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


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

Kembach 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 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.

Jenny 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 percent 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. It 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 ‘semautonomous 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
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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 Chemiss 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 Jenny 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 Zealand 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)”.

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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".

Muomenen 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
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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)
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 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 test 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 between 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 (Goleman, 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).