances of these two group were tested to find whether there is any significant difference between these two mean scores. Supervisors' assessment of sales executives' performance had been taken as the measure of performance. The null hypothesis was tested by computing the t-test statistic and the results of which are tabulated in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 t-Test- Emotional intelligence and sales executives' performance

	Emotional Quotient (Low High)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Significance
Supervisor's assessment of performance	Low	169	2.5562	0.76266	-2.321	0.021
	High	161	2.7640	0.86252		

Among the 330 respondents included in the sample 169 were classified as with low emotional intelligence and the group's mean performance as assessed by the sales supervisors was 2.5562. The remaining 161 were put in to the group of high emotional intelligence and the mean performance of the group was 2.7640. It is found that the difference in mean performance of the two groups is highly significant as the 'p' value is 0.021. Since the mean performance of the group with high emotional intelligence is greater than the other group, the hypothesis (H1) that 'higher the level of emotional intelligence, higher is the performance of the sales executives', is accepted. It is obvious from Figure 6.1 that the mean performance of the executives goes up as the emotional intelligence goes up.

Figure 6.1 Graphical representation of the relationship between EI and Executives' Performance
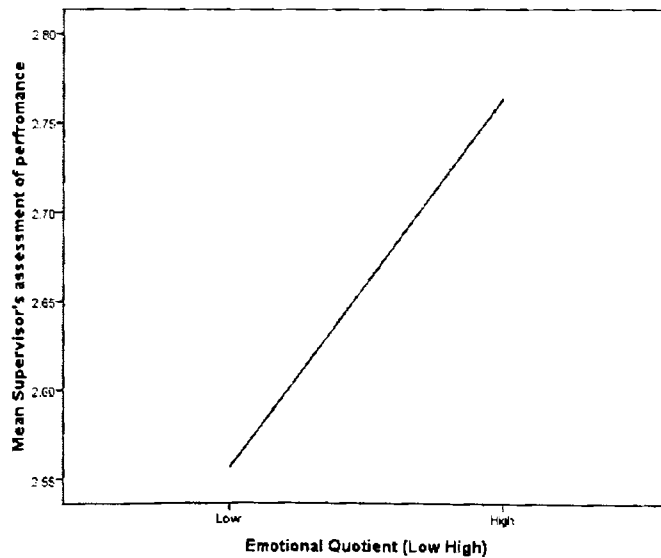
6.2   Locus of Control and Sales Executives' Performance

Locus of control refers to one's belief in his or her abilities to control life events. According to Rotter (1966) locus of control is a fundamental personality trait referring to individual difference in a generalized belief in internal versus external control of reinforcement. Studies have established that the individuals with locus of control internal orientation see themselves as active agents, feel that they are masters of their fates and trust in their capacity to influence the environment. At the same time people with external orientations see themselves as relatively passive agents and behave that the events in their lives are due to uncontrollable forces.

Since the literature shows strong relationship between high individual performance and the locus of control-internal, the investigator decided to exam the influence of locus of control specifically on sales executives' performance. Based on the literature, it is presumed that the executives who have a locus of control internal orientation would engage in activities that will improve their sales performance, strive for maximum achievement in their sales efforts, they are inquisitive and motivate themselves for attaining their sales targets. It is under these assumptions the second, third and fourth hypotheses were developed. Since the Sales Locus of Control Scale (SLCS) was measuring a third dimension of locus of control, locus of control chance orientation, that was also studied.

H2:   Executives with high internal sales locus of control will have significantly higher Sales performance.

H3:   Executives with high external sales locus of control will have significantly lower Sales performance.

H4:   Executives with high chance sales locus of control will have significantly lower Sales performance.

Table 6.2 t-test, Sales Locus of Control-Internal and Executives' performance

	SLOC-Internal (Low High)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Significance
Supervisor's assessment of performance	Low	184	2.5435	0.78110	-2.875	0.004
	High	146	2.8014	0.84380		

As done in the previous analysis, the impact of Locus of Control (LOC) on the sales executives' performance was studied by dividing the sample into two groups based on the median LOC in all the three cases and the t-test was conducted to measure the significance in the difference of the mean performances of the sales executives. There were 184 respondents in the low SLOC-internal group with mean sales performance of 2.5435 and 146 in the high SLOC- internal group with mean sales performance of 2.8014 (Table 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Graphical representation of the relationship between LOC-internal and Executives' Performance
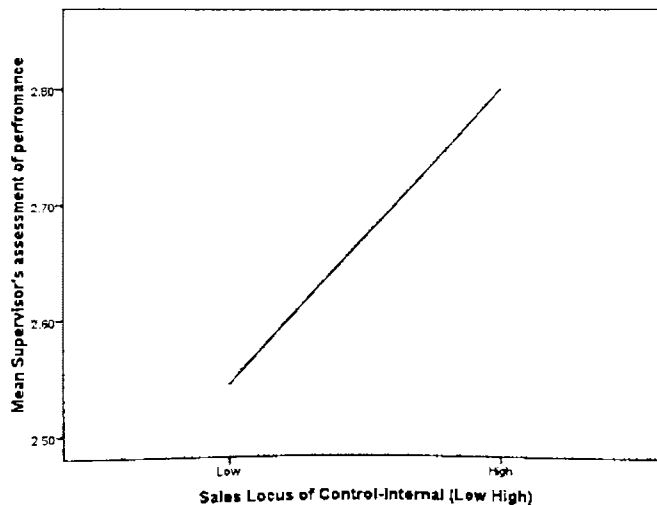
The t-test revealed a highly significant difference in the mean performances of the groups with a 'p' value of 0.004. The strong influence of the Locus of Control-internal orientation on the sales executives' performance is clearly established as the mean performance of the group with high SLOC-internal is greater than the mean performance of the group with low SLOC-internal.

The graphical representation of the SLOC-internal and sales performance relationship is shown in Figure 6.2, which also clearly indicate the strong relationship between the two factors. Hence, the hypothesis (H2), executives with high internal sales locus of control will have significantly higher sales performance is accepted.

Table 6.3 t-test, SLOC-external and executives' performance

	SLOC-External (Low High)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Significance
Supervisor's assessment of performance	Low	166	2.6988	0.82734	0.92	0.358
	High	164	2.6159	0.80945		

166 respondents belonged to the group of low SLOC-external with a mean performance of 2.6988, which was slightly greater than 2.6159, the mean performance of the high SLOC-external group consisting of 164 respondents.

Figure 6.3 Graphical representation of the relationship between SLOC-External and Executives' Performance
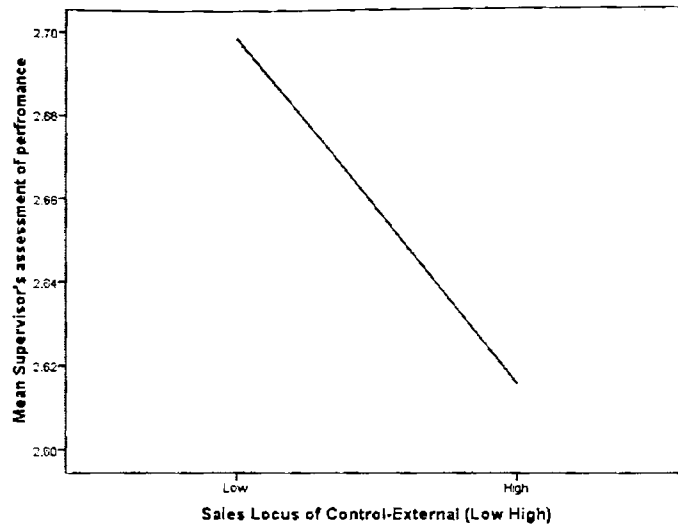
The t-test results showed no significant difference between the mean performances of the low and high SLOC-external groups (Table 6.3). That is, Sales Locus of Control-External has no significant influence on the performance of the sales executives. Figure 6.3 shows an inverse relationship between external SLOC and sales performance of the executives and the mean performance score of the low SLOC-external group is greater than the mean performance of the high SLOC-external group. This is in conformity with the hypothesis stated as executives with high external sales locus of control will have significantly lower sales performance. Even then, H3 is not acceptable as the difference in the mean performance of these two group found to be statistically not significant ($p= 0.358$). Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 6.4 t-test, SLOC-chance and Executives' performance

	SLOC-Chance (Low High)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Significance
Supervisor's assessment of performance	Low	186	2.6129	0.78544	-1.128	0.26
	High	144	2.7153	0.85822		

Similarly, the relationship between the SLOC-chance orientation and the performance of the executives were also analysed. The mean performance of the group with low SLOC-chance is 2.6129 and the group included 186 respondents. The high SLOC-chance group consisting of 144 respondents had a mean performance of 2.7153 (Table 6.4). The difference between the mean performances was tested with t-test and found to be not significant.

It is obvious from the graph (Figure 6.4) that the performance of the sales executives goes up along with increase in their SLOC-chance orientation, but the difference in the mean performances of the low and high SLOC-chance group not found to be statistically significant in the t-test. Hence, the hypothesis (H4) that executives with high chance sales locus of control will have significantly lower sales performance is not supported.

Figure 6.4 Graphical representation of the relationship between SLOC-Chance and Executives' Performance

Sales Locus of Control-Chance (Low High)
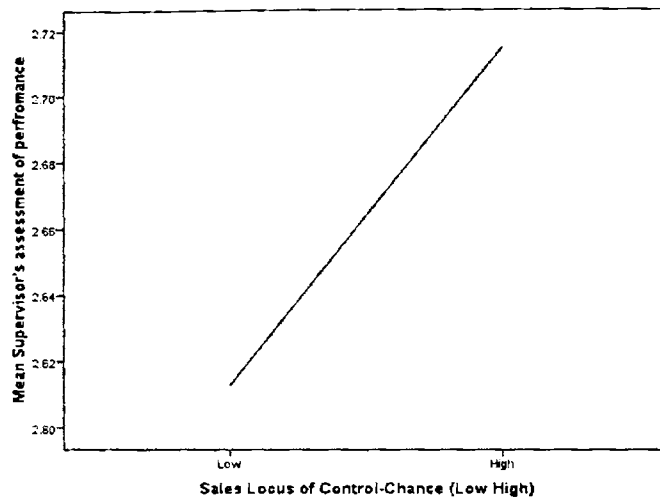
6.3   Self -Esteem and Sales Executives' Performance

Self-esteem is a reflection of core self-evaluation of individuals and it is defined as the individual's degree of liking or disliking themselves and the degree to which they think they are worthy or unworthy as a person. It is revealed during the review of literature that the interactions of the individuals with the external world and their interpersonal effectiveness largely influenced by the level of self-esteem possessed by the individuals. It is in this context, the specific relationship between the self-esteem and the sales performance of the executives were explored with the following hypothesis.

H5: Higher the self-esteem, higher is the performance of the sales executives.

The sample was split into two groups as group with low self-esteem and group with high self-esteem based on the median of the overall self-esteem scores of the respondents. In order to study the impact of self-esteem on the executives'

performance, significance of difference between the mean performances of the groups were tested with t-test. The strength of the low self-esteem group was 195 and their mean performance was 2.5692. The high self-esteem group consisted of 135 respondents with a mean performance of 2.7852. The results of the t-test (Table 6.5) show that the difference between the means is significant at 5 % level of significance.

Table 6.5 t-test Self-Esteem and Executives' performance

	Self-Esteem (High Low)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Significance
Supervisor's assessment of performance	Low	195	2.5692	0.75919	-2.309	0.022
	High	135	2.7852	0.88423		

Since the mean performance of the high self-esteem group is higher than the low self-esteem group, the strong influence of self-esteem on the performance of the sales executives is clearly established. The relationship between these two variables is obvious in Figure 6.5. With this, it can be concluded that the fifth hypothesis, which states a clear influence of self-esteem on sales executives' performances proved to be true.

Figure 6.5 Graphical representation of the Relationship between Self-esteem and Executives' Performance
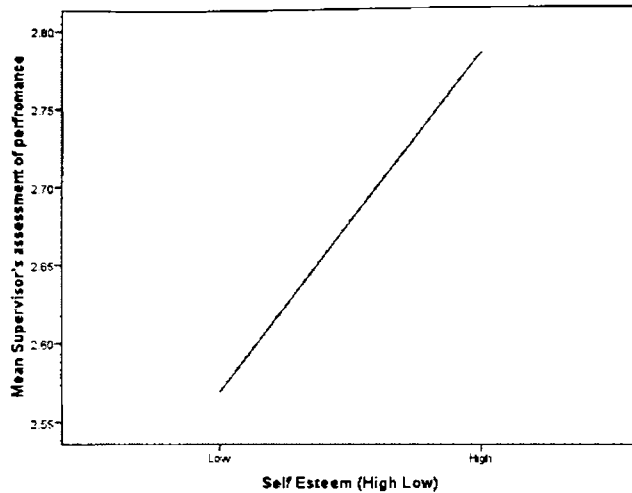
6.4   Interrelationship among EI, SLOC and Self-Esteem

Apart from identifying the relationship existing between the sales performance and the three major independent variables, the investigator wished to analyze the interrelationships that exists among the three independent variables. Based on the past research results the investigator presumed that there is some interrelationship among EI, SLOC-internal and Self-esteem and hence, the sixth hypothesis was formulated in the following way.

H6:   There exists a positive interrelationship among Emotional intelligence, Self- Esteem and Sales Locus of Control-internal of sales executives.

After analyzing the influence of various independent variables on the sales executives' performance the researcher examined the interrelationship between the major independent variables - emotional intelligence, self -esteem, LOC-internal, LOC-chance and LOC-external- with the help of correlation analysis. The details

of the correlation analysis are shown in Table 6.6 and it is clearly evident that different forms of relationships exist among the aforementioned variables, some are positive, some are negative and a few have no relationship at all.

Table 6.6 Correlations among Emotional intelligence, Self-Esteem, SLOC - Internal, Chance and external

		Emotional Intelligence	Overall Self Esteem	Sales Locus of Control-Internal	Sales Locus of Control-Chance	Sales Locus of Control-External
Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	1	0.259**	0.240**	-0.214**	-0.224**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	330	330	330	330	330
Overall Self-Esteem	Pearson Correlation	0.259**	1	0.306**	-0.187**	-0.271**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.001	0.000
	N	330	330	330	330	330
Sales Locus of Control-Internal	Pearson Correlation	0.240**	0.306**	1	0.147**	-0.086
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.008	0.117
	N	330	330	330	330	330
Sales Locus of Control-Chance	Pearson Correlation	-0.214**	-0.187**	0.147**	1	0.503**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.001	0.008		0.000
	N	330	330	330	330	330
Sales Locus of Control-External	Pearson Correlation	-0.224**	-0.271**	-0.086	0.503**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.117	0.000	
	N	330	330	330	330	330

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

The variable emotional intelligence shows a significant positive relationship with overall self-esteem and sales locus of control-internal and a negative relationship with sales locus of control-chance and sales locus of control-external. Self- esteem is showing positive correlation with emotional intelligence and sales locus of control-internal and maintains a negative correlation with sales locus of control-chance and sales locus of control-external as in the case of emotional intelligence.

Sales locus of control-internal shows a positive relationship with all the variables except sales locus of control-external. So it is very clear that the sales locus of control-chance is having a negative relationship with emotional intelligence and self esteem and a positive relationship with sales locus of control-internal and sales locus of control-external. The sales locus of control-external, obviously, maintaining a negative correlation with all the variables examined except sales locus of control-chance.

6.5   Experience and Emotional Intelligence

Experience is an important asset of a sales executive in the highly competitive selling environment. Experience provides greater opportunity to learn new things. A sales executives' understanding about a customer, his sales preparation for a particular buyer, his objection handling methods, his customer relationship management techniques, all are influenced by his experience. Obviously, the relationship between experience and the EI level of the sales executives need to be empirically verified. The investigator presumed a strong relationship between experience and emotional intelligence and the same is stated in the seventh hypothesis.

H7:   Higher the experience, higher is the level of emotional intelligence of the sales executives.

Table 6. 7 Results of ANOVA- Experience and EI of the Sales Executives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
2yrs or less	106	192.9717	45.49609		
2yrs to 3 yrs	65	194.0769	49.05268		
3yrs to 5 yrs	79	200.0000	36.50606	2.747	0.043
More than 5yrs	80	210.1250	41.21551		
Total	330	199.0303	43.58166		

Figure 6.6 Relationship between Experience and EI of the sales executives
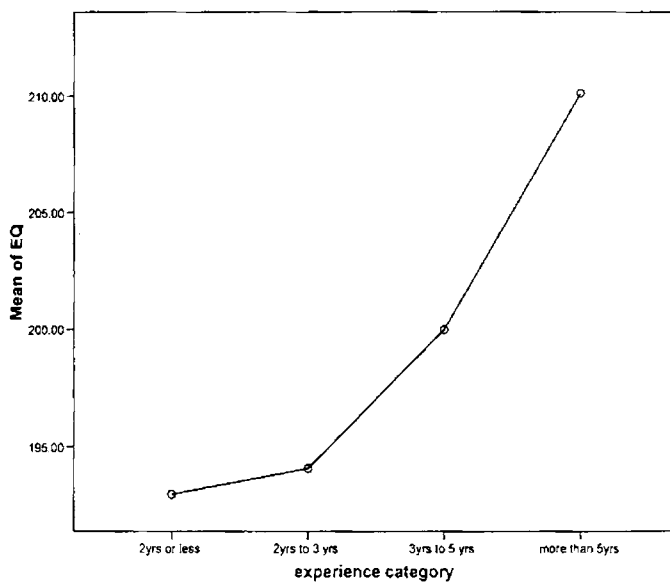
The influence of experience on the emotional intelligence of the executives has been studied by splitting the entire executives into four groups based on their total experience. Sales executives with two year or less experience were put in to one group, with 2 to 3 years of experience in second group, 3 to 5 years of experience in another group and finally executives with more than 5 years were put

into the fourth group. The total numbers of executives belonging to these groups were 106, 65, 79 and 80 respectively (Table 6.7).

Table 6.8 Post Hoc comparison of mean differences with respect to experience and EI

Experience category (I)	Experience category (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
2yrs or less	2yrs to 3 yrs	-1.10522	7.51966	1.000
	3yrs to 5 yrs	-7.02830	6.03298	0.816
	More than 5yrs	-17.15330 (*)	6.38446	0.046
2yrs to 3 yrs	2yrs or less	1.10522	7.51966	1.000
	3yrs to 5 yrs	-5.92308	7.34081	0.962
	More than 5yrs	-16.04808	7.63229	0.205
3yrs to 5 yrs	2yrs or less	7.02830	6.03298	0.816
	2yrs to 3 yrs	5.92308	7.34081	0.962
	More than 5yrs	-10.12500	6.17280	0.479
More than 5yrs	2yrs or less	17.15330 (*)	6.38446	0.046
	2yrs to 3 yrs	16.04808	7.63229	0.205
	3yrs to 5 yrs	10.12500	6.17280	0.479

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The mean EI of these groups were tested with ANOVA to confirm whether there is any significant difference between the mean EI scores of these four groups. ANOVA results have shown significant differences between the mean EI scores of the executives belonging to different experience groups with a 'p' value of 0.043. From Figure 6.6, it is clear that the mean EI was consistently going up from group with the lowest experience to the group with the highest experience. Based on the ANOVA results, it can be concluded that emotional intelligence of the sales

executives goes up as their sales experiences increases and this finding proves the hypothesis stated above.

To know the level of significance of the mean differences with respect to different groups of executives with varying experience Post Hoc comparison was done and its details are shown in Table 6.8. It was found that the mean difference between the group with least experience (2year or less) and group with maximum experience (more than 5 years) is statistically significant as the 'p' value of significance is 0.046 and no significant difference is observed in the case of other groups.

6.6   Experience and the Sales Performance of the Executives

Since it was found during the analysis that all the three major variables EI, SLOC-internal and self-esteem are dependent on sales experience of the sales executive, it became imperative to the investigator to analyze the relationship between the experience and the sales performance of the executives. The same was analyzed among the four groups with different experiences as taken earlier, by carrying out ANOVA.

Table 6.9 Results of ANOVA: Sales Experience and Sales performance

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
2yrs or less	106	2.4057	.68700		
2yrs to 3 yrs	65	2.6615	.81542		
3yrs to 5 yrs	79	2.8354	.83866	5.792	0.001
More than 5yrs	80	2.8125	.88723		
Total	330	2.6576	.81831		

Table 6.10 Post Hoc comparison of mean differences with respect to sales experience and sales performance

Experience category (I)	Experience category (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
2yrs or less	2yrs to 3 yrs	-0.25588	0.12117	0.202
	3yrs to 5 yrs	-0.42978(*)	0.11557	0.002
	more than 5yrs	-0.40684(*)	0.11955	0.005
2yrs to 3 yrs	2yrs or less	0.25588	0.12117	0.202
	3yrs to 5 yrs	-0.17390	0.13832	0.758
	more than 5yrs	-0.15096	0.14167	0.870
3yrs to 5 yrs	2yrs or less	0.42978(*)	0.11557	0.002
	2yrs to 3 yrs	0.17390	0.13832	0.758
	more than 5yrs	0.02294	0.13690	1.000
More than 5yrs	2yrs or less	0.40684(*)	0.11955	0.005
	2yrs to 3 yrs	0.15096	0.14167	0.870
	3yrs to 5 yrs	-0.02294	0.13690	1.000

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Supervisors overall assessment of executive performance had been taken as measure of sales performance. The influence of the sales experience on sales executives' performance was confirmed by the analysis (Table 6.9) as the mean differences of performance was found highly significant with a 'p' value of 0.001.

The Post Hoc analysis also reveals significant difference between the mean performances of the executives belonging to different group. The mean performance of the first group (2 year or less experience) seemed to be significantly different from the mean performances of third group (3 to 5 years of experience) and fourth group (more than five years of experience) with 'p' values

of 0.002 and 0.005 respectively (Table 6.10). That is increasing years of experience has some significant influence over sales performance of the executives (Figure 6.7).

Figure 6.7 Relationship between experience and Sales performance of the executives
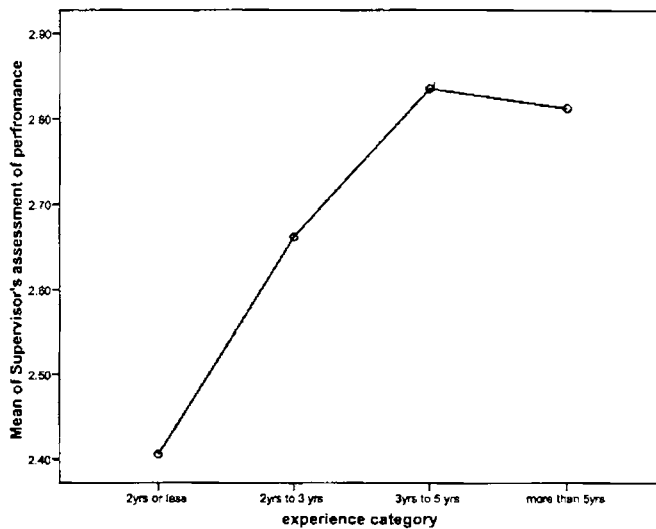
6.7 Age and Emotional Intelligence

The age of the sales executives included in the sample was varying from 21 years to 56 years with a mean age of 27.6. So it is obvious that most of the respondents were youngsters and highly aged executives were a few. The entire group was split into two based on the median of the age. The low age group consisted of 169 executives had a mean emotional intelligence of 192.8107, while the other group contained 161 respondents had a mean emotional intelligence of 205.5590. t-test was conducted to examine the significance of difference between the mean EI scores.

H8: Age, Sex, Marital status and Educational Qualifications of the sales executives have a significant influence over their emotional intelligence.

Relationship of EI with sex, marital status and educational qualifications of the executives are tested separately and reported in continuation to this.

Table 6.11 t-test Age and Emotional intelligence of the Sales Executives

	Age groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Significance
EQ	1.00	169	192.8107	43.22835	-2.681	0.008
	2.00	161	205.5590	43.12407		

It is found that there is no significant difference between the mean EI scores of the two groups as the 'p' value found as 0.008 (Table 6.11). That is, the age of the executives has no relationship with their emotional intelligence and the null hypothesis is accepted.

6.8   Sex and Emotional Intelligence

The number of female sales executives was comparatively less in the sample. There were only 25 female executives whereas the strength of male executives was 305. The relationship between the sex of the executives and the level of emotional intelligence was examined by applying the one-way ANOVA test. The results of the test are summarized in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 Results of ANOVA- Sex and EI of Sales Executives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Male	305	198.8852	43.96361		
Female	25	200.8000	39.38803	0.044	0.833
Total	330	199.0303	43.58166		

The mean emotional intelligence of the male group was 198.8852 and it was 200.80 in the case of female executives. The ANOVA results show no significant difference between the mean emotional intelligences of female and male executives, which mean that sex of the executives, have no influence or relationship with their emotional intelligence.

6.9   Marital Status and Emotional Intelligence

It is a fact that the personal adjustment patterns and attitudes of individuals change substantially after marriage. The capacities of the individuals to tolerate frustrations are also considerably vary after their marriage. It is in this context the relationship between marital status of the executives and their level of emotional intelligence has been studied with a presumption that the experiences of a married person would definitely contribute toward the development of high emotional intelligence.

Table 6.13 Results of ANOVA- Marital status and EI of the Sales Executives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Married	129	198.3721	46.72962		
Single	201	199.4527	41.55056	0.048	0.826
Total	330	199.0303	43.58166		

There were 129 married executives in the sample of 330 and their mean emotional intelligence was 198.3721. The mean emotional intelligence of the 201 unmarried executives was 199.4527. The ANOVA results showed no significant difference in the means of the emotional intelligences of these two groups (Table 6.13). Hence it is concluded that the marital status of the executives has no relationship with the development of emotional intelligence of the executives.

6.10   Educational Qualifications and Emotional Intelligence

The educational background of the sample was diverse and it ranged from plus 2 level to post-graduate level. The kind of exposure, experience and training provided during different educational programmes are different. Some programmes would be focusing more to providing theoretical input, while some others will give priority to practical training. Most of the professional programmes are giving priority to the skills development and practical training to the students. The sample consisted of 69 MBAs and 38 executives with other professional or technical qualifications. There were 186 graduates and 26 post-graduates too. It is in this background the relationship between the educational qualifications of the executives and their emotional intelligence was examined.

Table 6.14 Results of ANOVA- Educational qualifications and EI of the sales executives

Educational Qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Plus 2	9	203.8889	36.97785		
Graduate	186	196.1559	46.06262		
Post-Graduate	26	211.3462	31.22684		
Technical Professional	38	197.2368	38.26821	1.088	0.367
Sales Diploma	2	160.0000	35.35534		
MBA	69	203.6232	43.94084		
Total	330	199.0303	43.58166		

In Table 6.14 the executives are classified into six groups based on their educational backgrounds. The ANOVA test was carried out to see there is any significant difference between the mean emotional intelligences of the executives belonging to these groups and found no significant relationship between them. The hypothesis that the educational background of the executives influencing their EI is there by rejected.

6.11 Parental Occupational Status and Emotional Intelligence

The relationship between the parental employment and EI was also explored. The occupational status of the parents influences the life of the individuals. The kind of deprivation of parental warmth is different in case of single parent employed and both parent employed cases. It is expected that, the individuals grow more independently as self-reliant, in case where the parental deprivation is more.

H9: Parent's occupational status of the sales executives has a significant influence over their emotional intelligence.

To know whether such influences are there by the parental occupational status on the EI of the executives, the difference in mean EI of executives with single parent employed and both parent employed were tested for statistical significance.

Table 6. 15   t-test of Parental occupation status and EI

EQ	Parent's employment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Significance
	Single employed	262	199.4275	43.99426	0.718	0.474
	Both employed	59	194.9153	41.97178		

There were 262 executives in the sample with one parent employed, whereas the number of executives with both parent employed was 59 and their mean EI was 199.4275 and 194.9153 respectively (Table 6.15). The t-test was carried out and found no significant difference between the mean EI scores of the two groups. It is concluded that the parental occupation status has no influence over the emotional intelligence of the sales executives and hence, H9 is not accepted.

6.12   Number of Siblings, Ordinal Position and Emotional Intelligence

While collecting the data, information was collected from the respondents with respect to their number of siblings and ordinal position in the family. This was done with the specific objective of analyzing the impact of number of siblings and ordinal position on the development of the emotional intelligence of the executives. Many personality theories emphasize the role of social environment during the childhood days in the development of personality and adjustment patterns of the individuals. Alfred Adler's theory of personality strongly emphasizes the social influence on personality development and he described the characteristics of the individuals based on their ordinal position in the family. His contention was that, the number of members in the family and the ordinal position of an individual

vary, the person's life experiences, sharing habit, adjustment patterns etc. are also varies and that would have a definite impact on their personality development (cited in Schultz and Schultz, 2001). It is in this context the investigator explored the relationship between emotional intelligence, ordinal position and number of siblings in the present research.

The details of the number of siblings of the sample and their corresponding mean emotional intelligences are shown in the Table 6.16. The number of the siblings of the executives included in the sample varied from zero to eight. The majority of the executives (145 numbers) had just one sibling and their mean emotional intelligence found as 200.1724. The highest number of siblings reported in the sample is eight by two executives with a mean emotional intelligence of 222.50. There were 15 executives without any siblings and their mean emotional intelligence found to be 183.3333. Executives with two and three siblings were 91 and 43 and their mean emotional intelligence is 200.7692 and 201.7442 respectively.

Table 6.16 Results of ANOVA - Number of siblings and emotional intelligence of the sales executives   .

Number of Siblings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
0	15	183.3333	57.49741		
1	145	200.1724	42.81506		
2	91	200.7692	42.36694		
3	43	201.7442	43.07916		
4	17	194.4118	52.73407	0.592	0.785
5	10	187.0000	43.47413		
6	5	200.0000	27.38613		
7	2	170.0000	35.35534		
8	2	222.5000	17.67767		
Total	330	199.0303	43.58166		

From Table 6.16 it is evident that the mean EI is the lowest in the case of executives with no siblings (i.e., 183.3333) and the highest in the case of executives with eight siblings (i.e., 222.5000). But, the ANOVA results indicate no significant differences in the mean emotional intelligences of the executives with respect to the number of siblings. That is, the development of emotional intelligence is not significantly influenced by the number of siblings of the executives.

Table 6.17 gives the details of the ordinal position of the 330 respondents and it is clear that the ordinal positions of the executives were varying from 1st born to 9th born. Majority of the executives belonged to the 1st born and 2nd born category as 145 and 118 executives reported as 1st born and 2nd born respectively. There were only a few numbers of executives belonging to the ordinal positions from 5th to 9th.

Table 6.17 Results of ANOVA - Ordinal position and Emotional intelligence of the Sales Executives

Ordinal Position	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
1	145	197.7931	46.19507		
2	118	200.4661	41.41714		
3	34	199.2647	45.66234		
4	17	206.4706	37.73943		
5	5	203.0000	50.81830	0.339	0.950
6	4	170.0000	33.91165		
7	3	193.3333	33.29164		
8	3	191.6667	45.09250		
9	1	210.0000	.		
Total	330	199.0303	43.58166		

The differences in the mean emotional intelligences of all these groups were subjected to the ANOVA test for checking the significance of difference and found to be not significant as 'p' value is 0.950. Hence, it is concluded that the ordinal positions of the executives had no impact on their level of emotional intelligence.

6.13   Executives' Switchover and Emotional Intelligence

The sales profession is highly competitive in the current marketing environment due to various reasons. Many sales executives switch over from company to company very frequently due to their inability to cope up with the demands of the sales situations. Maintaining a successful team of sales force for a considerable period of time is a great challenge to sales managers. The very frequent executive turnover adds a lot to the cost side of the company as company spend huge amount for the recruitment and training of the executives. It is in this context; the investigator presumed a relation ship between low emotional intelligence and high executive switchover and formulated the following hypothesis.

H10:   The frequent switch over of sales executives from company to companies are attestably influenced by the Emotional intelligence.

The number of companies where respondents worked with varied from one company to nine companies. It is clear from Table 6.18 that a vast majority of the respondents in the sample had worked only with one or two companies. 36.9 % of the sample had worked only with one company while 30.9 % had worked with two companies with mean emotional intelligence of 195.0820 and 195.6373 respectively. These two groups together constitute almost 68 % of the sample. There are only a few respondents who had worked with more than five companies.

Table 6.18 Results of ANOVA - Total number of firm's worked and Emotional intelligence of Sales executives

Number of companies	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
1	122	195.0820	45.96524		
2	102	195.6373	45.25873		
3	72	206.7361	38.20036		
4	18	202.7778	49.91823		
5	10	208.0000	19.03214	0.891	0.513
6	3	210.0000	22.91288		
7	2	215.0000	14.14214		
9	1	250.0000	.		
Total	330	199.0303	43.58166		

Figure 6.8 Relationship between EI and total number of firms worked by sales executives

Total Number of Firms worked with so far in career in Sales
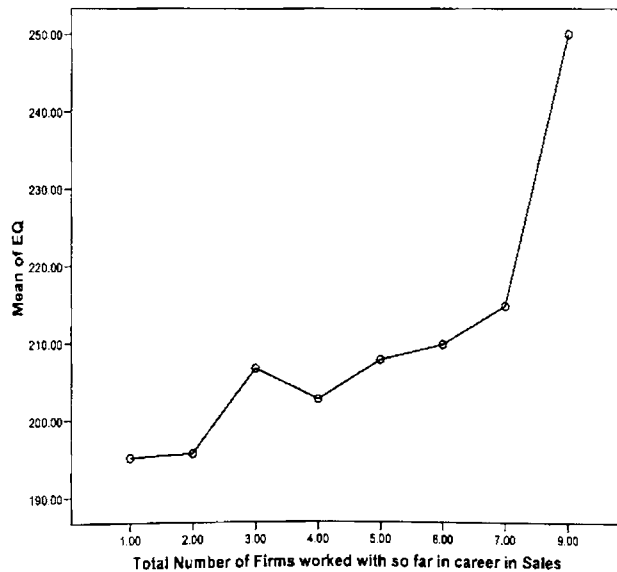
The ANOVA results do not reveal any significant difference in the mean emotional intelligences of the executives with respect to the number of companies they had worked with as the 'p' value found to be 0.513. That is, the hypothesis (H10) stated that frequent switch over of sales executives from company to companies is severely influenced by the emotional intelligence is not supported (Figure 6.8).

Table 6.19   Results of ANOVA - Total number of firms worked and SLOC-internal of Sales executives

Number of companies	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
1	122	20.1066	2.85405		
2	102	20.1373	3.22441		
3	72	20.9722	2.95493		
4	18	21.3889	2.30444		
5	10	21.2000	2.61619	1.535	0.154
6	3	22.6667	2.30940		
7	2	21.5000	2.12132		
9	1	17.0000	.		
Total	330	20.4303	2.97757		

The influence of SLOC-internal (Table 6.19) and self-esteem (Table 20) on the total number of companies worked by the executives was also analysed. In both the case, the mean differences were not statistically significant as the 'p' values were 0.154 and 0.847 respectively. Hence, it is concluded that all the three independent variables, EI, SLOC-internal and Self-esteem have no significant relationship with the switchover of the executives from one company to other companies.

Table 6.20 Results of ANOVA - Total number of firms worked and Self-esteem of Sales executives

Number of companies	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
1	122	30.4098	3.40577		
2	102	30.0980	3.01977		
3	72	30.5694	3.42249		
4	18	31.1667	3.63399		
5	10	30.9000	3.10734	0.482	0.847
6	3	32.0000	6.55744		
7	2	29.0000	8.48528		
9	1	29.0000	.		
Total	330	30.4061	3.33699		

6.14 Sales Conversion Rate and Emotional Intelligence

The ability of the executives to convert their sales attempts to effective sales was also explored during the study to know whether the executives with high emotional intelligence are having the higher conversion rate or not.

Executives were asked to report how many sales attempts they could convert into actual sales on an average out of ten attempts. The responses were varying from 1 to 10 and a good number of responses were falling within the range of 2 to 7 sales (Table 6.21). The mean emotional intelligence scores were subjected to ANOVA and found no significant difference between the mean EI of the executives as the 'p' value was 0.146. That is, there is no significant relationship between the emotional intelligence and the effective sales conversion rate of the executives (Figure 6.9).

Table 6.21 Results of ANOVA - Sales conversion rate and Emotional intelligence of Sales executives

Conversion rate	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
1	9	171.6667	61.84658		
2	34	197.9412	39.92640		
3	56	196.6071	46.51595		
4	44	201.7045	40.30326		
5	55	198.0909	46.98789		
6	53	210.4717	38.89414	1.501	0.146
7	37	204.5946	42.12050		
8	29	190.0000	40.70802		
9	9	196.1111	38.63109		
10	4	156.2500	49.72843		
Total	330	199.0303	43.58166		

Figure 6.9 Sales conversion rate and emotional intelligence of sales executives

How many effective sales will you make out of 10 attempts
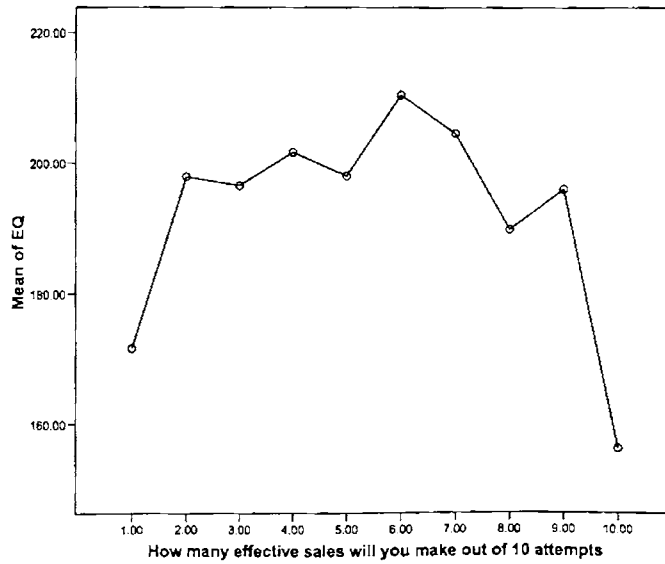
6.15   Product Type and Emotional Intelligence

The sample of 330 consisted of sales executives who were selling tangible and intangible goods. The investigator wished to check whether there is any difference in the emotional intelligence between executives who were selling tangible and intangible goods. Out of 330 executives 67.6 % were selling intangible goods such as insurance, housing loans and personal loans. There were 107 executives (32.4 %) who were selling tangible goods like cars, aqua guards and vacuum cleaners. The relationship of product type was tested against self-esteem and SLOC-internal also. The results of t-test are shown in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22   t-test   Type of Product, EI, SLOC-Internal and Self-Esteem

	Product type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Significance
Self Esteem	tangible	107	30.0093	3.23453	-1.499	0.135
	intangible	223	30.5964	3.37564		
Sales Locus of Control-Internal	tangible	107	19.4953	3.42404	-3.690	0.000
	intangible	223	20.8789	2.63015		
EQ	tangible	107	180.8411	52.12234	-4.824	0.000
	intangible	223	207.7578	35.80030		

'P' values show that emotional intelligence and sales locus of control-internal have significant relationship with the type of products sold by the sales executives. More precisely Sales executives who were selling intangible goods were having higher emotional intelligence and high internal locus of control.

Chapter 7

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted primarily to explain the relationship between the performance of the sales executives and the three independent variables chosen for the study, emotional intelligence, sales locus of control and self-esteem. The interrelationship between the aforementioned variables were analysed with correlation analysis. Ten hypotheses were stated prior to the study and all of them were analysed with appropriate statistical tests. The relationship between emotional intelligence of the sales executives and their personal and occupational factors were also tested. During the analysis significance of the relationship between certain factors were tested, though the hypotheses were not formulated earlier with respect to these factors. The statistical inferences were drawn at 5 % level of significance (p= 0.05). The summary of findings emerged from the analysis of the study are listed below:

1. Sales executives with High Emotional Intelligence perform better than the executives with Low Emotional Intelligence (H1 Accepted).

2. Sales executives with high internal sales locus of control have higher sales performance (H2 Accepted).

3. SLOC-External and SLOC-chance have no significant relationship with the superior performance of the executives (H3 and H4 not supported).

4. High self-esteem leads to higher performance of the sales executives (H5 Accepted).

5. A positive interrelationship exists among Emotional Intelligence, Sales Locus of Control-internal and Self-Esteem of the sales executives (H6 Accepted).

6. Emotional Intelligence, Sales Locus of Control-internal and Self-Esteem are maintaining a negative relationship with Sales Locus of Control-external.

7. Experience of the sales executives is positively related with Emotional Intelligence (H7 Accepted).

8. Experience of the executives has significant influence over their sales performance.

9. Age, Sex, and Marital status, Educational qualifications of the executives have no significant influence over the emotional intelligence of the executives (H8 Not supported).

10. Parental Occupational Status of the executives has no significant influence over the emotional intelligence of the executives (H9 Not supported).

11. Emotional Intelligence, Locus of Control-internal and Self-Esteem of the sales executives are not significantly related with their switchover from one company to other (H10 Not supported).

12. Sales executives who were selling intangible goods were having higher emotional intelligence and internal locus of control than executives selling tangible goods.

13. There is no significant relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and the effective Sales Conversion Rate of the executives.

14. The Ordinal Positions and the number of Siblings of the sales executives had no impact on their level of Emotional Intelligence.

7.2 DISCUSSION OF MAJOR FINDINGS

The major findings of the study were discussed by the investigator by comparing them with the findings of the earlier research findings and the presumptions based on which the hypotheses were formulated.

7.2.1 Emotional Intelligence and Performance of the Sales Executives

The present study has empirically brought out the positive relationship between the emotional intelligence and the performance of sales executives as it was found that the sales executives who were having high emotional intelligence were performing better than the sales executives with lower emotional intelligence. The findings of the study confirm the need for the development of emotional intelligence among sales executives for enhancing their sales effectiveness.

The present day sales executives are facing a lot of challenges in their selling environment due to various reasons. Each and every sales executive is expected to possess varying interpersonal skills apart from their professional qualifications to be effective in their sales job. Today's sales executives are playing incompatible multiple roles in the marketing environment as companies are giving thrust to the customer focused strategy and promoting customer relationship management to a great extent. The growing customer expertise and their increased market knowledge demands more from the side of sales executives to excel their best in personal selling situations. Chances are quite high for a sales executive who operates in such a complicated and competitive environment to have role ambiguity and role crisis, and consequent job stress and dissatisfaction. It is in this context the investigator presumed that the executives with high emotional

intelligence may perform better in selling environments and the same is proved during the analysis of the responses of the sales executives in the study.

The sales executives required to have effective self-management skills to improve his personal effectiveness in any buyer-seller dyads. The awareness and regulation of ones emotions in any situation is important first step in effective self-management and that forms the basic elements of emotional intelligence. Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions, to assess and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotion so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Apart from the management of the emotions of the self, an effective sales person needs to manage the emotions of a prospective customer too, to whom he makes a sales presentation, and that is the expression of another dimension of EI.

If a sales executive can understand and recognize how a customer feels at any time during his or her contact with the company/executive, they will be able to deal with that customer's needs more effectively, because they put emotional value into their job. Empathy is the quality that enables a sales executive to understand the feelings and emotions of a customer. The components of the emotional intelligence such as self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social skills and empathy (described in detail in Chapter 2) seem to be matching with the required skills of a modern sales executive. Emotional intelligence is that part of the individual which enables him to understand, regulate and harness emotions in the self and others to enhance their personal effectiveness in interacting and relate with others and the same could be the reason for the superior performance of the sales executives with high emotional intelligence.

Insurance sales agents in a national insurance company who were weak in emotional competencies such as self-confidence, initiative, and empathy sold policies with an average premium of $54,000. Those who were very strong in at least five of eight key emotional competencies sold policies worth $114,000 (Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group, 1997). This shows more than 100 percent increase in the productivity of the sales executives who were strong in emotional competencies. The results of the present study indirectly vouch the findings of Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group.

Sales agents at L'Oreal selected on the basis of certain emotional competencies significantly outsold salespeople selected using the company's old selection procedure. On an annual basis salespeople selected on the basis of emotional competence sold $91,370 more than other salespeople did, for a net revenue increase of $2,558,360. Sales people selected on the basis of emotional competence also had 63 percent less turnover during the first year than those selected in the typical way (Spencer and Spencer, 1993; Spencer, Mc Clelland and Kelner, 1997). These complementary findings of different studies reveal that the sales executives with high emotional intelligence are capable of manifesting better performance than executives with low EI.

Emotions have a part to play in one's personal performance and it is reported that the emotionally intelligent are aware of this. They are not constantly thinking about how they feel. They do not go to the extremes of letting it all hang out, or hiding everything. They express what they feel when appropriate, so minor problems never becomes severe complex issues. They listen and empathise, but do not drown people with sympathy. It is only natural that a successful salesperson needs to be able to judge feelings well. Empathy is the ability to know how another feels. Using expressiveness to influence prospects, salespeople must rely on empathy to read the prospects' reactions accurately. During the stage of objection

handling, if the consumer's efforts to seek redress are not met, then further dissatisfaction could result leading to negative actions or consequences for firms. By using a performance measure of emotional intelligence Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) found that individuals with high scores for emotional intelligence had higher score for empathy. Since the sales executive's ability to empathise with the needs of the prospective buyers has a decisive role in the personal selling process, their EI would have positively impacted on their sales performance.

According to Sojka and Deeter-Schmelz (2002) who tried to modify the Walker model of sales performance by incorporating EI under personal factors, individuals with emotional intelligence possess a high degree of self-motivation. They tend to stay intrinsically motivated and do not rely on outside sources for reinforcement. He continues that the ability to self-motivate is especially critical for outside salespeople who may not always be in contact with the home office. Weitz et al., (1986) observed that intrinsically motivated sales people are more likely to focus on learning more about selling by varying their behaviour from one customer to the next in an attempt to adapt effectively to each customer's needs. So, it is very clear that the increased performance of sales executives with high emotional intelligence may be due to their high intrinsic motivation, which is a strong component of their EI behaviour.

The effect of shame and embarrassment on the sales performance was studied by Verbeke and Bagozzi (2002) among sales people selling financial services. The results suggest that the tendency to experience shame and embarrassment in personal selling leads to protective reactions (e.g. avoidance behaviours), and these, in turn, negatively impact performance (e.g. sales volume and quality of sales interaction). Findings of the aforementioned study clearly highlight the need for EI development among sales executives. Sales executives with high emotional intelligence would definitely be capable of managing

themselves in embarrassing situations and would not defend them with such protective behaviours. Hence, their sales performance would not go down, rather, it would be going up.

Most of the famous theories of selling emphasise the skills of the sales executives to understand the need, thoughts, emotions and interests of the buyers as the determining factor of the sales success. According to 'AIDAS' theory of selling, during a personal selling process, the prospect's mind passes through five successive mental states: attention, interest, desire, action and satisfaction. Implicit in the theory is the notion that the prospect goes through these five stages consciously, so the sales presentation must lead the prospect through them in the right sequence if a sale is to result (Still, Cundiff and Govoni, 2007). It is obvious that during the presentation and objection handling stages of the personal selling process, a sales executive need to take extreme care in regulating and managing emotions within himself and also with the highly educated modern customer, to generate sale as per the AIDAS theory of selling. An emotionally intelligent sales executive can make effective presentation by understanding the need and interest of the customer properly and can handle the objections raised by the customer by analysing his feelings and emotions and responding effectively to them.

Basically all selling situations are instances of interpersonal interactions between a buyer and sales executive-a buyer -seller dyad. Those sales executives who have better interpersonal skills and optimism may be able to build win-win relationships effectively during such interactions and thereby perform well in their sales job. James (2004) states EI as the ability of a person to use emotions as a guiding tool for interpersonal effectiveness in his or her social environment. He says that the emotionally intelligent people produce win-win relationships and outcomes for themselves and others while interacting with members of the social environment. Such people develop a magnetic field of emotional attraction around

themselves and often are the owners of an ever increasing network of social relationships and emotional support structures, which in turn, result in superior career performance. Seligman (1990) reports that new salesmen at Met Life who scored high on a test of "learned optimism" an emotional competence, sold 37 per cent more life insurance in their first two years than pessimists.

From the above discussions it is very clear that the various components of emotional intelligence have significant influence on the performance of sales executives. The finding of the present study that emotional intelligence and performance of the sales executives are strongly related is in line with the findings of the previous studies as reported above.

7.2.2 Sales Locus of Control-Internal and Sales Performance

The relationship between sales locus of control and the performance of the sales executives were examined during the study and found that the high sales locus of control-internal is significantly related with superior sales performce. Other two dimensions of LOC namely SLOC-external and SLOC-chance have shown no significant relationship with the sales performance of the executives. The hypothesis formulated at the beginning of the study that the sales executives with high SLOC-internal control will have significantly higher sales performance is proved. There were earlier studies which explain the relationship between locus of control and job performance of the individuals, but studies explaining the specific relationship between sales locus of control and sales performance were rarely found during the review of literature.

Verbeke (1994) and Spiro and Weitz (1990) found that personality traits such as locus of control, self-monitoring, and self-esteem are strongly correlated with job performance and career success. According to Andrasani and Nestel (1976) those who are high on internal locus of control perceive effort to be largely

instrumental in attaining performance and success, even in adverse environments. Findings of these studies are well supported by the findings of the present study.

Internal control was defined by Rotter et al., (1962) as the perception that positive and or negative events are a consequence of one's own actions, while external control implies unrelatedness to one's own actions. In other words, when one believes that he has the power to control his own destiny and determines his own direction, he has a strong internal locus of control. In most cases, this is an important attitude to have if one wants to be successful. People with an internal locus of control tend to work harder and persevere longer in order to get what they want. People with an internal locus of control are generally more successful, for very good reasons. Internals were believed by Rotter (1966) to exhibit two essential characteristics - high achievement motivation and low outer-directedness.

The higher performance of the sales executives with high internal locus of control can be due to their high achievement motivation and high level of self-reliance as explained by Rotter. Executives with high internal locus of control orientation will always be self directed and assumes greater level of responsibility as they believe they are masters of their destiny and the same is resulted in their superior performance.

The most important aspect that differentiates internals from externals is their ability to withstand stressful situations and learn from mistakes and failures. Srivastava and Sager (1999) conducted a study with the proposition that internals tend to use deliberate cognitive analysis, critically examining the causes of stress and developing alternative ways to handle stress. When salespeople view variables as beyond their control, they are likely to become frustrated. Such salespeople are less likely to feel capable of translating their efforts into performance improvements. Relative to internals, externals are prone to view themselves as powerless to control their day-to-day life, and these so called "externals are more

likely to attribute outcomes to outside variables such as price, quality of a competing product or personal relationships between buyer and a competing seller (Parkes 1984, cited in Srivastava and Sager 1999). Quoting different studies (Anderson 1977, Fleishman 1984, Folkman et al. 1986; Leiter 1991; Newton and Keenan 1990; Parkes 1984), Srivastava and Sager (1999) suggested that individuals who are internals are more likely to view stress in daily work situations as controllable and they tend to use deliberate cognitive analysis, critically examining the causes of stress and developing alternative ways to handle stress. This capacity of the sales executives with internal SLOC may be one of the most significant factors that might have influenced their higher sales performance.

One another distinctive character of the internals that may cause their superior performance is their ability to change their behaviour based on the feedback and reinforcements they receive. Marks (1998) states that individuals with an internal locus of control are more likely to change their behaviour following reinforcement than are individuals with an external locus of control. This is possible in the case of sales executives with internal dimension because they are utilising information and experience for their better performance. Rose and Veiga (1984) reported that internals were often found to obtain and utilize information more effectively, better use their work-relevant experience to improve performance, and experience less anxiety (cited in Roberts et al., 1997).

It is clear from the discussion that executives with internal locus of control are better performers due to various reasons. They are self directed, learning from the failures, capable of managing stressful experiences, utilising information and change behaviours based on the reinforcements they receive. Those who are high on internal locus of control perceive effort to be largely instrumental in attaining performance and success, even in adverse environments as reported by Andrasani and Nestel (1976).

7.2.3 Self-Esteem and Sales Performance

Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory hypothesises that an individual's self-esteem is a determinant of the outcome he/she will seek to attain. According to Korman, all else equal, individuals are motivated to perform on a task or job in a manner consistent with their self-esteem. That is, a person's performance is largely depending on his self-esteem and the same was hypothesised in this study too. It was presumed that sales executives with high self-esteem would definitely perform better than executives with low self-esteem. The hypothesis was proved to be true during the analysis and confirmed the contention of Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory.

Branden (1998) says "Healthy self-esteem correlates with rationality, realism, intuitiveness, creativity, independence, flexibility, ability to manage change, willingness to admit (and correct) mistakes, benevolence and cooperation. Poor self-esteem correlates with irrationality, blindness to reality, rigidity, fear of the new and unfamiliar, inappropriate conformity or inappropriate rebelliousness, defensiveness an overly complaint or controlling behaviour, and fear or hostility towards others" (cited inwww.kidshealth.org/kid/feeling/emotion/selfesteem.html).

It is quite evident from the words of Branden that the characteristics of a person with high self-esteem are highly positive and that would be reflected in his behaviour positively. This reflection of the positive attitude is evident in the high performance of the sales executives too. According to Brown (1998) and Diener (2000) self-esteem is how positively or negatively we feel about ourselves and it is very important aspect of personal well-being, happiness and adjustment. The sales executives who are high in self-esteem are supposed to be flexible, realistic in accepting their mistakes and utilising their intuitions for bringing out their best performance. In a general sense, self-esteem is positively related to achievement and a willingness to expend effort to accomplish tasks. Clearly, self-esteem is an

important individual difference in terms of work behaviour (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2004).

The finding of the present study that sales executives with high self-esteem perform better than sales executives with low self-esteem is in conformity with the findings of many other studies conducted earlier. Boyatzis (1982) found accurate self-assessment as the hallmark of superior performance of managers among twelve different organisations. He claims self-awareness as the key to realise one's own strengths and weakness. Based on a Meta analytic results Judge and Bono (2001) suggest that self-esteem and generalised self-efficacy are two of the best dispositional predictors of job performance and job satisfaction. Gardner and Pierce (1998) found the organisation-based self-esteem as the stronger predictor of ratings of performance and employee satisfaction, and it appears to act as a mediator in the relationship between generalised self-efficacy and the employee responses.

Some of the earlier studies failed in generating positive relationship between self-esteem and job performance and some of them were doubtful about the existence of such relationship. For example, Baumeister et al., (2003) after reviewing a large number of studies concluded that, "it is difficult to draw firm causal conclusions about self-esteem and other aspects of job and task performance. Overall, there are weak positive correlations between job performance and self-esteem, but these may be due in whole or in part either to successful performance improving self-esteem or to self report biases. There is no strong evidence indicating specifically that high self-esteem leads to improved performance on the job". They suggested more systematic studies with objective measures to confirm the relationship between self-esteem and task performance.

On the basis of the finding of the present study and relying on most of the earlier research findings, it would be appropriate to conclude that a positive

relationship exists between self-esteem and overall performances of sales executives.

7.2.4 Interrelationship among Emotional Intelligence, Locus of Control-internal and Self-Esteem

It was one of the major objectives of the study to examine whether there is any interrelationship exists among the three major independent variables chosen for the study. While scanning through the available research literature related to these three variables, namely emotional intelligence, locus of control-internal and self-esteem, the investigator could feel their significance with respect to the performance of executives and a positive relationship between these three variables and executives' performance.

The investigator felt the importance of studying the mutual relationship existing between these variables as they were showing a lot of similarity in terms of its impact on individual's performance. All the three are personality constructs and independently defined by various researchers. It was sure that one is not a substitute for the other as each one of them has the capacity to influence the performance independently. At the same time all the three shares some common expressions as a personal trait such as self-awareness, self-regulation, optimism, self-management etc. More than that, all these three variables are developable qualities. It is in this context the interrelationships among the three variables were examined with the help of correlation analysis.

The correlation analysis revealed the existence of positive correlation among all the three variables and all the three were having a negative relationship with locus of control-external of the sales executives. There were no studies found in the literature that tested the interrelationship among these three variables. Some researchers have taken both self-esteem and locus of control together to relate with

job performance, while some other investigators tried with EI with locus of control-internal. For example, Verbeke (1994) and Spiro and Weitz (1990), who found that personality traits such as locus of control, self-monitoring, and self-esteem are strongly correlated with job performance and career success.

Though self-esteem and locus of control beliefs are often assumed to arise from similar experiential backgrounds, few studies have explored the developmental relationships between them. Cunningham and Berberian (1976) administered the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, SEI, (1967) and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire, IAR, (Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall, 1965) to a group of 8 to 11 year old American children. Their major findings were that although high-self-esteem boys scored more internally than low-self-esteem boys, high-self-esteem girls scored less internally than low self-esteem girls. However, Piers (1977), examining 12 to 16 year old American Children, reported positive relationships between self-esteem and internality for both boys and girls with the overall effect primarily attributable to the I+ subscale of the IAR. Because age differences between samples might be a reasonable explanation for the discrepancy between findings.

In an another study, Judge and Bono (2001) report meta-analytic results of the relationship of 4 traits-self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional stability with job satisfaction and job performance. In total, the results based on 274 correlations suggest that these traits are among the best dispositional predictors of job satisfaction and job performance. The research findings of Srivastava and Sager (1999) indicate that locus of control and self-efficacy need to be incorporated as determinants of Problem-focused coping (PFC) style when researchers develop and execute studies of salespeople's coping behaviour.

All these studies showing the relevance of studying self-esteem and locus of control together in relation to executive performance or their coping style, is a clear evidence of agreement among the researchers that some level of interrelationships exists between these two factors. Recently the researchers had developed the concept of a broad personality trait termed 'core self-evaluation,' which includes basically four traits namely self-esteem, locus of control, generalised self-efficacy, and neuroticism.

Here also self-esteem and LOC were taken together considering the interrelationship between them and a lot of research going on this new concept called "core self-evaluation' in relation to their impact on motivation and performance.

It is to be concluded that EI, LOC and self-esteem are interrelated and they are capable of influencing the performance of executives. Their level of interrelationship and influence need to be studied further to have a comprehensive view on their impact on executives' performance and appropriate performance models be developed.

7.2.5 Experience, Emotional intelligence and Performance

The relationship between the increasing years of experience and emotional intelligence was studied and found a significant relationship between the increasing emotional intelligence and increasing years of experience. It was also found that the performance of the sales executives increases as the experience of the executives increases. This finding is in conformity with some of the studies and not in conformity with some other studies reported earlier. The finding of the present study is in line with the findings of Hopfl and Linstead (1997), who claim that the workplace experiences have a significant impact on the shaping process of core capabilities of an individual.

In an Indian study conducted among managers of selected companies in Kerala to understand the relationship between the emotional intelligence and the organisational role stress, Varghese (2005) found no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and increasing years of experience.

Increasing years of experience will definitely provide variety of learning experience to an individual and he can receive more and more feedback and compliments on his performance. Possibilities are higher for a person who positively accommodates such learning experiences and feedback to improve his emotional intelligence and there by his performance too. The finding of the present study that the experienced people show high emotional intelligence and manifest better performance may be due to their self motivated corrective behaviour based on their learning and feedbacks received from their working environment.

7.2.6 Age, Sex, Marital status, Educational Qualifications and EI

The present study has brought out no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the personal factors of sales executives such as Age, Sex, Marital Status and Educational qualifications. This results support the earlier findings of Varghese (2005) who had examined similar relationships between the EI and the personal factors of managers drawn from selected companies in Kerala as part of his doctoral research. He found no significant relationship between the emotional intelligence and the personal factors of the managers such as age, sex, marital status and educational qualifications. At the same time these results contradict with the findings of Salovey and Mayer (1990) who claim that EI increases with increase in age.

Taking the findings related with age and experience (discussed above) in relation to emotional intelligence, it may be concluded that mere passage of time in one's life would not simply develop emotional intelligence, the nature and content

of experiences matters more in development of emotional intelligence. This is why a significant positive relationship is found between EI and Job experience, while no such relationship was found between EI and Age.

7.2.7   Parental Occupational Status and Emotional Intelligence

The present study shows no significant relationship between parental occupational status single parent employed or both parents employed- and level of emotional intelligence. It was presumed that EI may be high in case of executives whose both parents were employed. It was an attempt to identify the impact of level of parental deprivation on the development of emotional intelligence. The present study failed to prove existence of any such significant relationship between parental occupational status and emotional intelligence.

7.2.8   EI, SLOC-Internal, Self-Esteem and Sales Executive Turnover

It was tried to explain the frequent switch over of sales executives from company to company in terms of low emotional intelligence of the sales executives. But the present study could not identify any significant relationship either between sales executive turnover and EI or between sales executive turnover and other two variables, self-esteem and internal locus of control. This finding is contradictory to the findings of many other studies conducted earlier.

Mc Clelland (1999) reports his observation from a large beverage firm that 50 percent of its division presidents who are hired through standard methods left the organisation within two years, mostly because of poor performance. Later when the selection was based on emotional competencies such as initiative, self-confidence, and leadership, only 6 percent left in two years. Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group (1997) reported that sales people at a national furniture

retailer hired on the basis of emotional competence had half the dropout rate during their first year.

In an Indian study, Sinha and Jain (2004) examined the relationship between EI and some organisationally relevant variables among 250 middle-level male executives of two-wheeler automobile manufacturing organisations showed that the dimensions of EI were meaningfully related with personal effectiveness, organisational commitment, reputation effectiveness, general health, trust, employee turnover, organisational effectiveness and organisational productivity.

Similar findings were reported with respect to self-esteem and locus of control also by various investigators. Organ and Greene (1974) examined the relationship between job tenure and locus of control; they contend that longer tenure promotes a sense of empowerment in conducting one's job activities. Consistent with this premise, an internal locus of control orientation has been found to be associated with longer tenure among research scientists and engineers (Organ and Greene, 1974). Harvey (1971) found the same relationship among public administrators also (cited in Sadowski, 1990).

In the present study, the number of companies in which respondents worked with varied from one company to nine companies and a majority of the respondents in the sample had worked with only one or two companies (Table 6.18). Around 36.9 % of the sample had worked with only one company while 30.9 % had worked with two companies. These two groups together constitute almost 68 % of the sample. There were only a few respondents who had worked with more than five companies. That is the variation in number of firms worked with was not that much prominent in the sample and that might have affected the finding of the study. As a result the relationship between the sales executive switchover and the three personality factors tested had not been proved in the study.

Chapter 8

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

8.1 Summary of the Study

Daniel Goleman (1998) formulated EI in terms of a theory of performance and he stated that an EI based theory of performance has direct applicability to the domain of work and organizational effectiveness, particularly in predicting excellence in jobs of all kinds, from sales to leadership. Consequent to the large number of research publications during the last one decade, EI has been identified as a critical factor in the performance and success of individuals in varying roles in their personal and professional life. Despite this popularity, however, there is little empirical research that substantiates the efficacy of emotional intelligence in many areas of individual performance.

The present study is an effort to explain the relationships between emotional intelligence and the performance of sales executives with an intention to bring empirical support for the role of emotional intelligence in the domain of sales performance. The major objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To explain the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales executives' performance.
2. To understand whether the sales executives' performance is related with Self-Esteem and Locus of Control or not.
3. To locate interrelationship, if any, among Emotional Intelligence, Locus of Control and Self-Esteem of Sales Executives.

4. To find out the influence of personal factors of executives like sex, marital status, ordinal position, education, experience and parental occupation on their emotional intelligence.

A sample of 330 sales executives doing personal selling were drawn from 14 companies located in Kerala. The data has been collected with the help of tests such as Emotional Intelligence Test by Dr. Chaddha, Sales Locus of Control Scale (SLCS) by Chung and Ding, Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale by Morris Rosenberg and Sales Executive Profile Sheet prepared by the investigator. There were ten hypotheses formulated with respect to the objectives stated above and each one of them tested with appropriate statistical techniques. The major findings of the study are as shown below

1. Sales executives with high emotional intelligence perform better than the executives with low emotional intelligence.

2. Sales executives with high internal sales locus of control have higher sales performance.

3. High self-esteem leads to higher performance of the sales executives.

4. There exists a positive interrelationship among Emotional Intelligence, Sales locus of control-internal and Self-esteem of the sales executives.

5. Experience of the sales executives are positively related with emotional intelligence and sales performance.

6. Age, Sex, Educational Qualification and Marital Status of the executives have no significant influence over the emotional intelligence of the executives.

The data were collected only from those executives who were directly selling to the end user and the universe excluded sales executives belonging to the group of channel salesmen or missionary salesmen. Executives who were selling

products to the industrial buyers alone and executives who were doing telemarketing were also excluded. Hence, it would not be appropriate to generalise the findings of the study with such groups of sales executives.

8.2   Implications of the Study

The present study has proved a strong positive relationship between emotional intelligence and performance of the sales executives, which is of great value to the field of salesforce management. The locus of control-internal and self-esteem are also proved to be two strong personality factors that influence the performance of the sales executives. Poor performance of the larger share of sales executives and the high rate of sales executive turnover are the major head aches of any sales department. The amount invested by the firm for recruiting, selecting, and training the sales force is huge and the high sales executive turnover adds further to the cost side of the firm. The companies can benefit from the findings of this study in two different ways.

Firstly, companies can develop a new recruitment method which would help the sales departments to recruit sales executives with high Emotional Intelligence to ensure a substantial level of performance and there by they can increase the percentage of performing salesmen in the company. If they consider Self-Esteem and Locus of Control-internal of the sales executives along with Emotional Intelligence, the chances are high to bring positive results.

Secondly, the companies can develop appropriate training programmes based on the findings of the study, which can improve the Emotional Intelligence and other two traits of the sales executives in order to enhance the sales effectiveness of the existing sales executives of the company. As mentioned during the problem formulation, all these three factors are developable qualities of an

individual. Once the EI is improved in the case of existing executives they would perform well as their empathising skills and emotional management skills go up.

The study is important from the academic as well as theoretical perspectives. Though a lot of publications came out during last decade in the area of emotional intelligence, empirical studies are a few in number. Most of the studies were relating emotional intelligence with the individual performance generally and there was a severe dearth of domain specific studies in many areas. The inferences of the present study are empirically valid with respect to the relationship between the sales performance and the aforementioned variables. Since the study reveals positive relationship between the variables (dependent and independent) that can be used for developing new performance models in the area of sales management.

8.3   Conclusion of the Study

The present research was carried out with an objective of empirically explaining the relationship between the emotional intelligence and performance of the sales executives. The investigator has reviewed relevant theories and models with respect to sales performance and personality factors prior to the problem formulation of the study. The researcher scanned a major part of the literature available with respect to emotional intelligence and its impact on performance in order to conceptualise the frame work of this research. The findings of the research confirmed the influence of emotional intelligence on sales executives' performance and once again ascertained the role of non-cognitive factors in the performance of individuals.

Though the role of EI in performance is proved without any doubt, it does not mean that it is the only determinant of the executive performance. Present

study itself reveals the importance of self-esteem and locus of control-internal or in other words the possible role of the broader trait 'core self-evaluation' to a large extent in the performance of sales executives. EI is not a substitute for the cognitive abilities of an individual, it is an important contributory factor to the performance side of the individual.

It can be concluded that Emotional Intelligence is a learnable trait of individuals/executives that can substantially influence their performance effectiveness. EI is increasingly relevant in human resource management and the concept can be well utilised both in recruitment process and training programmes for the effectiveness of the organisation as a whole. According to Weisinger (1998) EI involves "the intelligent use of emotions: you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your results." Intelligent use of emotions in personal selling by the sales executives would definitely make their emotions work for them and would further result in enhanced performance.

8.4 Scope for Further Research

The present study explained the relationship between the emotional intelligence and the performance of the sales executives who were directly selling to the end user and the universe excluded sales executives belonging to the group of channel salesmen or missionary salesmen. Executives who were selling products to the industrial buyers alone and executives who were doing telemarketing were also excluded. Further research may be initiated to confirm the EI-Performance relationship among such group of sales executives so that the present findings would become generalisable among all groups of sales executives. The researcher could not explain the relationship between the switchovers of the sales executives from company to other companies in terms of low emotional intelligence. This is

not in conformity with the findings of some other researchers. If further research is conducted among a sample who are having larger years of experience and career history of more frequent switchover may bring out more accurate results. The present sample consisted more of youngsters and number of switchover was a few in majority of the cases.

In the present study, overall emotional intelligence of the sales executives had been measured and did not undertake any micro analysis on effects of various components of EI on performance. A research into the effect of various components of EI such as empathy, self-motivation etc. may bring better findings that could be effectively utilised in developing training programmes for enhancing the emotional intelligence.

REFERENCES

Andrasani, P. J., & Nestel, G. (1976). Internal-External control as contributor to and Outcome of work experience. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 156-165.

Ang, R., & Chang, W. C. (1999). Impact of domain specific locus of control on need for achievement and affiliation. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *139*(4).

Ashkanasy, N. M., Hartel, C. E. J., & Daus, C. S. (2002). Diversity and emotion: the new frontiers in organisational behaviour research. *Journal of Management, 28*, 307-338.

Bagozzi, R. P. (1978). *Reliability Assessment by Analysis of Covariance Structures*: Chicago American Marketing Association.

Bardzil, P., & Slaski, M. (2003). Emotional Intelligence: Fundamental competencies for enhanced service provision. *Managing Sevice Quality, 13*(2), 97 - 104.

Barlow, J., & Maul, D. (2000). *Emotional Value: Creating Strong Bonds with your Customers*. Berrett-Koehler, San Francisco, CA.

Bar-On, R. (1988). *The development of a concept of psychological well-being.* Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Rhodes University, South Africa.

Bar-On, R. (1997). *The emotional quotient inventory (EQ-I): Technical manual.* Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.

Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence: Insights from the emotional quotient inventory. In Bar-On & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), *handbook of Emotional Intelligence*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bar-On, R., Brown, J. M., Kirkcaldy, B. D., & Thome, E. P. (2000). Emotional expression and implications for occupational stress: an application. *Personality and Individual Differences, 28*, 1107-1118.

Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Does high Self-esteem cause better performance, Interpersonal success, happiness, or Healthier Lifestyles? *Psychological Science In the Public Interest, 4*(1), 1-44.

Beekie, & Raj. (2004). *The Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Sales Performance: From Intuition to Research.* http://www.eiconsortium.org/reference.htm.

Behrman, D. N., & Perreault, W. D. (1982). Measuring performance of industrial salespersons. *Journal of Business Research, 10*, 355-370.

Bharwaney, G. (2008). *Increase Your Emotional Intelligence: Strategies For Emotionally Intelligent Living.* Mumbai: Jaico publishing House.

Blascovich, J., & Tomaka, J. (1991). Measures of self-esteem. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes* (Vol. 1). San Diego, C.A: Academic Press.

Blau, G. (1993). Testing the relationship of locus of control to different performance dimensions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 66*, 125-138.

Blitzer, J. R., Petersen, C., & Rogers, L. (1993). How to build self-esteem. *Training and Development*, 58-60.

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Core self-evaluations: a review of the trait and its role in job satisfactionand job performance. *European Journal of Personality, 17*(11), S5-S18.

Boone, C., Brabander, B. D., & Hellemans, J. (2000). Research Note: CEO Locus of Control and Small Firm Performance. *Organisation Studies, 21*(3), 641-646.

Boone, C., Brabander, B. D., & Witteloostuijn, A. V. (1996). CEO Locus of Control and Small Firm Performance:An integrative framework and empirical test. *Journal of Management studies, 33*, 667-699.

Boyatzis, E. R. (1982). *The Competent Manager: A Model for Effective Performance*: John Wiley and Sons Inc.

Bradberry, T., & Greaves, J. (2005). The Emotional Intelligence. In Simon & Schuster (Eds.). New York: Quick Book.

Branden, N. (1969). *The Psychology of Self-Esteem: a revolutionary approach to self-understanding that launched a new era in modern psychology*. Los Angeles: Nash Publishing.

Branden, N. (1992). Power of Self-Esteem: An Inspiring Look at our most important. In *Psychological Resource*. Florida: Health communication Inc.

Branden, N. (1998). *Self-esteem at work*. Sanfrancisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brockner, J. (1988). Self-esteem at Work. In. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books,.

Brody, N. (2004). What cognitive intelligence is and what emotional intelligence is not. *Psychological Inquiry, 15*, 234-238.

Brown, J. D. (1998). *The Self*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Brutus, S., Ruderman, M. N., Ohlott, P. J., & McCauley, C. (2000). Developing from Job Experiences: The role of Organisation-Based Self-esteem. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 11*(4), 367-380.

Butterfield, E. C. (1964). Locus of Control, test anxiety, reactions to frustration, and achievement attitudes. *Journal of personality, 32*, 298-311.

Carmeli, A. (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behaviour and outcomes: An examination among senior managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18*(8), 788-813.

Carson, K. D., Carson, P. P., Lanford, H., & Roe, C. W. (1997). The effect of organisation-based self-esteemon workplace outcomes: am examination of emergency medical technicians. *Public Personnel Management, 26*, 139-155.

Caruso, D. R. (1999). *Multi-factor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS)* (Vol. Feedback Booklet. Version 1.1): Connecticut, Wolf and Associates.

Caruso, D. R., Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (2002). Emotional intelligence and emotional leadership. In R. Riggio & S. Murphy (Eds.), *Multiple intelligences and leadership*.

Caruso, D. R., & Wolfe, C. J. (2001). Emotional intelligence in the workplace. In J. Ciarrochi, J. P. Forgas & J. D. Mayer (Eds.), *Emotional Intelligence in Everyday Life* (pp. 150-168). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Cavello, K., & Brienza, D. (2002). Emotional competence and Leadership excellence at Johnson & Johnson: The Emotional intelligence and Leadership study. In D. Singh (Ed.), *Emotional intelligence at work* (pp. 134). New Delhi: Response Books.

Chadha, N. K. (2003). *Emotional Intelligence Scale* (3rd ed.). University of Delhi, New Delhi: Department of Psychology.

Chen, W., Jacobs, R., & Spencer, L. M. (1998). Calculating the competencies of stars, Working with emotional Intelligence. In (pp. 377-380). NY: Bantam Books.

Cherniss, C. (2000a). *Emotional Intelligence: What it is and why it matters?* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology, New Orleans, LA.

Cherniss, C. (2000b). Social and emotional competence in the workplace. In R. Bar-On & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence* (pp. 433-458). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Cherniss, C. (2004). Intelligence, emotional. In C. Spielberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 315-321). UK: Oxford.

Chien, G., Gully, S., & Eden, D. (2004). General self-efficacy and self-esteem: toward theoretical and empirical distinction between correlated self-evaluations. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 25*(3), 375-395.

Chiu, C. K., Chien, C. S., Lin, C. P., & Hsiao, C. Y. (2005). Understanding hospital employee job stress and turnover intentions in a practical setting: The moderating role of locus of control. *Journal of Management Development, 24*(10), 837-855.

Chiu, C. K., Lin, C. P., Tsai, Y. H., & Hsiao, C. Y. (2005). Modeling turnover intentions and their antecedents using the locus of control as a moderator: A case of customer service employees. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 16*(4), 481-499.

Chung, Y. Y., & Ding, C. G. (2002). Development of the sales locus of control scale. *Journal of occupational and Organisation psychology, 75,* 233-245.

Churchill Jr, G. A., Ford, N, M, Hartley, S. W., & Walker, O. C. (1985). The Determinants of Salesperson Performance: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research, 22,* 103–118.

Coleman, J. S., Campbell, E. Q., Hobson, C. J., McPartland, J., Mood, A. M., Wemfeld, F. D., et al. (1966). Equality of educational opportunity. In. Washington, DC: United States Government Printing Office.

Connolly, K. H. (2002). The new IQ. *Nursing Management, 33*(7), 17-18.

Constantine, C. G. (2003). *Emotional intelligence and its relationship with sales success.* Unpublished Dissertation, http://www.eiconsortium.org/reference.htm., Depaul University.

Cooper, R. K. (1997). Applying emotional intelligence in the workplace. *Training and Development, 51*(12), 31-38.

Cooper, R. K., & Sawaf, A. (1997). Executive EQ: Emotional Intelligence in Leadership and organisations. In. New York, NY: Perigee Books, The Berkley Publishing Group.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). The antecedents of self-esteem. In. San Francisco: Freeman.

Crandall, V. C., Katovsky, W., & Crandall, V. J. (1965). Children's beliefs in their intellectual-academic achievement situations. *Child Development, 36,* 91-109.

Cravens, D. W., Ingram, T. N., LaForge, R. W., & Young, C. E. (1993). Behavior-Based and Outcome-Based Salesforce Control Systems. *Journal of Marketing, 57,* 47-59.

Crocker, J., Brook, A. T., Niiya, Y., & Villacorta, M. (2006). The pursuit of self-esteem: Contingencies of self-worth and self-regulation. *Journal of Personality, 74,* 1749-1771.

Crocker, J., Karpinski, A., Quinn, D. M., & Chase, S. (2003). When grades determine self-worth: Consequences of contingent self-worth for male and female engineering and psychology majors. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85,* 507-516.

Crocker, J., Luhtanen, R. K., & Bouvrette, S. (2000). *Contingencies of self-worth in college students: Measurement and validation.*Unpublished manuscript, University of Michigan.

Crocker, J., & Park, L. (2004). The costly Pursuit of Self-Esteem. *Psychological Bulletin, 130*(3), 392-414.

Crocker, J., & Wolfe, C. T. (2001). Contingencies of self-worth. *Psychological Review, 108,* 593-623.

Cross, B., Travaglione, A., & Tony, T. (2003). The Untold Story: Is The Entrepreneur Of The 21st Century Defined By Emotional Intelligence? *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 11*(3), 221-228.

Cyril, J. S., Martha, W. B., & Julia, L. W. (1985). Assessing Locus of Control, Perceived Stress, and Performance of Student Teachers. *Educational Researcher, 105*(4), 391-394.

Cyril, J. S., Martha, W. B., & Julia, L. W. (1986). Assessing Locus of Control, Perceived Stress, and Performance of Student Teachers. *Educational Researcher, 106*(3), 352-353.

David, R. M. (2003). *Self-Assessment of Social and Emotional Competencies of Floor Covering Salespeople and its Correlation with Sales Performance.* Unpublished dissertation, http://www.eiconsortium.org/reference.htm.

Deeter-Schmelz, D. R., & Sojka, J. Z. (2003). Developing effective salespeople: exploring the link between emotional intelligence and sales performance. *The International Journal of Organisational Analysis, 11*(3), 211-220.

Dengfeng, W., & Norman, H. A. (1994). Excuse-making and blaming as a function of internal-external Locus of control. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 24*(2), 295-302.

Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and a proposalfor a national index. *American Psychologist, 55,* 34-43.

Dulewicz, S. V., & Higgs, M. J. (1998). Emotional intelligence: can it be measured reliably and validly using competency data? *Competency Journal, 6*(1), 28-37.

Dulewicz, S. V., & Higgs, M. J. (2000a). *EIQ-Managerial User Guide.* EIQ, Windsor.

Dulewicz, S. V., & Higgs, M. J. (2000b). Emotional intelligence: a review and evaluation study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 15*(4), 341-368.

Dulewicz, S. V., & Higgs, M. J. (2004). Can Emotional Intelligence be developed? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 15*(1), 95-111.

Dulewicz, S. V., Higgs, M. J., & Slaski, M. (2003). Measuring Emotional Intelligence: content, construct and criterion-related validity. *Journal of Management Psychology, 18*(5), 405-420.

Eileen, L. C., Nowicki, J., & Stephan. (1984). Locus of Control and Assertiveness in male and female college students. *Journal of Psychology, 117*(1), 85-88.

Erez, A., & Judge, T. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations to goal setting, motivation and performace. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(6), 1270-1279.

Feist, G. J., & Barron, F. (1996). *Emotional Intelligence and academic intelligence in career and life success.* Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Society, San Francisco.

Fineman, S. (1997). Emotion and management learning. *Management Learning, 28*(1), 13-25.

Firth, L., Mellor, D., Moore, K. A., & Loquet, C. (2004). How can managers reduce employee intention to quit? *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 19*(2), 170-187.

Forret, M. L., & Dougherty, T. (2001). Correlates of networking behaviour for managerial and professional employees. *Group and Organisation Management, 26*(3), 283-304.

Furnham, A., & Drakely, R. J. (1993). Work Locus of Control and Perceived organisational climate. *European Work and Organisational Psychologist, 3,* 1-9.

Gardner, D. G., & Pierce, J. L. (1998). Self-esteem and Self-efficacy within the organisational context. *Group and Organization Management, 23*(1), 48-70.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of Mind: The theory of multiple intelligences.* New York: Basic books.

Gardner, H. (1991). *The unschooled mind.* New York: Harper.

Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice.* New York, NY: Basic Books.

Gardner, H., & Hatch, T. (1989). Multiple intelligences go to school. *Educational Researcher, 18*(8), 8-14.

Gardner, L., & Stough, C. (2002). Examinig the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal, 23*(2), 68-78.

Garson, B. E., & Stanwyck, D. J. (1997). Locus of Control and Incentive in Self-Managing Teams. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 8*(3), 247-258.

Geiser, J. (2001). *Emotional Intelligence: An Analysis of Emotional Intelligence in Relation to Sales Professionals.* Unpublished Honors, Ohio University.

George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership:the role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations, 53*, 1027-1041.

Gilmor, T. M., & Minton, H. L. (1974). Internal versus external attribution of task performance as a function of locus of control, initial confidence and success-failure outcome. *Journal of Personality, 44*, 159-173.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ.* London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Goleman, D. (1997). *Beyond IQ: developing the leadership competencies of emotional intelligence.* Paper presented at the 2nd International Competency Conference, London.

Goleman, D. (1998a). What Makes a Leader? *Harward Business Review, 76*, 93-104.

Goleman, D. (1998b). *Working with Emotional Intelligence.* London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Goleman, D. (2000). Intelligent leadership. *Executive Excellence, 3*, 17.

Goleman, D. (2001). An E.I. Based Theory of performance. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally Intelligent workplace.* San Francusco,CA: Jossey-Bass.

Goleman, D. (2004). *An EI-Based Theory of Performance,* from *www.eiconsortium.org*

Goleman, D. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: Issues in Paradigm Building. *www.eiconsortium.org.*

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership: Realising the power of emotional intelligence.* Boston: Harward university press.

Gonzalez, L. O., & Sellers, E. W. (2002). The effects of a stress-management programme on self-concept, locus of control, and acquisition of coping skills in school-age children diagnosed with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Nursing, 15*(1), 5-15.

Good, D. J., & Stone, R. W. (1991). How sales quotas are developed. *Industrial Marketing Management, 20*(51-55).

Gronroos, C. (1996). Relationship Marketing: strategic and tactical implications. *Management Decision, 34*(3), 5-14.

Hambrick, D. C., & Finkelstein, S. (1987). Managerial discretion: a bridge between polar views of organizational outcomes. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 9). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Hein, S. (1996). EQ For Everybody. In *A Practical Guide to Emotional Intelligence*.

Hershenson, D. B. (1996). A systems reformulation of a developmental model of work adjustment. *Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 40*, 2–10.

Hewitt, P. L., & Flett, G. (1996). Personality traits and the coping process. In M. Zeidner & N. S. Endler (Eds.), *Hand book of coping.Theory, research, applications* (pp. 410-433). New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Higgs, M. (2004). A study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance in UK call centres. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 19*(4), 442-454.

Higgs, M., & Aitken, P. (2003). An exploration of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership potential. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18*(7-8), 814-823.

Hjelle, L. A. (1970). Internal-external control as a determinant of academic achievement. *Psychological reports, 26,* 326.

Hooijberg, R., Hunt, J. G., & Dodge, G. E. (1997). Leadership complexity and development of the Leaderplex model. *Journal of Management, 23,* 375-408.

Hopfl, H., & Linstead, S. (1997). Learning to feel and feeling to learn: emotion and learning in organisations. *Management Learning, 28*(1), 5-12.

Howell, R. D., Betlenger, D. N., & Wilcox, J. B. (1987). Self-esteem, role stress and job satisfaction among Marketing Managers. *Journal of Business Research, 15*(1), 71-84.

Hunter, J. E., & Hunter, R. F. (1984). Validity and utility of alternative predictors of job performance. *Psychological Bulletin, 76*(1), 72-93.

Ingram, T. N., LaForge, R. W., Locander, W. B., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2005). New Directions in Sales Leadership Research. *Journal of personal Selling and Sales Management, 25*(2), 137-154.

James, K. T. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: The New Science of Interpersonal Effectiveness. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 15*(4), 489-495.

Janek, P., & Tewary, N. B. (1979). Locus of Control and achievement values of entrepreneurs. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 52*(2), 107-111.

Jennifer, M. L., & Karen, J. M. (2000). The relationship between Job Characteristics and Workplace procrastination as Moderated by Locus of Control. *Journal of Social Behaviour & Personality, 15*(5), 213-224.

John, B., & MacDonald Jr., A. P. (1971). Internal-external Locus of control and response to influence attempts. *Journal of Personality, 39*(3), 407-419.

Johnson, P. R., & Indvik, J. (1999). Organisational benefits of having emotionally intelligent managers and employees. *The Journal of Workplace Learning, 11*(3), 84-88.

Johnson, R. E., & Chu-Hsiang, C. (2006). "I" is to continuance as "We" is to affective: the relevance of the self-concept for organizational commitment. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 27*(5), 549-570.

Jordan, P. J., Ashkanasy, N. M., Hartel, C. E. J., & Hooper, G. S. (2002). Workgroup emotional intelligence: scale development and relationship to

team process effectiveness and goal focus. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*, 195-214.

Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2004). Managing emotions during team problem solving: Emotional intelligence and conflict resolution. *Human Performance, 17*(2), 195-218.

Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations Traits-Self-esteem, Generalised Self-efficacy, Locus of control, and Emotional stability-With Job satisfaction and Job performance: A Meta analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(1), 80-92.

Kailash, B. L. S., & Bharamanaikar, S. R. (2004). Emotional Intelligence and Effective Leadership Behaviour. *Journal of National Academy of Psychology, 49*(2-3), 107-113.

Kelley, R. E. (1998). How to be a Star at Work: nine breakthrough strategies you need to succeed. In. New York: Times Books.

Kelley, R. E., & Caplan, J. (1993). How Bell Labs creates star performers. *Harvard Business review*, 100-103.

Kembach, S., & Schutte, N. S. (2005). The impact of service provider emotional intelligence on customer satisfaction. *Journal of Service Marketing, 19*(7), 438- 444.

Korman, A. K. (1970). Toward a hypothesis of work behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 52*, 484-490.

Kotler, P., Keller, L. K., Koshy, A., & Jha, M. (2007). Marketing Management- A South Asian Perspective. In (13th ed.): Pearson Education.

Kundu, C. S., & Rani, S. (2007). Human resources' self-esteem across gender and categories: A study. *Industrial Management and Data Systems, 107*(9), 1366-1390.

Landy, F. J. (2005). Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 26*, 411- 424.

Langhorn, S. (2004). How emotional intelligence can improve management performance. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 16*(4), 220-230.

Lee, J. (2003). An Analysis of the antecedents of organization-based self-esteem in two Korean banks. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 14*(6), 1046-1066.

Lefcourt, H. M. (1976). *Locus of Control: Current Trends in Theory and Research.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Lefcourt, H. M. (1979). Internal-External control of reinforcement. A review. *Psychological Bulletin, 65*, 206-220.

Lefcourt, H. M. (1992). Durability and impact of the locus of control construct. *Psychological Bulletin, 112*, 411-414.

Levenson, H. (1973). Multidimensional locus of control in psychiatric patients. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 41*, 397-404.

Libert, Y., Janne, P., Razavi, D., Merckaert, I., Scalliet, P., Delvaux, N., et al. (2003). Impact of medical specialist's locus of control on communication skills in oncological interviews. *British Journal of Cancer, 88*(4), 502.

Locke, E. A. (2005). Why emotional intelligence is an invalid concept. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 26*, 425-431.

Lopes, P. N., Brackett, M. A., Nezlek, J. B., Schütz, A., Sellin, I., & Salovey, P. (2004). Emotional intelligence and social interaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*(8), 1018-1034.

Lusch, F., & Serpkenci, R. (1990). Personal Differences, Job Tension, Job Outcomes, and Store Performance: A Study of Retail Store Managers. *Journal of Marketing, 54*, 85-101.

Luthans, F. (1995). Organisational Behaviour. In (6 ed.): McGraw-Hill.

Mallon, G. (1992). Junior life skills: An innovation of latency-age Children in out-of-home care. *Child Welfare, 71*, 585-591.

Mamlin, N., Harris, K. R., & Case, L. P. (2001). A Methodological Analysis of Research on Locus of Control and Learning Disabilities: Rethinking a Common Assumption. *Journal of Special Education.*

Manna, D. R., & Smith, A. D. (2004). Exploring the need for emotional intelligence and awareness among sales representatives. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning, 22*(1), 66-83.

Manning, L. G., & Reece, L. B. (2001). Selling today: Building quality partnerships. In (8 ed.): Pearson education.

Marks, L. I. (1988). Deconstructing locus of control: Implications for practitioners. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 76*, 251-260.

Marla, A. E., & Lillian, M. S. (1997). Work Locus of Control: The intrinsic factor behind empowerment and work Excitement. *Nursing Economics, 15*(4), 183-190.

Martin, R., Thomas, G., Charles, K., Epitropaki, O., & McNamara, R. (2005). The role of leader-member exchanges in mediating the relationship between locus of control and work reactions. *Journal of Occupational and organisational Psychology, 78*(1), 141-147.

Martinez, M. N. (1997). The smarts that count. *HR Magazine, 42*(11), 72-80.

Maselli, J. (2002). Better communication leads to more sales. *Information week, 889*, 32.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence, 27*, 267-298.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2001). Selecting a measure of emotional intelligence. In R. Bar-On & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), *The Hand book of Emotional Intelligence.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, G. S. (2008). Human Abilities: Emotional Intelligence. *Annual review of Psychology, 59*, 507-536.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey. (1993). The Intelligence of emotional intelligence. *Intelligence, 17*, 433-442.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is Emotional intelligence. In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Educational implications* (pp. 10-11).

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000). Models of Emotional intelligence. In R. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of Intelligence* (pp. 396-420). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Mc Clelland, D. C. (1999). Identifying competencies with behavioural-event interviews. *Psychological Sciences, 9*(5), 331-339.

Mc Ghee, A. G., & Crandall, V. C. (1968). Beliefs in internal-external control of reinforcement and academic performance. *Child development, 39*, 91-102.

Mc Shane, L. S., Von Glinow, A. M., & Sharma, R. R. (2006). Organizational Behaviour. In (3 ed.). New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

Mortimer, J. T., & Finch, M. D. (1986). The development of self-esteem in the early work career. *Work and Occupations, 13*(2), 217-239.

Muchinsky, P. M. (2000). Psychology Applied to Work: An Introduction to Industrial and Organisational Psychology. In. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson.

Muhonen, T., & Torkelson, E. (2004). Work locus of control and its relationship to health and job satisfaction from a gender perspective. *Stress and Health, 20*, 21-28.

Murthy, G. R. K. (2004). Emotional Intelligence-Indian Hues. *HRM Review, 4*(3), 18-22.

Naditch, P. M., & Demaio, T. (2006). Locus of control and competence. *Journal of Personality, 43*(4), 541-559.

Organ, D. W., & Greene, C. N. (1974). The perceived purposefulness of job behaviour: Antecedents and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal, 17*, 69-78.

Palmer, B., Walls, M., Burgess, Z., & Stough, C. (2001). Emotional Intelligence and effective leadership. *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal, 22*(1), 1-10.

Passer, M. W., & Smith, R. E. (2007). *Psychology: The Science of Mind and Behaviour* (3 ed.). New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company limited.

Payne, W. L. (1985). *A study of emotion: developing emotional intelligence.* Unpublished Ph D, The Union For Experimenting Colleges And Universities, Cincinnati, OH.

Phares, E. (1976). Locus of control in Personality. In N. J. Morristown (Ed.): General Learning Press.

Pierce, J. L., & Gardner, D. G. (2004). Self-esteem within the Work and Organizational Context: A Review of the Organization-Based Self-Esteem Literature. *Journal of Management, 30*(5), 591-622.

Pierce, J. L., Gardner, D. G., Cummings, L., & Duhman, R. (1989). Organisation-Based Self-Esteem : Construct Definition, Measurement, and Validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 625.

Pilling, B. K., & Eroglu, S. (1994). An empirical examination of the impact of salesperson empathy and professionalism and merchandise saleability on retail buyer's evaluations. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 14*(1), 55-58.

Price, L. L., Arnould, E. J., & Deibler, S. L. (1995). Consumers' emotional responses to service encounters: the influence of the service provider. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 6*(3), 34-63.

Rahim, M. A., & Minors, P. (2003). Effects of emotional intelligence on concern for quality and problem solving. *Managerial Auditing Journal, 18*(2), 150-155.

Raju, P. V. L. (2004). All about emotional intelligence. *HRM Review, 4*(3), 15-17.

Riggio, R. E., Throckmorton, B., & DePaola, S. (1990). Social skills and Self-esteem. *Personality and Individual Differences, 11*, 799-804.

Robbins, S. P., Judge, T. A., & Sanghi, S. (2007). *Organization Behavior* (12th ed.): Pearson Education.

Roberts, J. A., Lapidus, R. S., & Chonko, L. B. (1997). Salespeople and Stress: The moderating role of Locus of Control on work stressors and felt stress. *Journal of Marketing, Theory and Practice*, 93-108.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). Society and the Adolescent Self-Image. In: Princeton University Press.

Rosenthal, R. (1977). The PONS Test: Measuring sensitivity to nonverbal cues. In P. McReynolds (Ed.), *Advances in psychological assessment*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Rotter, J. B. (1954). Social Learning and Clinical Psychology. In N. J. Englewood Cliffs (Ed.): Prentice-Hall.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalised expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs, 80*(1).

Rotter, J. B. (1975). Some problems and misconceptions related to the construct of internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 43*, 56-67.

Rotter, J. B., Liverant, S., & Crowne, P. D. (1961). The growth and extinction of expectancies in chance-controlled and skilled tasks. *The Journal of Psychology*, 161-177.

Rozell, E. J., Pettijohn, C. E., & Parker, R. S. (2004). Customer-oriented selling: Exploring the roles of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. *Psychology and Marketing, 21*(6), 405-424.

Saarni, C. (1990). Emotional competence: How emotions and relationships become integrated. In R. A. Thompson (Ed.), *Socioemotional Development* (Vol. 36, pp. 115-182). Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press.

Sadowski, C. J. (1990). Cumulative evidence of the relationship between work tenure and generalized locus of control among teachers. *Educational Researcher, 114*(1), 27-31.

Sager, J. K., Strutton, H. D., & Johnson, D. A. (2005). Core self-evaluations and salespeople. *Psychology and Marketing, 23*(2), 95-113.

Salovey, P., Bedell, B. T., Detweiler, J. B., & Mayer, J. D. (1999). Coping intelligently: Emotional intelligence and the coping process. In C. R. Snyder (Ed.), *Coping: The psychology of what works* (pp. 141-164). New York: Oxford University press.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1989). Emotional Intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and personality, 9*(3), 185-211.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and personality, 9*(3), 185-211.

Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., & Caruso, D. (2002). The positive psychology of emotional intelligence. In C. R. Synder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Psychology* (pp. 159-171). New York: Oxford University Press.

Schultz, D. P., & Schultz, S. E. (2005). *Theories of Personality*: Wadsworth: Thomson.

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Bobik, C., Coston, T. D., Greeson, C., Jedlicka, C., et al. (2001). Emotional Intelligence and Interpersonal Relations. *Journal of Social Psychology, 141*(4), 523-536.

Schwepker Jr, C. H., & Good, D. J. (2004). Understanding sales quotas: an exploratory investigation of consequences of failure. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, 19*(1), 39-48.

Seligman, M. P. (1990). Learned Optimism. In. New York: Pocket Books.

Shavit, H., & Rabinowitz, A. (1978). Locus of Control and Effects of Failure on Performance and Perceived Competence. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 42*(3), 265-271.

Shepherd, C. D., Lassk, F. G., & Ridnour, R. E. (2003). Emotional Intelligence, Primal Leadership, and Sales Management: A Research Agenda. In A. Scott (Ed.), *Professional Sales and Sales Management Practices for the 21st Century* (pp. 25-30): National Conference in Sales Management.

Sinha, A. K., & Jain, A. K. (2004). Emotional Intelligence, Imperative for the organisationally Relevant Outcomes. *Journal of National Academy of Psychology, 49*(2-3), 81-96.

Sivanathan, N., & Fekken, C. (2002). Emotional intelligence, moral reasoning and transformational leadership. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal, 23*(4), 198-204.

Sjoberg, L., & Engelberg, E. (2005). Measuring and Validating Emotional Intelligence as Performance or Self-report. In K. B. S. Kumar (Ed.), *Emotional Intelligence: Research insights* (pp. 97-119). Hyderbad, India: ICFAI University Press.

Sjoberg, L., & Littorin. (2005). Emotional Intelligence, Personality and Sales Performance. In *Emotional Intelligence- research Insights* (pp. 126-142). Hyderabad, India: ICFAI University Press.

Smoll, F. L., Smith, R. E., Barnett, N. P., & Everet, J. J. (1993). Enhancement of Children's self-esteem through social support training for youth sport coaches. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 602-610.

Sojka, J. Z., & Deeter-Schmelz, D. R. (2002). Enhancing emotional intelligence of salespeople. *Mid-American Journal of Business, 17*(1), 43-50.

Sosik, J. J., & Megerian, L. E. (1999). Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance: The role of self-other agreement on transformational leadership perceptions. *Group and Organisation Management, 24*(3), 367-390.

Spector, P. (1982). Behaviour in organisations as a function of employee's locus of control. *Psychological Bulletin, 91*, 482-497.

Spector, P. E. (1988). Development of the work locus of control scale. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 61*, 335-340.

Spector, P. E., & O'Connell, B. J. (1994). The contribution of personality traits, negative affectivity, locus of control, and type A to the subsequent reports of job stressors and job strains. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 67*, 1-12.

Spencer, L. M., & Spencer, S. M. (1993). Competence at work: Models for Superior Performance. In. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Spencer, L. M. J., McClelland, D. C., & Kelner, S. (1997). Competency assessment Methods: History and State of the Art. In. Boston: Hay/McBer.

Spiro, R., & Weitz, B. (1990). Adaptive selling: conceptualization, measurement and nomological validity. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 61-69.

Srivastava, R., & Sager, J. K. (1999). Influence of personal characteristics on salespeople's coping style. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 19*(2), 47-57.

Steiner, C. (1997). *Achieving Emotional Literacy*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Stephen, W., & Diane, B. (1978). The interactive effects of locus of control and situational stress upon performance accuracy and time. *Journal of Personality, 46*(2), 279-299.

Sternberg, R. J. (1996). Successful Intelligence: How Practical and Creative Intelligence Determine Success in Life. In. New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.

Still, R. R., Cundiff, W. E., & Govoni, P. A. N. (2007). Sales Management: Decisions, Strategies and Cases. In (5th ed.): Pearson Education.

Strauser, R. D., Ketz, K., & Keim, J. (2002). The relationship between self-efficacy, locus of control and work personality. *Journal of Rehabilitation, 68*(1), 20-26.

Strauss, J. P. (2005). Multi-source perspectives of self-esteem, performance ratings and source agreement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 20*(6), 464-482.

Szymanski, E. M., & Hershenson, D. B. (1998). Career Development for people with disabilities: An ecological model. In R. M. Parker & E. M. Szymanski (Eds.), *Rehabilitation Counseling : Basics and Beyond* (pp. 327-378). Austin: TX: Pro-Ed.

Thomas, W. H., Kelly, L. S., & Lillian, T. E. (2006). Locus of control at work: a meta analysis. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 27*(8), 1057-1087.

Thorndike, E. L. (1920). A constant error in psychological ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 4*, 25-29.

Thorndike, R. L., & Stern, S. (1937). An evaluation of the attempts to measure social intelligence. *Psychological Bulletin, 34*, 275-284.

Time. (October 2, 1995). *Cover.* New York: Time Warner.

Timothy, A., & Joyce, E. B. (2001). Relationship of Core Self-Evaluations Traits - Self-Esteem, Generalised Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Emotional Stability - Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(1), 80-92.

Tischler, L., Biberman, G., & McKeage, R. L. (2002). Linking emotional intelligence, spirituality, and workplace performance. *Journal of Management Psychology, 17*(3), 203-218.

Vakola, M., Tsaousis, I., & Nikolaou, I. (2004). The role of emotional intelligence and personality variables on attitudes toward organisational change. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 19*(2), 88-110.

Van Der Zee, K., & Wabeke, R. (2004). Is trait-Emotional Intelligence simply or more than just a trait? *European Journal of Personality, 18*(4), 243-263.

Varghese, S. (2005). *Emotional intelligence and Organizational Role Stress - A study among managers in selected industrial organisations in Kerala.* Cochin University of Science and Technology, unpublished Ph D thesis.

Verbeke, W. (1994). Personality characteristics that predict effective performance of sales people. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 10*, 49-57.

Verbeke, W., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2002). A situational analysis on how salespeople experience and cope with shame and embarrassment. *Psychology and Marketing, 19*(9), 713-741.

Vermunt, R., Van Knippenberg, D., Van Knippenberg, B., & Blaauw, E. (2001). Self-esteem and outcome fairness: Differential Importance of Procedural and Outcome Considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(4), 621-628.

Waddell, G. R. (2006). Labor-market consequences of poor attitude and low self-esteem in youth. *Economic Enquiry, 44*(1), 69-97.

Walker Jr, O. C., Churchil Jr, G. A., & Ford, N. M. (1977). Motivation and performance in industrial selling: Existing knowledge and needed research. *Journal of Marketing Reasearch, 14*, 156-168.

Waters, L., & Moore, K. A. (2002). Self-Esteem, Appraisal and Coping: A comparison of unemployed and reemployed people. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 23*(5), 593-605.

Wechsler, D. (1940). Nonintellective factors in general intelligence. *Psychological Bulletin, 37*, 444-445.

Weiner, B. (1974). Achievement Motivation and Attribution Theory. In. New Jersey: General Learning Press.

Weisinger, H. (1998). Emotional Intelligence at Work. In. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Weiss, W. J. (2001). Organisational Behaviour and Change: Managing diversity, cross-cultural dynamics. In (2 ed.): South-western College Publishing.

Weitz, B., Castleberry, S., & Tanner Jr., J. (2001). *Selling: Building partnerships*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Weitz, B. A., Sujan, H., & Sujan, M. (1986). Knowledge, Motivation, and adaptive behaviour: A framework for improving selling effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing, 50*, 174-191.

Williams, W., & Sternberg, R. (1988). Group intelligence: Why some groups are better than others. *Intelligence, 12*(4), 351-377.

Winsted, K. F. (2000). Service behaviours that lead to satisfied customers. *European Journal of Marketing, 34*(3), 399-417.

Zaccaro, S. J. (2001). The nature of executive leadership: A Conceptual and empirical analysis of success. In. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Zimbardo, P. G. (1985). *Psychology and life* (11th ed.). Glenview, Ill, Scott: Foresman.

Emotional Intelligence Scale

1. You have just learnt that you have been ignored for a promotion by the management for which you were eligible. Moreover, one of your juniors has been selected for the same promotion. You are upset and feeling frustrated. What do you do?

   a) Ignore it - it was your bad luck.
   b) Talk it over with your boss, bringing out the facts about your contribution and ask for reconsideration of the management's decision.
   c) Start abusing the colleague who superseded you, levelling allegations of manipulation and corruption against him and instigate the union leaders to organise protests against the management.
   d) Move to court and obtain a stay order and vow to teach befitting lesson to the management through legal battle.
   e) Resign from the organisation.

2. A freshly recruited smart first-class professional graduate joins your organisation as a management trainee. After a few weeks she complains to you that her superiors and subordinates were not taking her seriously. What will you suggest her?

   a) Suggest that she handle the situation herself and not to bother you for trivial matters.
   b) Tell her that such behaviour is typical of most organisations and she should ignore it.
   c) Suggest that she undergo behavioral training to learn inter-personal skills.
   d) Empathise with her and help her figure out ways to get others to work with her.
   e) Tell her to look for another job.

3. As a production manager you are taking a weekly review meeting which also has some women employees. You overhear a male employee telling an offensive joke about women employees. What do you do?

   a) Ignore it - it is only a joke.
   b) Call the employee in your office after the meeting and pull him up.
   c) Send the employee to attend a sensitivity training programme for changing his prejudices.
   d) Ask the women employees to protest in writing so that you can take appropriate action.

e) Announce on the spot that such jokes are inappropriate and shall not be tolerated in your organisation.

4. In a fit of anger, you have got into an argument with your colleague that has led to personal attacks from both sides. The entire office is witness to the unpleasant episode. You and your colleague had actually never intended to tarnish the image of each other. How will you tackle this ugly situation?

    a) Sit calmly and consider what triggered the argument between you and your colleague and was it possible to control your anger at that point of time.
    b) Avoid arguments and leave the scene.
    c) Apologise and ask your colleague to apologize too.
    d) Continue with the argument till you reach at some definite conclusion.
    e) Complain to the management against your colleague.

5. Imagine you are an insurance salesperson approaching prospective clients to purchase insurance policies. A dozen people in a row have shut the door on your face and you are feeling frustrated. What will you do?

    a) Blame yourself and stop work for the day.
    b) Reassess your capabilities as an insurance salesperson.
    c) Come out with fresh strategies to overcome similar failures in future.
    d) Think of changing your job.
    e) Contact the clients again some other day.

6. Imagine you are a site engineer of a large construction company. A worker suddenly slips down and dies. There is a violent reaction and you are surrounded by the agitated workers. What will you do?

    a) Call the police/management and let them decide the further course of action.
    b) Threaten the agitating workers with dire consequences if they do not cool down immediately.
    c) Reason with the workers and explain the safety measures you had taken to prevent such incidents.
    d) Call the agitated workers for a dialogue and ask for their suggestions so that such incidents do not occur in future.
    e) Find an opportunity to slip away from the scene.

7. You are accompanying your friend from Delhi to Agra in his car. You notice another car loaded with children suddenly overtaking your car and cutting sharply in front of you abruptly. Your friend, who is driving the car, gets nervous, as he had to apply the brakes immediately to avoid hitting the other car. What would be your reaction at that time?

a) Tell your friend to stop and relax for some time rather than continue driving.
b) Tell your friend to chase the other car and stop it.
c) Yell at the driver of the other car.
d) Tell your friend to smile and thank God that everyone is safe.
e) Just ignore what had happened as a very minor incident.

8. You are on an aircraft and suddenly the pilot announces that it has been hijacked by terrorists. Everyone is in a state of shock, nervousness, and utter confusion. What will be your reaction?

a) Blame yourself for choosing an inauspicious day for traveling.
b) Attend to the instructions of the pilot/airhostess and ask the other fellow passengers to do the same.
c) Continue to read your magazine and pay little attention to the incident.
d) Cry out and vow not to travel by air in future.
e) Falsely claim that you are a heart patient needing medical attention and beg the hijackers to release you.

9. Imagine that you are a police officer posted in a sensitive area. You get information that there have been violent ethnic clashes between two religious communities and a large number of people have been killed from both sides and property has been damaged. What action will you take?

a) Decide not to visit the spot personally as there may be danger to your life from the fury of the public.
b) Take your time to respond-in any case this is not the first time riots have occurred.
c) Try to handle the situation tactfully - assuage the feelings of both communities - tracking down the reasons for the clash, and taking all desired remedial measures.
d) Send your subordinate inspector to study the situation.
e) Arrange to hand over the dead to the respective families after getting the postmortem done.

10. You have a grown-up son who starts arguing with you every now and then on matters relating to your personal and social life. One day he tells you that you have dictated your terms to the family for very long and cannot continue to exercise the authority anymore. He also tells you that as a father you cannot impose your outdated attitudes and irrelevant values on him. He further confronts you and says that he is an adult and henceforth he will take all major decisions. You are disturbed at his defiant behaviour. How will you tackle him?

a) Accept his statement in helplessness and take a low profile position in the family.
b) In disgust, tell him to leave home and find a separate place for himself.
c) Send him to a psychologist to learn to adjust with his environment.
d) For the time being delay the arguments, manage your feelings, sit with him and explain your point of view as patiently as possible without making the situation tense.
e) Ignore his hostile comments and change the topic of discussion.

11. This morning an old man was driving his old Fiat car on the wrong side with his little grandson on his lap. He was too careless to switch on the indicator before turning the car and in the process dashed onto the bonnet of the Maruti car, which you were driving. How will you behave at this time?

a) Just smile at the old man and ask him to be grateful to God for his grandson, who was safe.
b) Get annoyed at the old man and shout at him.
c) Ask for compensation for the damage.
d) Give the old man a long lecture on how to drive safely.
e) Call the police.

12. Imagine you are a doctor and you have operated upon a cancer patient in the morning. When you go home for lunch you receive a call that the patient has developed some complications and you decide to rush back to the hospital. On your way back to the hospital you are held up at the traffic light, as the signal is red. You wait impatiently and when the signal turns green you start your car without noticing a scooterist in front and hit him. He loses his balance but regains it with great difficulty. What will you do now?

a) Immediately stop the car, get out, introduce yourself and apologize.
b) Ignore him and keep moving.
c) Thank God that nothing serious had happened.
d) Stop for a moment, collect your thoughts and move towards the hospital.
e) Tell the scooterist what has happened and continue driving.

13. You are a general manager of a large production company. Next week there is a board meeting and your department is expected to prepare the annual report. You get a call from one of the production units in another state that there is a strike and your presence is urgently required to negotiate with the union. You delegate the responsibility to your assistant general manager to get the report prepared for the Board meeting in time and leave the city. When you return you are perplexed to find that your assistant general manager has not prepared

the report and the board meeting is scheduled for the next day. What do you do?

   a) Feel remorse for your decision to delegate to the wrong person.
   b) Get worked up and fire the assistant general manager for failing to carry out your instructions.
   c) Complete the work yourself to avoid embarrassment before the board.
   d) Understand the difficulties faced by the assistant general manager in getting the work completed, motivate him saying that it could still be done and make a plan to sit long hours to complete the job in time.
   e) Send the assistant general manager for further training to sharpen his managerial skills.

14. You are a professor in a college and while taking a class one of your students comments that your style of teaching is not good, that you have not prepared the topic properly and also that you are just passing time. How will you react?

   a) Report to the principal of the college about the behaviour of the student.
   b) Ask him to leave the classroom and tell him in strong words that you cannot change your teaching style.
   c) Ask him to meet you after the class in your chamber.
   d) Listen to the need of the class and promise to prepare the topic properly in future.
   e) Ignore him and continue with your lecture.

15. As the CEO of a company you are involved in a meeting with the union leaders on their pending demands. During the meeting one of the union leaders shouts at you saying that you are a big liar and levels serious allegations of corruption and favoritism against you. You are very upset. How will you react to the remarks of the union leader?

   a) Just ignore what he said, continue with the discussion and listen to their demands with a cool frame of mind.
   b) Suspend him from the job.
   c) Cancel further negotiations and ask him to apologize first.
   d) Advise him not to make personal remarks.
   e) Leave the room after assigning the responsibility to your subordinate to continue with the negotiations.

S L O C

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings with respect to your selling job. Please rate how much you agree/disagree with each statement below and mark your response in the appropriate column by putting 'X' mark.

		Disagree very much (1)	Disagree moderately (2)	Disagree slightly (3)	Agree slightly (4)	Agree moderately (5)	Agree very much (6)
1	It is my firm belief that I can solely overcome the obstacles on sales work.						
2	I personally should be responsible for the failure of not reaching the sales quota.						
3	My behaviour can greatly influence my selling outcome.						
4	Sales performance is strongly related to the efforts I have made.						
5	Becoming an outstanding salesperson depends mostly on timing and opportunity.						
6	A prayer for good luck may quite possibly outweigh personal ability and enthusiasm.						

7	My sales performance today rests on chance.						
8	It takes luck and good fortune to get a promotion.						
9	I believe that sales success is mostly influenced by powerful others.						
10	Sales cannot be effective without favour from important people.						
11	Becoming a competent salesperson depends on the help from some people in high positions.						
12	The accomplishment I can achieve is often in the hands of powerful others.						

Self-Esteem Scale

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. If you Strongly Agree, circle SA. If you Agree with the statement, circle A. If you Disagree, circle D. If you strongly Disagree, circle SD.

		1 STRONGLY AGREE	2 AGREE	3 DISAGREE	4 STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	SA	A	D	SD
2	At times I think I am no good at all.	SA	A	D	SD
3	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	SA	A	D	SD
4	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	SA	A	D	SD
5	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	SA	A	D	SD
6	I certainly feel useless at times.	SA	A	D	SD
7	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	SA	A	D	SD
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	SA	A	D	SD
9	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	SA	A	D	SD
10	I take positive attitude toward myself.	SA	A	D	SD

Profile of the Sales executive

Name :   Present Company : ....

Designation in the company: ....…..................... Products you sell:

Age: ....   Sex: Male/Female

1.   What is your total experience as Sales Executive?

        Ans.: ... . years .... months

2.   What is your total experience with the present company?

        Ans.: .... years .... months

3.   What is the total number of firms with which you had worked so far as
        sales executive?

         Ans :

4.   What are your educational Qualifications? 1.

                                                   2.

                                                   3.

5.   Marital status:

        a) Married   b) Single   c) Other ....

6.   What is your average Sales Performance in terms of attainment of quota?

        Ans: .... %

        (eg. 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% 110% 120%
        ....)

7. How many effective sales you make on an average out of ten attempts (sales presentations)?

Ans: ....

8. Have you undergone any training for improving your interpersonal skills: Yes/No

If yes, a) How many times: ....

b) What was average duration of the training programme?
Ans: . ...

9. How many brothers and sisters you have in total?

Ans: ....

10. What is your ordinal (birth) position in the family?

Ans: .... (eg. First born, second born etc.)

11. What is your parent's educational background?

Father: 1. Graduate 2. Professional graduate
(Specify...........................)

3. Post graduate 4. Others
(Specify. ....)

Mother: 1. Graduate 2. Professional graduate
(Specify...........................)

3. Post graduate 4. Others
(Specify. ....)

12. What are/were the occupations of your parents?

Father: ....

Mother: ....

Supervisor's Comments :

1. Average sales Performance of the executive in terms of attainment of Sales targets?

    Ans: .... %

    (eg. 10 % 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% 110% 120% ....)

2. Customer feed back if any, about the sales executive?

    a) Good   b) Satisfactory   c) Dissatisfied

3. What is your overall assessment about the executive in terms of performance?

    a) Poor performer   b) Average performer

    c) Above Average performer   d) Excellent performer

4. What is the total strength of the Sales executives in your organisation?

    a) Total in the company ....

    b) Total in the division ....

***

T 149.