

“A Study on Emotional Competence of Sales People in Organized Retail in Major Cities of Gujarat State”

A Thesis submitted to Gujarat Technological University

For the award of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Management

By

Riddhi Ambavale

Enrolment No.129990992041

Under the supervision of

Dr. Amit Jain



GUJARAT TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY
AHMEDABAD
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ABSTRACT

All humans experience emotions that help guide their actions. Emotional Competence (EC) is described as an ability, capacity, or skill to perceive, assess, and manage the emotions of one's self, of others, and of groups. Emotional competence is an important skill that can provide several benefits throughout many aspects of our life. As a franchisee it is extremely important to hire the best managers, but one also need to hire managers that are good with people. If employees are happy and are dealt with at the right level, they will become the best part of the team or they can incrementally sabotage the company and the customer service. There is a correlation between salesperson's characteristics and consumer's emotions on purchase behavior that involves customer-salesperson interface.

The broad objective of this research is to identify the level of emotional competence, and its impact on the sales performance of retail sales people. The study focused on the sales people of organized retail industries of selected cities of Gujarat state. The study is aimed to identify the factors in maintaining Emotional Competence in sales people of the retail industry. It also identifies the importance of each factor of Emotional Competence. Moreover, the study identifies whether there is any significant difference between EC and different levels of sales performance. Lastly, this study checks whether sales performance is affected by emotional competence or not.

For this research, data collection tool used was structured questionnaire. Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) having 33 items was used to identify emotional competence. To check sales performance of the sales people, 10 additional questions of a standardized scale was considered. Total 600 respondents were taken as sample size out of which 577 were considered after filtration. SPSS 21.0 version was used for data analysis. Factor analysis was used to identify key factors of EC; Weighted Average method was used to identify the importance of each factor of EC; one-way ANOVA was used to establish impact of EC on demographic variables of sales people. And Regression Analysis was performed to check the impact of EC on sales performance of sales people.

The research has identified four key factors of emotional competence. These four factors combined together to make a complete set of emotional competence. However, their weightage may differ as per its importance in individual's life. Also, there was significant difference between demographic factors and emotional competence. Additionally, to determine the relationship between emotional competence and sales performance (based on outcomes, behavior and professional development), factor analysis was performed and three more factors were extracted based on sales performance of the retail sales people. When the factors of emotional competence were checked with the factors of sales performance to find the impact of EC of the retail sales people, majority of the EC factors had high impact. In a nutshell, we conclude from the results of this study that factors of emotional competence has a strong impact on sales performance of sales people of organized retail industry in Gujarat state.

Key words: Emotional Competence, sales performance, sales people, organized retail industry, Gujarat state.

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Riddhi Ambavale

Date:

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AES	Affect Emotion Scale
DHEIQ	Dulewicz& Higgs Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire
EARS	Emotional Accuracy Research Scale
EC	Emotional Competence
EQ-I	Emotional Quotient Inventory
ECI	Emotional Competence Inventory
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EIPIP	Emotional Intelligence International Personality Item Pool
EIS	Emotional Intelligence Scale
EISC	The Emotional Intelligence Scale For Children
EISRS	Emotional Intelligence Self Regulation Scale
FNEIPT	Freudenthaler &Neubauer Emotional Intelligence Performance Test
GENOS EI	Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory
IPMA	International Project Management Association
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
LEIQ	Lioussine Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire
MEIA	Multidimensional Emotional Intelligence Assessment
MEIS	Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale .
MSCEIT	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
PMBOK	Project Management Body Of Knowledge
SBESC	The Sullivan Brief Empathy Scale For Children
SEIS	The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale
SPSS	Statistical Programme For Social Sciences
SPTB	Sjöberg Personality Test Battery
SREIS	Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Scale -
STRSEIC	The Sullivan Teacher Rating Scale Of Emotional Intelligence For Children
SUEIT	Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test
TEII	Tapia Emotional Intelligence Inventory

TEIQUE	Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Version 1.50
TEIQUE	Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire -
TMMS	Trait Meta Mood Scale
WEIP	Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile
WLEIS	Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

Since many years, the word '*Emotions*' has gained a clear stand as one of the most influential powers to manipulate human way of thinking and behavior, still, the very purpose of emotions in human lives is controversial and questionable. Much of the literature and research support that moods, feelings, emotions, sentiments play a central role in cognitive processes and actions. It has been known from past studies that feelings have strong tendency to influence the opinions that people make. The literature explained below illustrates extensive knowledge which suggests that feelings/emotions operate multiple functions in human affairs.

However, through deep-rooted studies and research, it has been found that emotions carry a massive responsibility in human learning function and helps in getting an intuition of the coming adversities. Emotions, Feelings, Sentiments many times overpower the cognitive thinking process and an individual ends up taking unreasonable and sometimes illogical decisions.

However, human beings are still gifted with emotion regulation skill which is, of course, found rare. But nowadays, it is increasingly becoming important to control or rather manipulate one's emotions and use different emotional regulation tactics that would not harm personal and professional career of oneself or others.

1.2 HUMAN EMOTIONS

The word emotion has been frequently used in academics and routine life. It is widely used as a synonym for feelings, affect or temperament (Scherer & Martin, 2001). Emotions are perceived as one of the ingredients inherent in human occurrence; for instance, mood, social perspective, personal outlook and behavior traits (Scherer, 2005). All these mechanisms have supremacy to cause transformation in the human physiology and psychology.

Expressing and assessing emotions relates to self as well as others. People vary in terms of the level of which they are conscious of the emotions that they feel and the extent to which they can verbally and nonverbally express these emotions to others. Assessing emotions

precisely helps in making wise judgments and taking decisions. The correct conveying of emotion confirms that people are able to effectively communicate with others to achieve their aims and objectives. However, few people are unwilling or hesitant about expressing their emotions (King & Emmons, 1991). There are two categories of people: First, people with undecided minds who crave to express their emotions, strive to do it, but fall short to reach to others mind (Emmons & Colby, 1995). Whereas, the Second category of people do convey their emotions but then feel guilty after doing it. Both the categories of people are prone to nervousness, depression, psychiatric illness, and lack group support (Emmons & Colby, 1995)(Katz & Campbell, 1994)(King & Emmons, 1990). Broadly speaking, undecided expression of emotions can create an obstruction in building positive social relations in life.

Emotions are personal in characteristic, even though they are formed as a part of societal dealing (Hare, 1986). According to Fineman (1993), people are socially aware of what emotions will be suitable in a particular condition. Individuals generate meaning and significance about their own emotions and the emotions of others' based on the socially accepted principles of emotions in a specific culture. Lazarus(1991), stated that the type of emotion, its quality and strength reveal how an individual reacts and responds to the situations in an organizational setup.

Emotions are further categorized in two ways:

1.2.1 Categorizing Emotions

There are basically two categories of emotions: Negative Emotions and Positive Emotions. Negative emotions mainly arise when a person confronts a problem. Emotions are released when we encounter varieties of problems that vary from dangers of life-to death; for example, being bound by our opponent; situation arising the risk to survival such as inadequate food materials and other life supporting resources; the threat to individual's reputation or status for example being socially debarred or offended (Tooby & Cosmides, 1990). In every case, there is danger or risk that bears a cost if not effectively dealt with, and the associated emotion targets the individual's attention concerning possible solutions. On contrary, Positive emotions rarely crop up in reaction to a threatening situation. Emotions like pleasure, delight, and love help in resolving a different type of problem such as how to react when a condition has an unclear need. How to pretend when one is not in a position to understand what to do and what not to. In such circumstances, keeping positive emotions helps in solving the

problems. Therefore, instead of being tied to particular action trends, positive emotions will escort you to a wider and more adaptable range of ideas and actions (Fredrickson, 1998).

1.2.1.1 Positive Emotions

Positive emotions are critical to human behavior and acclimatize. They help in visualizing goals and accepting challenges, it broadens the thought process and makes analytic, positive emotions shelter our health by making us flexible, it builds sensitivity with others, sets a base for self-control, and lays the guideline for group behavior, social structure. (Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, & Perry, 2002)

1.2.1.2 Negative Emotions

Negative emotions on contrary, are stimulated by casual fear of the unfamiliarity or ignorance of other people's behavior, and a need to regulate or prevent them so as to avoid any damage caused (Watson & Clark, 1984). Alternatively, positive emotions are energized by an aspiration for unanimity and delightfulness. Positive emotions boost innovation; promote assistance and teamwork, and lowers antagonism against the organization and its employees. A negative influence directs more careful information gathering and hence proper verdict can be taken in difficult and complex circumstances. Unhappy individuals hunt for more information and fact finding and digest influential messages logically. Quite the opposite, people with a positive feeling are inclined to utilize simple heuristics and use shortcuts in decision making or make an evaluation based on stereotypes.

The discussion on emotions, categories of emotions, and their effect on human psychology is never ending. However, before learning more about emotions, one should first understand from where does emotions emerge? How do they origin? The answer to this is: There are two major perspectives on the origin of emotions. First, emotions are the outcome of innate or usual selection. They are progressive adaptations from developing psychology. Second, emotions are socially created and differ within crossways cultural borders. (Prinz, 2004)

1.2.2 Two Approaches of Emotions

1.2.2.1 Developmental Psychology

Psychologists believe that emotions are adaptations. They are psychological reactions that rise to answer different threats faced by our predecessors (Prinz, 2004). The most popular of them are the Big Six, referred in Paul Ekman's study on cultural identification of emotional

representation (Ekman, et.al, 1969). The Big Six emotions are happiness, sadness, fear, surprise, anger, and disgust. They are broadly accepted constituents for primary emotions. They are essential by two means: psychological and physiological. These emotions are inborn and possess no other sub emotions.(Prinz, 2004). Ekman (1999)then prolonged the number of basic emotions and incorporated others viz. amusement, contempt, contentment, embarrassment, excitement, guilt, pride in achievement, relief, satisfaction, sensory pleasure, and shame. Emotions are associated with the changes in body movements, and the brain configuration causing emotion is linked with how these emotions are perceived and it results in physiological reaction (Damasio A. R., 1999).

1.2.2.2 Social Constructionism

Opponents of developmental psychology claim that emotions are results of nurture rather than nature.(Ekman, et.al, 1969). They believe that emotions are formed socially. Prinz(Prinz, 2004)proposed that evolutionary psychology is identical to James Lange theory of the emotions, which suggests that emotions are short-lived insights of spontaneous, bodily reaction resulting from changing behavioral emotions. Critics (constructionist) deny this theory. They disagree stating that emotions are neither short-lived, nor uncontrolled, nor include bodily responses. This opinion is Averill (Averill, 1980) has accurately illustrated this opinion in his study. According to Averill, emotions are interpreted as cognitive evaluation coated in the behavioral element. The evaluation is an opinion about how one's circumstances affect on his/her interests

When we perform within our emotional structure, our conduct and decision-making process is guided by the culture we belong to. A sometimes supporter of social construction is secure their opinion by stating the illustrations of emotions that are not really linked with bodily changes. Some cases have already been stated. Higher emotions, such as guilt and love have no clear body reactions. Fear and anger have certain facial reactions, while there are no facial expressions of love or cringe of guilt. It appears as if these emotions can occur without any changes in the body. And that it last a length of time. One can be in love or can be stressed by guilt for long years. When one is feeling guilty, one compensates, by apologizing or improving his/her conduct. The relationship between emotions and the bodily changes is a key to the theory of emotions represented by William James (James, 1884) and Carl Lange (Lange, 1885). According to them, an emotion is an insight of standard changes in the body.

For example, when we experience fear, we feel our hearts beating fast, our lungs sniffing, and our muscles stressed.

The foundation for Constructionism theory is a cultural disparity. Emotions visibly differ across countries. We find emotion diversity in different cultures. For instance, Anger is considered as an uncontrollable wild basic (Briggs, 1970) In Malaysian culture, there are analogs of anger but emerges on different appearances. The Malay vernacular has no precise definition for “anger.” They use the word “marah,” which is related to gloominess or threatening, rather than anger (Goddard, 1996).

1.2.2.3 Hybrid Theories

There is an indication for evolutionary psychology and for Constructionism. Both theories carry good appreciation. However, there is a dilemma for the emotion researcher. How can a person decide between two fundamentally different approaches? One way out is to escape the approaches. Possibly both the methods are correct, but they may be relevant to distinctive emotions. We can segregate emotions and declare that some emotions are evolved and others are constructed.

This Hybrid theory has been fortified by Griffiths (Griffiths, 1997). He defends saying that emotions are not inborn or inherent. He described Ekman’s Big Six as influential scheme: modular, automatic, response patterns, possessing homologs in non-human animals. These can be learned in evolutionary provisions. Griffiths suggested that the evolutionary theory can be expanded to the range of emotions like guilt and jealousy, but, he claimed to say that, these are not components of phylogenetic ally primeval. Contradictory to evolved emotions, Griffiths permits a room for emotions that abide cultural characteristics.

The further hybrid theory was argued by Oatley and Johnson-Laird (Oatley & Johnson-Laird, 1987). They started with a division of Ekman’s Big Six (dropping off surprise) and claimed that they were very basic and fundamental. They say each emotion mentioned in this list, can be acknowledged with a different form of informational handing, and developed into our cognitive structure. Other emotions are a cognitive explanation. They are primary emotions in addition to appraisal judgments. The third argument for a hybrid approach is linked to the

second. That is, if some emotions are socially constructed and some are evolved, one needs to define which emotions are which. The problem is that evolutionary psychologists and social constructionists repeatedly try to validate the almost similar emotions. For an instant, both theories attempt to justify love and anger. It would be simple to accept a hybrid approach if there is a transparent indication of which emotions are socially created and which is physically created. If the difference is undefined, the objective for accepting a hybrid theory vanishes (Prinz, 2004).

1.1.3 Emotional Knowledge

Despite a prolonged discussion about the origin of human emotions, and their significant effect on individual behavior, we can impart that emotions play a crucial role in one's life. Though, there are some individuals who lack emotional knowledge. That is, they are ignorant about their own emotions and even though they experience, they cannot trigger the motives of such emotions and feel inept to cope up with them. Emotional knowledge is about being aware of both the sources that arouse emotions and the outcomes that result from these emotions and how they develop and change eventually. Different people have a different level of knowledge and insight of how different circumstances, occasions, people, and other rationale produce emotions. Emotional knowledge has two aspects: time of occurrence and the depth of expression. The first aspect time of occurrence is quantitative nature and it can be computed in a psychology laboratory. The second aspect of the depth of expression is qualitative one and its evaluation is quite difficult.(Bratianu & Orzea, 2009)

1.3 ROLE OF EMOTIONS

Years back when the subject psychology was developed, scholars like Aristotle and Darwin already credited the crucial role of emotions in social dealings(VanKleef, 2009). Emotions reveal the attributes of our lives. Paul Ekman in his book *Emotions Revealed* proposed that Emotions appear in all our affiliations whether it's the workplace, or companionship, or with family members, or it is with our partners; they have the power to enlighten our lives, as well as being responsible for ruining it. (Ekman P. , 2003). We become feeble and do not have much control over what makes us emotional, but this is workable, by making few modifications in what sources our emotions and how do we react when we become emotional.

The opinion that our behavior is inspired by others' emotional representation is very old (Frijda, 1986). However, no organized research work was carried out. Later on, the primal work by Klinnert et.al (1983) on emotional expression in parent-child interactions and personal relationships by Clark & Taraban (1991) instigated further study in the field and recently there has been a rise in research on the social consequences of emotions in other spheres, like conflict, negotiation, and leadership. Observers can learn about other's sentiments, moods, and outlooks by looking on to their emotional exhibition (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Such assumption may consecutively impact the observer's conduct.

1.3.1 Role of Emotions in Learning

Learning and reaching the top have become very crucial for today's survival. This means that they should be one of the causes of emotion, as by definition; emotions are the result of actions and condition. Education plays a special role in building human self-management. Therefore, teachers' and students' positive emotion collectively is fundamental to achieving educational targets. Academic learning and success can hence be supposed to generate a multiplicity of emotions, including both negative and positive emotions, work-related and self- allied and social emotions. There is strong proof that inspiration linking to positive emotions has been deteriorating during the school days. The examples supporting this evidence are falling an average of students level, reducing academic abilities, interest in academic subject matters, and intrinsic motivation (Pekrun & Fend, 1991)(Gottfried et. al., 2001) to which extent do students, nevertheless, experience positive emotions?

1.3.2 Role of Emotions in leadership

Emotions/feelings have an imperative role in leadership. George and Bettenhausen (1990) and George (1995) examined that a leaders' optimistic attitude induces leadership effectiveness in the organization. But negative emotions, on contrary, promote efficient and vigilant information processing (Sinclair, 1988)(Sinclair & Mark, 1992) and can be beneficial to leaders when they are in dilemma involving high risk. There are situations where a leader's unusual moods and emotions shackle the decision making, impacting the organization working. Managers, who encounter anger emotions often, might struggle in cultivating good

relationships with their co-workers, resulting in distrust (Jones & George, 1998). Likewise, a leader who enforces positive emotions at the workplace may fall short in detecting the underperformers. In the study on leadership, the emphasis is made on the leaders' responsibility to create 'emotional arousal states' in others. Most of the methods, behaviors with emotional inference, like offering assistance, building confidence, demonstrating moral veracity, imparting safety environment, nurturing teamwork, promoting intellectual actions, promoting organizational learning, and performing counseling are advocated (Leithwood et al, 1999). The leaders implying these characteristics are valued by all leadership styles and are considered as "charismatic leaders". These proficiencies facilitate friendly, sympathetic, trust conduct with associates; hence a leader is expected to be very empathic, active listener and should acquire other interpersonal expertise. The stress is mostly on the emotions that the leader incite in others in the course of fabricating dynamic behavior amongst employees

1.3.3 Role of Emotions in Advertisements

Emotional advertisements possess a considerable influence on consumer's approach and purchase behavior. (Patti, 2000). Advertisers and marketers firmly believe that advertising should and must provoke some emotions in the minds of viewers to be successful (Mehta & Scott, 2006). Emotional or "feeling" advertisements have gained a significant interest in consumer behavior studies over last ten years. A research on consumers has revealed that emotions in advertisements have a crucial role in the decision-making process. To manage their emotions (*which is provoked through advertisements*), individuals may end up by consuming or purchasing the products/services (Kemp, Bui, & Chapa, 2012). Till date, emotions in advertisements and their influence on purchase behavior have been analyzed through different perspectives. Though, research has been restricted to the manner by which people use consumption to *manage* their emotions (O'Neill & Lambert, 2001) (Janssens & DePelsmacker, 2005)

1.4 EMOTIONS AND WORK PLACE

Different professions demand different types and levels of emotional competence. For example, to achieve sales targets, one needs to be more *empathic* to figure out the mood of the consumer and should possess the great *interpersonal skill* to realize when to go for a product offering and when to remain silent. Apart from sales, success in painting or sports or

any other career calls for more *self-discipline behavior* and *motivation*. Goleman in his book wrote, “Even when you work in a solitary setting, how well you work has a lot to do with how well you discipline and motivate yourself” (Goleman D. , 1998) (Murray, 1998). Thus, emotional competence influences about everything you do at work.

In Human Resource Development, the study of emotion is concentrated on the aspects of job satisfaction, training effect, and employee stress. Earlier, emotions were overlooked in the study of Organizational Behavior (Arvey, Renz, & Watson, 1998)(Putnam & Mumby, 1993). However, researchs focusing on the role of emotions in the workplaces have stated that organizations are “emotional places” (Armstrong, 2000), “incubators of emotions” (Muchinsky, 2000) or “emotional arenas” (Fineman, 2000)and it created mistrust and disturbances (French, 2001). The exploration of emotions at workplaces is a fresh research topic in organizational behavior. But what was undiscovered were the particular types of emotions that employees experience at the workplace; the correlation between the workplace, job type, position handled and the emotions underwent; the association of emotions to a person’s inspiration, social interaction, cognitive and professional work, and the emerging stress and burn-out.

Emotions affect organizational behavior in various ways. There can be direct as well as indirect effect. For instance, the change in individual behavior caused by different emotions is a direct impact and the emotions that affect the job performance, individual working are indirect effects of emotions. Frightening reactions of others can deepen, whereas peaceful, comforting behaviors of people lessen, the intensity of the emotional reaction. Therefore, the emotions of managers are of supreme importance. Totterdell and Holman (2003) tried to establish a correlation between the team members’ temperament and the leader-to-follower relation.

Previous researches on role conflict, including emotional roles, demonstrated raise in work pressure and a reducing job contentment and trust in the company (Cox(Cox, 1978). Several physiological studies on emotional reaction signify that emotions at a job may negatively affect the physiological health of an individual—for instance, weakening of immune system and disorders like arteriosclerosis, which may impact the organization functioning.

Alike any other things dispersed in the company, emotions have a propensity to multiply their effects: positive emotions provide power to collect resources from many areas, while negative emotions in one sphere will frequently work to protect the resources within (Turner, 2010). *The positive effects or favorable effects* of promoting the articulation of emotions at job are: It facilitates Self-Perception; provides motivating feedback; helps in enhancing intellectual as well as emotional abilities; it develops and sustains good relationships in the organization, last but not the least it leaves an optimistic impact on enthusiasm, faithfulness, affiliation and commitment towards the organizations. However, according to Huy (2011), many leaders still think that emotional detachment and concentrating on organizational tasks are the excellent means to deal with the emotional state of affairs. And thus, they prevent discussion on emotions at the workplace and understanding their reasons.

The probable negative effects of incapability to display emotions (especially unlikeable ones, which generate stress, trauma, anxiety etc) can be perceived by stressful work environment; the mutilation of the workers' psychological abilities; the infringement of their social and emotional capability; the disappointment due instant feedback; the deteriorating of job innovativeness etc. Although, every organization endeavors to reduce employees negative perception such as physical/oral assault at the job place, antagonism, fear, negative mindset towards the management, opposition to change, disruption, increasing mistrust, losing self-confidence, pessimistic about subordinates, rising employee disputes, deteriorating employment skills, problems of labor union may lead to aggression and violent behavior in the organization. As far as the relationship between the emotions felt at workplace, and their impact on human behaviors are related, Van Katwyk et al. (2000) have discovered remarkable relationship between negative emotions suffered inside the organization and a sequence of causes aroused such as emerging stress, increased work load, probable clashes, organizational constraints. Judge et al. (2006) have studied an association between antagonisms, organizational approach and digress in the outlook in the role of emotions, like the one given by the theory of emotional actions and discovered that interpersonal fairness and aggression are major projecting aspects of unusual behavior within the organization.

1.5 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Daniel Goleman (Goleman D. , 1995) defined emotional competence as “a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work”. In

organizations, the importance of Emotional Competence (EC) is increasing considerably in terms of its development and development of employees. EC facilitates proper understanding and measuring people's behavior. It assists in better management styles, forming attitudes and improving interpersonal skills. In general, emotional quotient has a key role in all facets of an organization: beginning from human resources planning, to job profiling, to recruitment interviewing and selection, from management development to customer relations and customer service, etc.

Emotional competence is marked as a “working self”; that is, a mode of “being in the world” with distinct abilities that control emotions. An individual should be aware of his emotions and the means to regulate his emotions in social settings. There are two reasons which emphasize that a person should be very active and careful about himself and his display of emotions. First, emotion management in society or publicly is filled with doubts and vagueness i.e., it is impossible and impractical to find a suitable and generalized emotion coping approach for every circumstance (Weigert, 1991); (Erickson, 1997) and Second, managing emotion has individual inconsistency i.e. an individual may react genuinely in some situations, but his emotions may vary one's in other situations (King & Emmons, 1990) (Erickson, 1997). The literature by Lazarus (Lazarus S., Emotion and Adaptation, 1991), emphasize that emotional control is characterized as a person's ability to manage one's subjective experience of emotion and the ability to manage one's expression of emotion in communicative aspect. Huy (Huy, 1999) and Saarni (1999) suggest that a person's ability to experience, manage and direct emotions within social condition should have a sense of suitability and purpose. According to Saarni, emotional competence encompasses various skills, that are experienced through a lifetime and are crucial for effective interpersonal communication and dealings (Saarni, 1999) (Miller and Sarah, 2006).

Emotional Competence is cognitive and developmental. It is realistic and logical on the basis that work performance can be enhanced when workers' emotional competence will be sharpened. Carson et. al. (2002). Saarni (1999) described EC as the expression of self-efficiency in emotion-demanding social dealings and has constructed a model of EC that identifies the skills and elements bestowing an adult emotional reaction that sustains a person's social objectives.

Saarni (Saarni, 1999) identified eight skills that form EC: (1) awareness of one's emotional state; (2) ability to discern others' emotions; (3) ability to describe emotions; (4) capacity to empathize with other's emotional experiences; (5) ability to realize the difference between inner emotional states and outward expression; (6) capacity for adaptive coping with aversive emotions; (7) awareness of the role of emotions in the structure of relationships; and (8) the capacity for emotional self-efficacy. EC is an ability which helps in dealing with one's emotions, which is believed to be a crucial factor for conciliation in social interactions. She elucidated how people learn to adjust and manage their emotion to their social surroundings, for examples: family, friends, relatives and that the person is perceived as preserving his/ her individualism but simultaneously competent of managing different emotionally difficult circumstances in harmony within the regulations of social settings. As per Spencer et.al (1997), there are six emotional competencies: influencing capabilities, group leadership, organizational awareness, self-confidence, achievement drive, and leadership. Many investigations have been performed to identify the effect of EC of salespeople on their customer interface. Tsai(2001)pointed out that salespeople's positive emotional expressions would increase customer readiness to revisit the store and spread positive feedback to others. Research by Sutton and Rafaeli(1988)uncovered a surprising opinion revealing that negative unfriendly relationship amongst employees' exhibited positive emotions and increased store sales. Some studies reveal those store managers who were able to manage stress through EC, were the most successful ones. Moreover, laughter assists as a stress reliever and also develops social relations (Lusch & Serpkeuci, 1990); and (Keltner & Bonanno, 1997).

There is a correlation between salespersons' characteristics and consumers' emotions on purchase behavior that involves customer/salesperson interface. Lee (2004) established various factors concerning emotional constructs and its impact on the correlation requires further attention. The further literature review exposed that the sales employees recruited on the basis of their EC were able to finish their work by 90% than those employed by other measures and had reduced the dropout rate by a half in their first year. Self-confidence, instigation, empathy and positive attitude are emotional skills that result in improved efficiency (Seligman, 1990)(Goleman D. , 1998)

Worldwide research from global leading organizations validates that emotional competencies, in reality, affect the bottom line employees (Spencer et.al. (1997); (Boyatzis, 1999). (Koman& Wolff, 2008).An individual's emotional competencies determine his managerial

leadership style (Joseph, 2003). Learning emotional competencies i.e. how to be a good listener and how one should solve problems at his/her own has to fetch (Walter V Clarke Associates (1996). The US Air Force found that the most triumphant employees achieved radically higher at emotional intelligence competencies of assertiveness, empathy, happiness, and emotional Self-Perception (Cherniss, 1999). Luskin *et al.* (2005) have measured the effect of EC/forgiveness training on sales and quality of life. The emotional honesty, self-confidence, and emotional resilience can promote superior performance, if positive feedback is delivered in an informative manner, and can mitigate the adverse effects of negative feedback. Salespeople manage their emotions in an attempt to develop a new and better self, which in turn can manage emotions (Abraham, R, 2004); and (Schweingruber & Berns, 2005)

There are varieties of emotional competencies that different people inherent. Each competency weighs significantly. The competencies like emotional consciousness, accurate self-evaluation, and self-assurance are seen as a road map guiding to make required modification on the job, coping with uncontrolled emotion, encouraging oneself, and evaluating others' emotions, and thus improving the social dexterity to lead and inspire. Other competencies like Self-control, resilience, and integrity can be associated with work performance. Self-control deals with the efficient managing of distracting and demoralizing emotions and safeguarding oneself from negative emotions. Resilience is a foundation of self-control. It controls the fuming reactions that occur when employees are faced with the downbeats of corporate culture which leads to holding back their individual needs for organizational objectives (Abraham, 2004).

The question arises that how do emotionally self-controlled and resilient employees confronted with increasing job anxiety perform so well and earn huge salaries and up gradation? The Equity theory (Mowdy, 1991) upholds that it is the equality that motivates and encourages them. Workers calculate the relationship between the rewards that the organization offers and the hard work they put into their job. Under-reward creates a displeasing emotional reaction, which calls for some radical steps to lessen the discrepancy. These steps may involve weakening job inputs, mentally re-enacting efforts to balance the work effort and rewards, restricting extra unpaid services which include helping newly recruited employees, commencing new tasks, or can extend up to termination from the organization (Janssen, 2001) all of which can terribly affect performances. The bottom line of

the matter is that under rewards are emotional in character and they raise emotional retort that forces to adjust the behavior/nature. In such situation, having emotional resilience or emotional flexibility can strengthen the capacity to manage with under reward strain. Emotionally resilient employees are adaptable to leave problems aside rather than finding faults in others. These employees shift their interest to more optimistic and encouraging activities for survival. They believe in a collaborative discussion with their superiors, solving queries with the management relating the under rewards payment issues.

Emotional competence has some similarities to emotional homeostasis which reveals “reference goals pertaining to ideal frequencies, intensities, or duration of experiential, expressive, or physiological channels of emotional responses” (Bonanno, 2001, p. 256). These reference goals operate as individual values that lead emotional behavior and demonstrate honesty and kindness (Bonanno, 2001, p. 257). Hence, emotional competence can be identified as a skill to build “ideal emotional selves” that direct self-control (Bonanno, 2001, p. 258). Emotional competence furthermore is closely related with Mumby and Putnam’s (1992) implication of a feminist attempt to emotions in organizations, that claim that people do not practice set of laws to express their feelings but try to manage them by displaying ambiguous emotional dexterity: “Under norms of bounded emotionality, individuals choose appropriate organizational actions based on a system of tolerance and ambiguity rather than a system of reducing ambiguity through satisfying” (Mumby & Putnam, 1992, pp. 474-475)

Performance perks rewarded to top level managers were largely connected with their greater level of EC and not the average or lower scale (McClelland, 1999). Managers with good self-control and emotional awareness displayed motivational leadership qualities in their group, and these motivated groups earned more profits. The organizations improved their results in terms of Quantitative such as improved sales performance and reduced absenteeism, and Qualitative terms, such as self-perception and 360-degree behavior ratings. Moreover, deficiency in EC involves a feeling of aggression, antagonism, and stress which leads to disorders like cardiovascular and hypertension.

In cosmetics company L'Oreal, during the recruitment interview for new sales employees, candidates were asked to create several positive and negative situations, and then to settle them. The responses then were evaluated based on their level of emotional competencies, and the candidates achieving the highest score were selected. The new recruits selected on higher emotional competency were expected to make a total of \$2,558,360 more revenue

annually than other employees who were hired by company's old recruitment pattern of selection on the basis of better logical reasoning and sound technical know-how (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

From the above results and many others cases, the picture is clear to understand why more than \$1 billion a year is expended countrywide on EC education and that is why training is imparted from the very initial stage i.e. courses for developing EC have been included in the curriculum of MBA program. Developing EC will consistently result in an amplifying objective and subjective organizational performance. According to Goldman and Cherniss (2001, p.48) increased EC contributes between 19 and 48 percent of financial value in non-sales jobs and results in 48 to 120 percent increased output in sales jobs.

Successful leaders are charismatic, competent, gifted with unselfishness, are strong-minded, visionary, possess logical reasoning, motivating, and are committed to the progress of their cohorts (Bass, 1990); (Bennis, 1989); (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Each of these traits has a hint of certain emotional competencies that Self-Perception confer willpower and foresightedness. The correlation between Self-Perception and aim of life is that a self-aware leader has a strong determination in life, which consecutively inspires employees to surpass their potential ability. Good mood is contagious in nature; it encourages positive influence on subordinates and stirs new ideas and actions. Whereas, empathy serves as an individuation as the leader is aware of the worker's personal desire for growth.

1.6 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The word '*intelligence*' is largely connected with thinking ability (cognitive) that discriminates an individual from another. A person scoring low on the scale of cognitive intelligence (also known as an intelligent quotient) is considered to be a low achiever, dull, lethargic and dim-witted. However, apart from cognitive intelligence, psychologists have unearthed many more areas of intelligence, which include: fluid intelligence, crystallized intelligence, social intelligence, emotional intelligence, spiritual intelligence, financial intelligence etc. which are all indicators of adjustment. (Animasahun, R., 2003)(Salovey & Mayer, 1990)(Goleman D, 1996)(Zohar & Marshall, 2000)

Emotional intelligence is the ability to use emotions thoughtfully (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000). Emotional intelligence endures a significant influence on self-advancement of the leader as well as his management skills. Activities that encourage

emotional intelligence bring positive vibes that can be perceived and measured by increased work efficiency. It helps in creating a positive attitude and developing emotional loyalty amongst employees. After a length of time, this fortifies company's ethnicity and enlarges its flexibility in the long term which augments higher competitive gain in the market. Sympathetic interaction among the managers and subordinates creates a trustful environment in the organization that channelizes teamwork. Synergy encourages employees' creative talent, which is necessary for generating novel outcomes and developing unique responses to the growing problems of the organization and society. (Lazovic, 2012)

Goleman et al. (2002, p. 39) affirmed that employees working under the emotionally intelligent managers furnish cooperation from one other. Their involvement is apparent in sharing ideas, disclosing information, and accepting additional tasks and working jointly within groups. A leader with high emotional intelligence will be capable to build up and motivate emotionally intelligent groups/teams. Goleman et al. (2002, p. 199) illustrated that group of emotionally intelligent individuals resemble the similar features as individuals, as EI qualities are unified and accumulated in a team. Goleman et al. (2002, p. 210) signified three advantages in building an emotionally intelligent organization. First, a friendly conversation and sincere feedback will generate new, strong relationship between subordinates. Second, new progression will engender new traditions: when employees observe the behavioral change in top level managers, they are prone to express their wants and desires and show high respect towards their colleagues, as they try to duplicate the conduct from their superiors. And lastly, if a manager is someone whom people honor and respect, all human resources, particularly those at lower positions, are keener to take risks.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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2.1 REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO EMOTIONS AND EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

For over past 30 years, business and commerce have been employing competency models to recruit employees. The trend to use competency-based approaches in education and training, assessment and development of workers has practiced high growth. With the shifting of the workforce and retirement of the baby boomers, models are being used for succession planning in the corporate. Diverse literature over the last decade has been frequently unsuccessful to decide on how emotional abilities should be categorized, theorized or assessed (Locke E. A., 2005)

Nevertheless, in the last few decades, emotions have begun to be acceptable within western psychology both as inherent to logical as well as moral proceedings. Studies on the biology of the brain have recognized, that the human brain is not capable of making ‘rational’ decisions without orientation to its emotional reaction (Turner & Stets, 2005, p. 22).

Emotional Competence is a vigorous structure inspired by varied biological, psychological, and social factors. More studies have been performed on emotional competence and it was discovered to be emerging as a significant factor in the forecasting personal, educational and professional achievement. Studies on emotional competence detailing various psychosocial associations have been identified in many fields. Empirical studies exploring the link of emotional competence with several psychological and psychosocial aspects were stated by some researchers and concurrently establishing the relevance of emotional competence and its favorable results with notable contribution in the areas of interpersonal dealings, work achievement and personal life, handling job-related stress, academic success, developing personality, augmenting performance and more constructive behaviors.

For any success at the workplace, an employee needs to perform effectively and therefore emotional intelligence abilities are required by the employee. The employees who have the ability to manage their emotions in an effective way are more successful on the job. Models of emotional intelligence have been developed on three aspects that are, ability, traits, and combination of ability and traits called as a mixed model of emotional intelligence. (Kulkarni, Janakiram, & Kumar, 2009)

2.2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON VARIOUS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODELS OF MEASUREMENT

Traits model of emotional intelligence viewed emotional intelligence and included non-cognitive competencies such as self-esteem, self-actualization, general mood, and general well-being. As would be expected, measures based on trait approaches to emotional intelligence do not correlate highly with measures of intelligence. However, they strongly correlate with personality measures, leading researchers to refer to this approach as emotional intelligence -as-personality. Mixed Model of emotional intelligence is a combination of ability model and traits model of emotional intelligence. The mixed model denotes the idea that emotional intelligence assesses aspects of personality and cognitive intelligence in addition to the emotional intelligence. (Schutle, 2006).

Ability model of emotional intelligence described emotional intelligence as the “ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is an ability-based test designed to measure the four branches of the EI model of Mayer and Salovey. MSCEIT was developed from an intelligence-testing tradition formed by the emerging scientific understanding of emotions and their function and from the first published ability measure specifically intended to assess emotional intelligence, namely Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). Table 2.1 shows Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test - Scales*

Table 2.1 Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test - Scales*

Perceiving Emotions	The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others as well as in objects, art, stories, music, and other stimuli
Facilitating Thought	The ability to generate, use, and feel emotion as necessary to communicate feelings or employ them in other cognitive processes
Understanding Emotions	The ability to understand emotional information, to understand how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions, and to appreciate such emotional

	meanings
Managing Emotions	The ability to be open to feelings, and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth

Source: “Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), by J. D. Mayer, P. Salovey, and D. R. Caruso, 2002, Toronto, Ontario: Multi-Health Systems, Inc.

Trait emotional intelligence (EI) is a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007) and is typically accessed via self-report questionnaire. An abundance of trait EI measures now exists, with their validity being subjected to much empirical scrutiny (Petrides, Pe´rez-Gonza´lez, & Furnham, 2007); (Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003). These validation studies, covering the associations of trait EI measures with processing style and subjective well-being (Schutte et al., 2010), stress and coping (Austin, Saklofske, & Mastoras, 2010), problem behaviors, coping and academic success in adolescence (Downey, Johnston, Hansen, Birney, & Stough, 2010; Hogan et al., 2010), and also EI profiles of university students (Sa´nchez-Ruiz, Pe´rez-Gonza´lez, & Petrides, 2010). Few studies, however, have compared the validity of multiple trait EI measures within one study (although some do exist e.g., Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck, 2005; Brackett & Mayer, 2003). This hinders conclusions regarding the validity of individual EI instruments due to methodological variation.

There are three trait EI measures: the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schutte et al., 1998), the Multidimensional Emotional Intelligence Assessment (MEIA) (Tett, Fox, & Wang, 2005), and the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire version 1.50 (TEIQue) (Petrides, 2009). The SEIS is one of the most widely used trait EI measures based on the earlier ability model of EI (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and some research supports the assessment of four facets: Self-confidence/mood regulation, appraisal of emotions, social skills, and utilisation of emotion (e.g., Saklofske et al., 2003). The MEIA (Tett et al., 2005) targets all facets outlined in the Salovey and Mayer (1990) model. Ten subscales load on three broader factors: (a) self orientation, consisting of motivating emotions, recognition of emotion in the self, regulation of emotion in the self and intuition versus reason; (b) emotional sharing, consisting of nonverbal emotional expression, empathy and mood redirected attention; and (c) other orientation, consisting of creative thinking, recognition of emotion in others and regulation of emotion in others. The TEIQue (Petrides, 2009) is a

broadly defined comprehensive measure that covers all facets of trait EI as postulated by the Petrides and Furnham (2001) framework. The TEIQue includes four compound scales that encompass 15 subscales: (a) well-being: happiness, Self-confidence and self-esteem; (b) self-control: control/emotion regulation, stress management and impulsiveness (low); (c) emotional ability: emotion expression, empathy, emotion perception (self and others) and relationship skills; and (d) sociability: social competence, assertiveness and emotion management (others). Self-motivation and adaptability do not belong to any of the four factors. From the perspective of trait EI theory, the three measures should produce compatible findings (Petrides, Pe´rez-Gonza´lez, et al., 2007), irrespective of the underlying model. Validity estimates, however, may be superior for the TEIQue because the SEIS and MEIA assess a specific and limited set of trait EI facets. There may be a similarity in results for the latter two measures given the same underlying model, which begs the question of which, if any, is a superior measure.

Daniel Goleman developed a mixed model of emotional intelligence and focused on the abilities, which include self-control, zeal, and persistence and the ability to motivate oneself. Major areas are (1) knowing one's emotions (2) Management of emotions (3) Motivating oneself (4) Recognizing emotions(5) Handling relationship. (R. Sternberg, 2000). The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) 2.0 is a 360-degree tool designed to assess the emotional and social competencies of individuals in organizations. The test is based on emotional competencies identified by Dr. Daniel Goleman in *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998). The ECI measures 18 competencies organized into four clusters: Self-Perception, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management. The below Table 2.2 shows Daniel Goleman’s Emotional Competence Inventory 2.0 - Scales

Table 2.2 Daniel Goleman’s Emotional Competence Inventory 2.0 - Scales

<p>Self-Perception</p> <p>(Ability to know one's internal states, preferences, resources, and intuitions.)</p>	<p>Emotional Awareness: Recognizing one's emotions and their effects</p> <p>Accurate Self-Assessment: Knowing one's strengths and limits</p> <p>Self-Confidence: A strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities</p>
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<p style="text-align: center;">Self-Management</p> <p style="text-align: center;">(Refers to managing ones' internal states, impulses, and resources.)</p>	<p>Emotional Self-Control: Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check</p> <p>Transparency: Maintaining integrity, acting congruently with one’s values</p> <p>Adaptability: Flexibility in handling change</p> <p>Achievement: Striving to improve or meeting a standard of excellence</p> <p>Initiative: Readiness to act on opportunities</p> <p>Self-confidence: Persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Social Awareness</p> <p style="text-align: center;">(Refers to how people handle relationships and awareness of others’ feelings, needs, and concerns.)</p>	<p>Empathy: Sensing others' feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns</p> <p>Organizational Awareness: Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships</p> <p>Service Orientation: Anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers' needs</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Relationship Management</p> <p style="text-align: center;">(Concerns the skill or adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others.)</p>	<p>Developing Others: Sensing others' development needs and bolstering their abilities</p> <p>Inspirational Leadership: Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups</p> <p>Change Catalyst: Initiating or managing change</p> <p>Influence: Wielding effective tactics for persuasion</p> <p>Conflict Management: Negotiating and resolving disagreements</p> <p>Teamwork & Collaboration: Working with</p>

	others toward shared goals. Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.
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Source: Wolff Steven, Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) Technical Manual, Hay Group, November 2005

In the year 2006, Reuven Bar-On developed a mixed model of emotional intelligence is an array of non- cognitive capabilities competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressure. Major areas are intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, stress management and general mood. The explanation is given in below Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Bar-On EQ-I Composite Scales and Subscales

<p>Intrapersonal Skills (Self-Perception and self-expression)</p>	<p>Self-Regard: To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself</p> <p>Emotional Self-Perception: To be aware of and understand one’s emotions</p> <p>Assertiveness: To effectively and constructively express one’s emotions and oneself</p> <p>Independence: To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others</p> <p>Self-Actualization: To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one’s potential</p>
<p>Interpersonal Skills (social awareness and interpersonal relationship)</p>	<p>Empathy: To be aware of and understand how others feel</p> <p>Social Responsibility: To identify with one’s social group and cooperate with others</p> <p>Interpersonal Relationship: To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others</p>
<p>Stress Management Skills (emotional management and regulation)</p>	<p>Stress Tolerance: To effectively and constructively manage emotions</p> <p>Impulse Control: To effectively and constructively control emotions</p>

<p style="text-align: center;">Adaptability Skills (change management)</p>	<p>Reality-Testing: To objectively validate one’s feelings and thinking with external reality</p> <p>Flexibility: To adapt and adjust one’s feelings and thinking to new situations</p> <p>Problem-Solving: To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">General Mood (self-motivation)</p>	<p>Self-confidence: To be positive and look at the brighter side of life</p> <p>Happiness: To feel content with oneself, others and life in general</p>

Source: Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). *Psicothema, 18, supl., 13-25.*

Another trait ability measure was developed by K. V. Petrides in 2009 .known as the Trait Emotional Intelligence which is an integral part of a scientific research program. trait EI is "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality. This definition of EI encompasses behavioral dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured by self report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait EI should be investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy. The below Table 2.4 shows the Sampling Domain of Trait EI in Adults.

Table 2.4 The Sampling Domain Of Trait EI in Adults

Adaptability	Flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions.
Assertiveness	Forthright, Frank, and willing to stand up for their rights
Emotion expression	Capable of communicating their feelings to Others.
Emotion management (others)	Capable of influencing other people ’ s feelings.
Emotion perception (self and others)	Clear about their own and other people ’ s feelings.

Emotion regulation	Capable of controlling their emotions.
Impulsiveness (low)	Reflective and less likely to give in to their urges.
Relationships	Capable of maintaining fulfilling personal relationships.
Self – esteem	Successful and self - confident.
Self - motivation	Driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity.
Social awareness	Accomplished networkers with superior social Skills.
Stress management	Capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress.
Trait empathy	Capable of taking someone else’ s perspective.
Trait happiness	Cheerful and satisfied with their lives.
Trait Self-confidence	Confident and likely to “ look on the bright side ” of life.

Source: Petrides, K.V., Pita, R., Kokkinaki, F. (2007). *The location of trait emotional intelligence in personality factor space.* *British Journal of Psychology*, 98, 273-289.

Later, Gilles Gignac developed Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory in the year 2010. The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Genos EI) is a 360-degree measure of emotionally intelligent workplace behavior. It measures how often individuals display emotionally intelligent workplace behavior according to a taxonomic seven-factor model of emotional intelligence identified by Dr. Benjamin Palmer and Professor Con Stough from Swinburne University. The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Genos EI) is identical to and often referred to, as the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (or SUEIT).The below Table 2.5 shows The Genos Model of EI.

Table 2.5 The Genos Model Of EI

Emotional Self-Perception	The skill of perceiving and understanding one's own emotions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The capacity to identify and understand the impact one's own feelings is having on thoughts, decisions, behavior, and performance at work • Greater Self-Perception
Emotional Expression	The skill of effectively expressing one's own emotions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating greater understanding amongst colleagues about yourself • Creating trust and perceptions of genuineness amongst colleagues
Emotional Awareness of Others	The skill of perceiving and understanding others' emotions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater understanding of others, how to engage, respond, motivate and connect with them • Interpersonal effectiveness
Emotional Reasoning	The skill of utilizing emotional information in decision-making.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhanced decision-making where more information is considered in the process • Greater buy-in from others into decisions that are made
Emotional Self-Management	The skill of effectively managing one's own emotions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved job satisfaction and engagement • Improved ability to cope with high work demands • Greater interpersonal effectiveness • Enhanced productivity and performance
Emotional Management of Others	The skill of influencing the moods and emotions of others.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The capacity to generate greater productivity and performance from others • The capacity to generate a positive and satisfying work environment for others • The capacity to effectively deal with workplace conflict
Emotional Self-Control	The skill of effectively controlling strong emotions experienced.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional well-being • The capacity to think clearly in stressful situations • The capacity to deal effectively with situations that cause strong emotions

Source: Gilles E. Gignac, 2010, *Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory, Technical Manual (2nd Edition)*

The above is the Emotional Intelligence models developed by various researchers which are mostly used in the organizations.

An endeavor to study emotional competence (Saarni, 1999), was to elucidate how individuals are trained to flexibly use emotion management aptitude to their social surroundings that are family, friends, relatives or schools in such a way that the person maintains his own individuality as well as competent of treating diverse emotionally demanding state of affairs. Emotional competence is marked as a “working self”; that is, a mode of “being in the world” with diverse abilities that help to manage emotions. A working self is required because emotion management within social situations carries two aspects, first, it is filled with doubts and vagueness (e.g., it is not possible to find an appropriate and/or universal coping strategy for every situation) ((Weigert, 1991)(Erickson, 1997);) and Second; it holds personal contradiction (that is one may behave genuinely in some situations, yet can change his/her emotions in other situations (King & Emmons, 1990)(Erickson, 1997) . The degree to which people accomplish an emotional working self, they can more confidently tackle emotional demanding situations and achieve success and become esteemed members of a social community (Saarni C. , 1999) If people are unable to build rational self, then there is a threat of becoming a “protean self”, meaning, a disintegrated, division of self which “is radically bereft of coherence and continuity, an extreme expression of dissociation” (Lifton, 1993, p. 202); (Emmons, 1999), make similar points. As Greenberg, Weinstein, and Sweeney (2001, p. 49) observed about salespeople: “As we look at their ability to sell, we have to look at how much or how little of each quality they possess and how these qualities integrate with the strengths of their other qualities.”

Illustrating upon Saarni’s (1999; 2000) wide-ranging series of study in developmental psychology, in addition to the current investigation on self-control (e.g., Bonanno, 2001) and ethical psychology (Dillon, 1995). They have determined seven emotional proficiencies needs to be included for attaining emotional competence: perspective taking, tactical self-presentation of emotions, convincing targets of communication that one’s emotional reactions are genuine and not expedient, not feeling guilty when using emotions tactically, developing faithfulness, building an ironic outlook, and integrating person’s ethical rules into self-controlled emotions. Nonetheless, in an organization, emotionally competent employees intentionally or enthusiastically try to specialize and integrate them in such a manner that

they can cope with complicated or regular emotion loaded circumstances in their career. They do this in a way that they articulate their own individualism and also are seemed their actions to be suitable to organizational, plus their own, standards and goals (e.g., Erickson, 1997). For situations where management cannot lay down rules for emotional behaviors of their human resources, individuals should have the ability to display matured emotional conduct (Mumby & Putnam, 1992). As employees try to incorporate the above cited emotional aptitudes, it is to be understood that they will attain assimilation at a different level and scales depending on their personal grabbing skills. Inhabitants low in their capacity to incorporate the emotional dexterity will probably cope less than the people having high abilities, but the motif of abilities can vary, based on the individual and the condition.

In concurrence with the systematized approach of organizational behavior (Meyer, Tsui, & Hinings, 1993) the researchers infer that amalgamation of the seven emotional skills will demonstrate few discrete patterns. For instance, the study suggests that a lack of irony restricts individual's capacity to develop and fine-tune themselves in difficult circumstances (Hatch, 1997, p. 282). However, a single skill in separate cannot fully conclude the emotional competencies that direct to an efficient adaptation towards complex situations. Rather, there should be a set of skills functioning in a particular organizational climate that ascertains successful dealing with emotional incidences, which results in accomplishment of good social dealings, and booming work performance.

Saarni(Saarni, 1999) suggested that emotional competence comprised of various skills, or aspects, that appear during the lifetime and are critical elements for effectiveness in interpersonal communications and associations. In playgroup, as children develop their understanding of emotions, they initiate to interact with friends and companions, and face the classroom atmosphere for the first time, three components of emotional competence are most important: (1) emotion knowledge, i.e. the capability to distinguish others' emotions by comprehending relative and indicative signs; (2) emotion regulation, the skill to control the power or length of emotional situation; and (3) expressed emotion in societal settings (Denham et al., (2003) When researchers do examine the relationships between emotion knowledge, intensity of negative emotion, and emotion regulation, conclusions obtained are complex. Emotion expressions and emotion regulation tend to be correlated, even though in some researched there is a slight demarcation between the two paradigms, and in others, the two are merged into a single variable (Cole, Martin, & Dennis, 2004)(Denham, Blair,

Schmidt, & DeMulder, 2002). When the relationship between negative emotion expressions and emotional control are inspected, they emerge to be modest, such that children who convey more negative emotions tend to demonstrate through emitting approaches, like crying or demonstrating anger to release aggravation (Denham et al., (2003)(Fabes & Eisenberg, (1992)). Researchers have instituted that emotion knowledge is linked (though weakly) to emotion expressions (Denham et al., 2003). The study proposed that low-risk middle income young children who have great levels of emotion knowledge were able to convey fairly more optimistic emotions. Others have found, on the other hand, that emotion knowledge is not correlated to expressing emotion or emotion control (Arsenio et al., ((2000).)Denham et al (2002)

Such conclusion call over a child, who can recognize emotions when impelled in a tête-à-tête situation, yet face trouble in modifying his/ her emotional expressions during friendly social relations. Emotion regulation, expression, and knowledge may consequently harmonize each other while staying quite independent in early childhood (Halberstadt, Denham, &Dunsmore, 2001). A limitation of preceding studies that may prevent a more refined understanding of emotional competence is that researchers have frequently not taken into account the verbal proficiency, though it has been connected with emotion knowledge in both middle and low-income samples (Dunn, Brown, Slomkowski, Tesla, & Youngblade, (1991))Izard et al., (2001)(Smith & Walden, 1998)Children with great verbal abilities tend to express their emotions verbally. Moreover, most duty evaluating children's emotion knowledge include a considerable verbal element, making them in part an indication of children's language growth (Izard, 1971)

2.3 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND JOB PERFORMANCE

There were diverse results of studies on the effect of emotional competence/intelligence and job performance; some researchers recommended that emotional competence and job performance are optimistically connected. Lam and Kirby (2002) established that emotional competence foretells the performance of undergraduate students on a particular task. Also Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) discovered that emotional competence is correlated to the classroom functioning of executives and professionals, sales results (Law et al., 2004), the compilation job of account officers (Bachman et al., 2000) and managerial evaluation of job performance (Law et al., 2004).

Kelley and Caplan (1993) investigated the attributes of engineers at Bell Laboratories who were rated excellent by their colleagues. They figured out that the 'perceived' excellent engineers were superior at concerning others, which indicates that it was emotional intelligence/competence and not the academic intelligence that demonstrated their high performance. Besides, precedent studies have concentrated on narrow standards, and not much is studied about how emotional competence is related to the end result like salary, remuneration and work concerns such as job fulfillment and job contentment.

Tans (2003) found an affirmative affiliation between emotional competence and other measures like job satisfaction and related performance. Nevertheless, emotional competence can operate with other variables like gender, individual character and personal ethics and morals to forecast job fulfillment and performance. Cote and Miner (2006) claimed that emotional competence and cognitive intelligence intermingle to stimulate performance. It is a truth that it demands more than usual cognitive intelligence to be victorious at the job. It also requires emotional intelligence; the talent to curb negative feelings such as anger and self-mistrust, and instead, concentrate on positive sentiments such as being self-confident and cheerful to be successful at job place. The mixed outcomes of these research provoked the investigator to empirically analyze the correlation between Emotional intelligence/competence and job excellence.

Hummayoun Naeem (2008) states that for building and sustaining the environment of superior service in the organization, emotional competence is measured as a highly imperative constituent as its skills can be studied and executed by the workforce. It helps human resources in understanding service proficiency that eventually results in work accomplishment. The service distribution and execution can be improved by relating them to the emotional competence skills. Lastly, he clarified emotional competence results in employee pleasure, good service quality, improved customer satisfaction and customer loyalty in the service sector, hence its presence is considered very important for the service providers.

Lisa Gardner and Con. Stough, (Lisa & Stough., 2002), conducted a research where they used emotional intelligence test to foresee transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles through multifactor leadership questionnaire amongst 110 higher level

managers. The results signify that emotional competence is greatly associated with the mechanism of transformational leadership.

William Leban and Carol Zulauf, (2004) studied the relation between project management and the role of leadership. The study dealt with 24 project managers and their related projects in six organizations from different sectors. The results of the study locate that a project manager's transformational leadership style had a positive impact on project performance, which also designated that emotional competence had an influence on the Project Manager's transformational leadership style followed by project execution.

F. William Brown et al, (2006) examined the associations between emotional competence, leadership, and required results in organizations. A sample of 2,411 manufacturing workers, engineers, and qualified staff was taken in the study. But, in the study, no relationship was found between emotional intelligence and desirable outcomes or a noteworthy association between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership.

D. Jamali, et al, (2008) studied emotional competence from the Lebanese perspective and examined emotional intelligence competency framework that is (Self-Perception, Self-regulation, Self-motivation, Social awareness and Social skills) in a sample of 225 Lebanese workers and executives. A questionnaire-based rate was developed to encapsulate the basic competencies on a self-report basis. The conclusion availed dissimilarity in emotional competence scores across different emotional intelligence competencies for males and females, with males achieving well on self-regulation and self-motivation aspects, and females making high on Self-Perception, empathy, and social skills, and that emotional intelligence levels rise radically with managerial status.

David Rosete and Joseph Ciarrochi, (2005) examined to explore the association between emotional competence, individual character, cognitive intelligence and leadership efficiency. A sample of 41 senior managers underwent an ability measure of emotional intelligence John Mayer and Peter Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), a scale of personality 16 Personality Traits, 5th edition (16PF5) and a computing cognitive ability through Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence (WASI). Leadership efficacy was evaluated by an objective scale of performance and a 360° assessment including each leader's juniors and direct managers. Correlation and regression analyses showed that higher

emotional intelligence competence was related to higher leadership efficiency and that emotional intelligence described the discrepancy which was not clarified by personality or intelligence.

A fair amount of skills is believed to come from the set of social-emotional competence and which may be linked with material use in adolescence (Hanson & Kim, 2007); (Harter, 1999); (Matos, et al., 2011); (Rutter, 1985); (Skinner, 1995). For instance, team work and team interaction are assumed to be related to elasticity in relationships, partnership ability and self-confident, particularly concerning to the conveying of emotions, sentiments, moods, thoughts, and desires (Austin & Kilbert, 2000). This expertise endorse interpersonal relation and rapport building (Benard, 2004), which are essential defensive features for personal comfort as they act as productive conveying methods for resistance capacity.

Empathy is also measured as a crucial social-emotional ability and a number of writers have emphasized it as one of most essential competencies (Benard, 2004); (Grotberg, 1997); (Kumpfer, 1999); (Parker, Cowen, Work, & Wyman, 1990). As Benard (2004) stated, “empathy not only helps facilitate relationships development, it also forms the basis of morality, forgiveness, and compassion and caring for others” (p.15). This should be considered a decisive factor for the creation of team building described as prosocial and non-materialized.

2.4 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

Many researchers endeavored to compare effective leadership style with Emotional competence/intelligence. The studies categorize leadership styles on the basis of the Bass’s model of transformational/transactional leadership. The transformational leader can be described as a person who provokes awareness and concern in the company or team, boost the trustworthiness of employees or team members, and puts efforts to shift employee interest to the accomplishment of goals instead of mere survival in the organization (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Whereas, the transactional leader is one who concentrates on the employee's needs and motivates them to fulfill them in sync with the organizational objectives (Bass, 1985).

A study performed by Barling observed the relationship between leadership styles and their ECI of 49 managers. The author calculated EI by the Bar-On EQ-i, but only accounted total EQ and not various subscales it involves. This study found EC and three components elements of transformational leadership were absolutely interconnected, and moreover, it discovered that one element of transactional leadership was positively allied with EC. Maximum connection in this study was established between EC and inspiring motivation (Barling et al. (2000)

Furthermore, a research carried out by Palmer discovered quite a lot of noteworthy relationship between transformational leadership and EC. The research used a customized edition of the Trait Meta Mood Scale developed by Salovey to measure EC. The researchers imply that the relationship originated in this study describe two fundamental competencies of effective leadership: the power to observe one's emotions and emotions of others, and the skill to deal with emotions (Palmer et al. (2001).

The third study conducted to connect ECI and leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2002) emphasized senior leaders for study and used the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test _SUEIT_ to calculate ECI. A third leadership style was adjoined to the transformational and transactional type of leaders, laissez-faire leader, who was described as one who prevent undertaking responsibility, absent when required, unsuccessful in chasing need for assistance, and avoided conveying any thoughts on important issues. Of the 110 participants in the study, 69 were senior managers or above. The results found a strong association between transformational leadership and overall EC, but a negative connection between a laissez-faire leadership style and EC (Gardner & Stough, 2002).”

A (Cavallo) study at Johnson & Johnson Consumer and Personal Care Group confirms the perception that emotional competence discriminates successful managers. Better performing executives were perceived to have considerably superior Self-Perception, Self-Management ability, Social competence, and Organizational familiarity; all constitute a part of the Emotional Intelligence/Competence ambit. Prior studies have publicized that Emotional Competence, like technical talent; can be learned through an organized and constant strategy to create competency in private and public state of affairs.

A cluster analysis of answers to evaluate seven competencies by 220 salespeople resulted into four diverse groups of population having different levels of competencies. They were classified by a blend of different levels of the seven competencies. One group, the great emotional competent, achieved high on all seven proficiencies, reverses the second group-scored low on all seven. Two other groups were slightly distinct: wherein one group was characterized as having guilt feelings when they had to use emotions tactically, and the second group portrayed the lack of ability to accept vague and conflicting circumstances by behaving in a sarcastic manner. In a test of predictive validity, none other than the highly emotional competent group coped successfully with jealousy and arrogance and performed well in accomplishing their goals.

The above research was further authenticated by the study of Sy, Tram, Linda A. O'Hara (2006) which it was intended to scrutinize the affiliation between managers' and employees' emotional competence with their work performance and job fulfillment. Through this study, it has been comprehended that there is an intense association between these variables, and this positive association has a great impact on the degree of employees' job contentment which augments the work efficiency. Additionally, two other studies have ascertained the positive influence of emotional competence on job satisfaction and job performance (Kafetsios and Zampetakis, 2008). As per the regression analysis employed in these studies, the application and control of emotions have been more efficient in provisions of work pleasure compared to all another element of EC. The same outcomes were also obtained by both Abraham (2000) and Gardner (2003) (Guleryüz, Guney, Aydin and Asan 2008, p.1632).

Orhan and Dincer in their research studied 150 staff members of Turkish banking sector using Wong and Law's Emotional Intelligence scale. The major motive of using that scale was that some of the scales such as "Baron's 15", which comprised of 133 questions, were tough to imply and had validity and reliability issues and were very exhaustive. Nevertheless, the Wong and Law scale contained only sixteen sub-factors concerning four major factors. The survey conducted on 150 employees of state-owned and private banks of Turkey found a noteworthy connection and relations between employees' emotional competence/intelligence and job satisfaction in an optimistic way but not very intense. Moreover, the results notified that there was a considerable difference between the employees of state-owned and private banks in regards of emotional intelligence competency. The analysis showed that emotional intelligence level of private bank employees was elevated contrast to the state-owned bank

employees. In terms of job fulfillment, it was identified that there was no major disparity between state-owned and private bank employees apart from for the organizational climate element. Private bank employees were greatly contented with their working environment.

Authors have argued over the abilities (Dutta, 2000) and competencies (Gehring, 2007), that are advantageous in the project management responsibility that may lessen the project malfunctioning (Gillard & Price, 2005) Authors have also argued over the significance and functioning of emotional competence intelligence in organizations ((Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005) and the usefulness of the various assessment tools accessible (Jordan P. , 2000)(Mayer J. , 2001) A little amount of studies have suggested research questions exploring the affiliation that may be present between these two fields or among the elements of EI assessment method and interpersonal competence of project managers (Turner & Lloyd-Walker, 2008). They highlighted individual project managers as a component for analysis and put forward the empirical data that may profit researchers and practitioners of both domains by describing any relationship that may subsist between various models of EI and interpersonal competence structure of a project manager. The findings added some ingredients to the current EI theory, the EI model advancement, educating and improving skills of project managers, and the social flair.

In one latest research, across 15 nations and 21 different sectors of industry, 83% of Chief Executive Officers accounted a rising gap between their assumption for a considerable change and their organizations' capacity to implement this change (IBM., 2008). New studies on EC and the interpersonal aptitude of project managers are significant since both areas may bestow opportunities that stimulate the efficiency of organizational flexibility. High rates of project failure and incompetence in adapting change must create alertness to those who are finally accountable for the accomplishment of a project (DiVincenzo, 2006)

Most published researches on ECI and job performance are performed in laboratory surroundings or with student populace (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, 2006; (Lopes, Cote, & Salovey, 2006).These results may not be appropriate to use for company purpose. Consequently, researchers have carried out advanced studies that explain the importance and applicability of ECI in organizations (Caruso, 2008); (Gooty, 2007)(Hoffman & Frost, 2006); (Humphrey, Curran, Morris, & Woods, 2006); Kerr et al., (2006); Lopes et al., (2003)(Muchinsky, 2000).The literal degree and strength of ECI can differ depending upon the circumstances (Van Rooy ; Viswesvaran C., 2004).

Managerial performance on projects is an essential factor in the profitable ending of a project (Gillard & Price, 2005)(Kendra & Taplin, 2004). Devoted project managers amplify the achievement velocity for their projects (IBM., 2008)(Kerzner, 2001). Organizations that employ project managers are therefore expected to have some knowledge of the competencies that the project managers require if they want high-performance levels. Majority investigators believe that project managers must be technically, socially, and managerially trained (Dutta, 2000); (Frame, 1994)(Pinto & Kharbanda, 1995); (Reich, 1991)the same as the case with the majority of managers. Project managers require ability in planning, supervising, recruiting, and implementing the project (Gilley, Egglund, && Gilley, 2002) A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK® Guide) (PMI, 2008)reports that a skilled and competent project manager must be capable to administer the range, organize, rates, quality, staffing, communication, risk, and procurement -- all elements of a project management plan (p. 75). PMI has presented a model of project performance that contains four clusters: application area knowledge, general management knowledge, understanding the project environment, and interpersonal skills (PMI, 2008)here, each cluster is perceived as significant and powerful enough to influence the other clusters, enhancing the achievement level or raising the project rates.

2.5 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

The interpersonal skills cluster from the PMBOK® Guide model embraces effective interaction, motivating, leadership, inspiring, resolving difficult issues, and conciliation and dispute management (PMI, 2008, p. 13). These interpersonal skills were considered in the study due to widely accepted PMBOK® Guide in the project management association and the high validity of these factors. Several norms detect these factors as significant in the project management career or even outside. Motivation, dispute management, difficulty solving, and communication are mentioned as competencies in the International Project Management Association (IPMA) competency baseline (IPMA, 2006). Communication (Anantatmula, 2008); (Henderson, 2008)), motivation (DiVincenzo, 2006); (Schmid & Adams, 2008)problem solving (Brill et al., 2006), and conflict management (Anantatmula, 2008); (Pinto & Kharbanda, 1995) are common subject of studies and archetype of project manager performance.

A research over 1,400 Chief Financial Officers observed that advancement in technology is amplifying the quickness of interpersonal communications, exposing employees who have

interpersonal skills and revealing those who lack these skills to wider audiences (Messmer, 1999). The flair of interpersonal communication (Anantatmula, 2008); Brill et al., (2006)(Henderson, 2008)(Kendra & Taplin, 2004)(Moorhead & Griffin, 2001); (PMI, 2008), motivation (DiVincenzo, 2006)(Gehring, 2007)(Pfeffer, 1998), conflict management (Anantatmula, 2008; Pinto & Kharbanda, 1995), and problem solving (Brill et al., 2006) are the subject matter in the project management research. These factors were utilized in the Project Manager Interpersonal Competency Inventory (PMICI) for the study, and the scales were developed by coding themes in the foremost models and theories of each domain. For instance, communication skill scales were assessed on encoding, decoding, interference, and medium. Accompanying proof indicates that ECI has a distinct correlation with these interpersonal factors (Henderson, 2008) (Leban, 2003) (Malek, 2000) (Mayer & Salovey, 2004); (Singh, 2007) offering an opportunity for progression and utilization. Fresh studies unfolding the connection between emotional competence and project manager interpersonal proficiencies are central in the development of both as it enlightens the prospective exchange.

The latent relation between EI and interpersonal competence is strengthened by earlier researches covering sensible and important associations between EI and the individual competency spheres of communication, motivation, conflict management, and problem-solving. Those who were competent in communication were perceived to be more empathetic (Schmid & Adams, 2008) Empathy is a paradigm conduct in varied models of EI (Goleman D., (1998a)) Persons with high EI expressed more empathy. That formed a bond between EI and communication skills. Henderson (2008) extended this correlation by detailing that EI and the encoding and decoding system of communication are truly alike. If the basic Emotions Theory (Mesquita, 2001) is proper, it is reasonable to recommend that some people have skills or propensity that improves their communication flair, based on their intensity of emotional and technical understanding.

Leban(2003) studied that overall EI scores were interrelated considerably with the inspirational motivation constituent of transformational leadership. The ability model was implemented in this research. This evoked that EI is linked with motivation in the framework of transformation. Given that EI builds on the interpersonal and intrapersonal mechanism of Multiple Intelligence Theory (Gardner, 1983), it is rational to assume that some people have a greater talent in these areas, and this influences their motivation. Some persons, even project

managers, possess a better perceptiveness of these triggers. Emotions have strong motivational power (Lopes, Cote, & Salovey, 2006)

Malek(2000) instituted that populace with superior EC is expected to settle conflict efficiently and successfully using more shared styles for solving disputes. Sy and Cote (2004) indicated that people with high EC outperform in managing the clashing circumstances, coping their own emotions, and lining up with the group targets. Goleman ((1998a))cited conflict management as a measure within EI tool, which is the ECI. Whereas these illustrations do not clearly look at project managers or, particularly, EI, a case exists that a relationship of some kind may be present.

The EC of a person has been described to possess some connection with organizational learning (Singh, 2007), managerial perception ((Matzler, Bailom, & Mooradlan, 2007), and performance within stipulated time (Newsome, Day, & Catano, 2000)Emotions induce decision-making practice (Milivojevich, 2006)(Sy & Cote, 2004). These studies grant a bunch of findings signifying that superior EI assessment scores might upshot higher problem-solving aptitude.

The characteristics and borders of interest groups are frequently culture-defined. This is just one of the numerous approaches in which culture affects mutual behavior, particularly the demarcation of the accepted level of kindness, response to misbehavior, contribution in shared ventures, and thereon (cf. Henrich et al. (2001) The ongoing research was on the cultural influence on an individual, its motivating force, and the ethical value of emotions. Cultures have the power to distinctly intensify or disregard emotions. Conversely, complex cultural indication of emotions can deeply augment its subjective salience; to what extent emotion outlines the behavior and how commonly it is felt, are consecutively a purpose of the moral values consigned to the emotions in the related cultural construct (Levy, R.I, 1973), (Briggs, J.L, 1970)

Jointly, these remarks specify that, even for those many emotions which, being the product of our common phylogeny, are pan-human, and manipulate any given emotion on supportive behavior can, however, be predicted to differ significantly across cultures. Researchers concerning in discovering the role of emotions in teamwork should focus carefully on the cultural environment of contestants in a given scheme. Maybe, still more essential, the moderator must be familiar with the salience and valence of particular emotions in particular

cultures if they are to effectively intervene the global conflict issues and promote international cooperation.

Since last fifteen years, contributions in work groups have become a paradigm in most of the U.S. organizations (Lawler, E. E, 1998). The Wall Street Journal's rank of the standard used by employers searching to recruit MBAs is: First, "the ability to work well within a team" second; "communication and interpersonal skills" (Wall Street Journal, Wednesday, September 16, 2003). The pace at which the "team revolution" succeeded the job place is the means to justify the outcomes of a current study that surveyed the senior managers of 100 of the most creative organizations in the United States (as defined by the *Work In America Institute*) to address the organizational challenges. 95 percent of the respondents agreed that creating and maintaining efficient work groups was their most challenging task. (Farren, C., 1999)

So far, group flexibility and group success have been examined by researchers for over six decades. Some intellectuals claim that present theory and studies are not action defined and therefore cannot be helpful for practicing leaders looking for the best means to create and maintain effective work groups ((Cannon-Bowers, 1995); (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Others say that leaders can researchers their knowledge of team dynamics and team effectiveness through research and studies on the effects of emotion and its reflection on team performances. ((Edmondson, 1999)(George, 2002)(Keyton, 1999)

2.6 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND TEAM WORK

Regardless of long years of theories and research signifying the value of the role of emotion rules and team results, (e.g., (Bales, 1950)(Homans, 1950)(Tuckman, 1965), existing literature on group efficiency (see, Ancona& Caldwell, (1992); Guzzo& Dickson, (1996)(Hackman, 1987) underlines the cognitive task-oriented systems and approaches linked with effective work groups. They do not take much interest in the emotional and social rule and customs that trigger the successful implementation of task-oriented activities. The two model teams surveyed presented a picture of the significance of both the emotion-focused and task-focused systems in the work teams and exhibit a strong relationship between them. In one high-tech Corporation, the teams developed a powerful task process plan wherein groups would perform collectively to ensure timely delivery. When one group failed to

achieve on time, the other groups ahead of the schedule assisted them to cope up – without any supervisory interference. This approach required task-oriented policy such as handling the task periphery (i.e., who does what) and bring together information and resources. It also calls for an equivalent set of emotion-focused norms. As one group paused and requested assistance from another, it had to acquire norms for coping with the emotion team members experienced when it had to confess that it had descended. Likewise, those groups offering help had to deal with their own discontentment and emotion for putting more efforts balance their ratio. In another industrial corporation, self-managed members determined to enhance the efficiency of all group associates by becoming more multi-talented to easily achieve all objectives carried out by a team. This entails members to develop new abilities through training, peer tutoring, and by receiving and giving feedback. In many circumstances, developing new abilities, particularly from peers, is common to have feelings of susceptibility and the fear of being assessed (Schein, 1993), so, the teams had to develop a feeling of faith and security (see Edmondson, 1999) to facilitate members to accept their faults and to feel relaxed by giving and receiving sincere feedback. In total, group task and emotion rules were strongly connected.

2.7 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

One organizational feature that is invariable is changed (Mossholder, KW, Settoon, RP, Armenakis, AA & Harris, SG, 2000). In fact, the organization's capacity to tackle change offers a feasible benefit (Skinner, D, Saunders, MNK & Thornhill, A, 2002)Organizational learning (Senge, 1992)is acknowledged as a significant process for guarantying the success of frequent organizational changes ((Senge, 1992), although, it does not consider any the emotional inferences of change. In this research, the intention is that change is innately emotional and generates a variety of emotions and feelings all through organizational changes. Many researchers have recognized the emotional facets of coping with change (Antonacopoulou & Gabriel, 2001); (Ashkanasy, NM, Ashton-James, CE & Jordan, PJ , 2004,)(Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2002), (Ryan & Macky, 1998). In common, these authors have acknowledged the emotional outcome of change, yet, there is not much investigation, that distinguishes the emotional skills necessary to effectively deal with organizational change. Some authors concede that social support as a better way for assisting change (Mealiea, 1978)nonetheless, this support generates some response to the present problem, instead of a proactive technique of facilitating change (Sheehen & Jordan, 2003).Even though research in

emotional effect in the organizational background was kept unnoticed for a long period of time. Then after, studies on the influence of emotions and moods on organizational performance are growing deliberately (Ashkanasy & Zerbe, 2002)

Owing to anxiety and doubt, change and emotions are interlaced ((Chrusciel, 2006); (French, 2001)(Lundberg & Young, 2001). Caruso and Wolfe (2002)) originated that persons with high EC are characteristically calmer with uncertainty and change in the place of work. Project management is a category of change management. Emotions may be comprehended in the good manner by a few employees, thereby raising the probability of competence. Mayer and Salovey(2004) confirmed this hypothesis in previous studies when they found that EI affects the individual efficacy while absorbed in change management pattern.

Since past years, the structure of emotional competence/intelligence has been progressive as presenting better insights into organizational performances (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso 2000). Particularly, emotional competence offers a noteworthy contribution to the understanding of associations at the work environment (Mayer & Salovey, 2000)(Jordan P. &, 2002),. In some researches, for better theoretical validation, emotional competence scholars suggest that persons with high emotional competence may be more efficient in dealing with change than persons with little emotional competence ((Goleman, 1998)(Mayer & Salovey, 1997)While these universal assertions have been made on the basis of anecdotes (e.g. Goleman 1998), they have not been rationalized by a careful assessment of the previous researches or empirical experiment. Then onwards research was undertaken on what abilities an emotionally competent person will illustrate in context to their capacity to manage emotions that permit them to successfully cope up with change. Callahan and McCollum (2002), have lately merged psychological and sociological models to create a new standard for evaluating emotion management in corporations. In context to this, researchers claim that emotions and organizational change are interconnected at a very basic of organizational behavior. In the period where the advantages of incessant organizational change are referred as contributing factor to creativity in organizations (Senge, 1992)it is suitable to inspect changes at the very basic level so that it fosters continual change without any barriers (Senge, 1992)

Though there has been substantial research performed into change in organizations over a long period (Dunphy & Stace, 1990)(Floyd, 2002)(Guest & Hersey, 1977)attention given to the role of emotions in organizations has been fresh (e.g. (Ashforth & Humphrey,

1995)(Fineman, 2000)(Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) Few researches on emotions in the workplace have centered the topics like emotional labor (Hochschild, 1979)(Morris & Feldman, 1996,)emotional expression and organizational culture (Maanen & Kunda, 1989)organizational commitment(Allen & Meyer, 1990,) emotions in work place ((Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989)work motivation (George & Brief, 1996)(Isen & Baron, 1991)(Locke & Latham, 1990); general mood and job fulfillment (Forgas, 1995) and the variety of emotions felt at work (Fisher 1997). Emotions have been publicized to determine affect-driven attitudes such as rash behavior, organizational dedication, and short-lived attempts (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). However, some works have focused on the role of emotion as it powers the mindset and conduct of individuals. To study this, four branches of emotional competence were linked as directed by Mayer and Salovey (1997)and elucidated how they can associate to behaviors that create a learning organization (Senge, 1992) a medium for supporting continuing institutional change.

A strong dispute prevails over the opinion that employees hold towards change. Many studies have been undertaken and numerous researchers claim that workers are likely to avoid any organizational change broadly (e.g. (Judson, 1991); (Odiorne, 1981); (Strebel, 1996). Dent and Goldberg (1999) state that the word ‘resistance’ should be eliminated from the literature as it does not reveal the complicated relations that take place during the change process. Piderit(2000) makes a pacifying observation signifying that the hesitant that employees experience towards change does not for all time generate resistance, but normally creates embarrassment and chaos.

Ample of research literature that illustrates that employee hesitance to organizational change is frequently connected to dysfunctional dispute during organizational change and coupled with the negative effects such as job frustration and protests (Kirkman, Jones, & Shapiro, 2000). Workforces who are burning up their energy on such types of issues have less power in involving themselves in that change. Thus, detecting the reasons that arbitrate this change opposition could be advantageous to both, the employees engaged in the change and the organization. Examining this, researchers have acknowledged change as a prospective to bring out a variety of emotion whether this alteration is a huge reform or small restructuring (Mossholder et al., (2000)Change can be an apparent threat or a prospect and can activate positive emotions like enthusiasm, keenness and innovative ideas (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Change can also be frightening and generate negative emotions for example

irritation, fear, nervousness, skepticism, hatred, and abandonment (French R. , 2001). Evidently, change causes a noteworthy objection, both to those who are executing it and persons who are influenced by the change (O'Neill & Lenn, 1995). Management theory, though, concentrates on cognitive problems such as cognitive dissension during change (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Sonnenstuhl, 1996) The effect of this focus is concern of the result in dealing with the mind set to change, more willingly than the emotional response (e.g. (Brockner, 1988)(Brockner, Grover, Reed, & DeWitt, 1992). A study that has scrutinized the role of emotion during organizational change has mainly spotlighted emotional reactions such as stress (Terry & Jimmieson, 2003) and actions such as job leaving and low organizational loyalty (Begley & Czajka, 1993) thus overlooking the emotive/cognitive courses that produce such consequences (O'Neill & Lenn, 1995).

A fundamental basis of the research was that person's adaptation to organizational change requires integrating both emotional and cognitive aspects. A literature hunt discloses that not much conjectural or empirical work has been carried out investigating the significance of emotional competence in supporting persons to manage with institutional change. Studies have been done on related topics such as person's emotional response to the circumstances that may or may not be an outcome of institutional change. For example, Jordan and his equals (Jordan et al. (2002)) claim that emotionally competent employees manage better with job uncertainty that may or may not be the result of the organizational revolution. Ashkanasy et al. (2004,) illustrate the benefits of emotionally competent people in managing stress at the job place and figure out one of the potential reasons for stress to be organizational change, while Elliot, Watson, Goldman, and Greenberg (2004) recognized the significance of emotional manifestation as a technique for people to cope with individual change. One of the only editorials to scrutinize the value of emotional competence in institutional change is Huy's(1999) theoretical model signifying that emotional competence supports individuals to acclimatize and assist changes in receptiveness, mobilization, and education in the change process.

2.8 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND SALES PERSON'S BEHAVIOR

It is clear from the above literature that emotions comprise powerful psychological forces that can strongly persuade sales person's behavior and performance (Steven, Cron, & Slocum,

1997),”however research considering how feelings are decoded and served in marketing interactions are astonishingly very few (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999), Though, numerous researches have observed explicit emotions in marketing transactions such as fear and (Verbeke, 1997)” (Bagozzi, 2000) cheerfulness and excitement (Chitturi, Ravindra, & Raghunathan, 2008)”gratitude (Palmatier, Robert, Jarvis, Bechkoff, & Kardes, 2009), anger and frustration (Wagner, Tillman, Hennig-Thurau, & Rudolph, 2009), and shame and guilt (Agarwal, Nidhi, & Duhachek, 2010), studies have not answered salespeople’s capacity to identify and react to their own emotions and their customers’ emotions and have not thought upon how these skills impact on significant marketing job variables. It has referred to marketers’ capacity to utilize their emotions to support communications with customer’s emotional competence in marketing transactions.

A latest research by an organization (State of the Heart, 2016) suggest that globally people are more emotionally volatile, less self-motivated, and less compassionate – but maybe they’re starting to think more about their choices. Meanwhile, emotional intelligence scores are massively correlated with performance, with 55% of the variation in four key success factors predicted by EQ. The literature on marketing has mostly overlooked this ability-based concept of ECI in spite of its capability to advantage people who have high ECI and those with whom they interact, for example, customers, clients. Illustrating a current study that has tended to propose that sales persons larger emotion identification during customers dealings can enhance dual benefits for sellers and buyers (Elfenbein et al. (2007). By strengthening combined value, sales people generate a better result for the customers and also can intensify the chances of future business (Martin et al. “ (2008); Mueller and Curhan 2006). Moreover, an investigation in service marketing indicates that employees’ exhibit emotion which can influence clientele sentimental construct and level of satisfaction (Hennig-Thurau et al. (2006). Therefore, ECI has perspective to increase current sales results and improve long-term client relationships. Sadly, two essential matters have delayed the growth of this stream. First, former researches have applied a domain-specific evaluation of EI (e.g., Mayer et al. 2003). The consequences based on this evaluation have presented mixed results for work-related outcomes (e.g., Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts (2004), which may crop up because people have higher level of EC in some circumstances (for example marriage event, listening to music) but not in others (example: selling encounters). Thus, a common evaluation of EC may sufficiently address wide spheres but are weak enough when forecasting performance in specific circumstances (Bearden, Hardesty, and Rose (2001). Second, EI is often evaluated

with self-report measures, which can be counterfeited (Day, Aria, & Sarah, 2008),” and thus are “not valid for the direct assessment of a mental ability” (Mayer, Roberts, and Barsade (2008, p. 519) .

2.9 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND INDIVIDUAL CHARACTER

Furthermore, past researchers have discovered that self-report technique of EI is highly correlated with individual character (Mayer, John D. Roberts, and Sigal G. Barsade , 2008) (Zeidner, Moshe, Gerald Matthews, and Richard D. Roberts, 2004); which can hide the typical effects of EI on the important work-related result. With these limitations, fewer studies have been done concerning EI’s control over marketing processes.

A research by Blair et.al.(2011) tried to conquer these deficiencies and added to the literature by familiarizing the notion of EI in marketing exchanges. They created an ability-based, unbiased evaluation of EI and offer considerable proof that EI influences sales performance and improve customer relations ahead of domain-general and self-reported EI. Second, it was analyzed that how EI shapes within the nomological network of important dealings in marketing exchange variables. Previous studies have confirmed the significance of improving sales performance by becoming customer familiar to impact decision making. Therefore, understanding how EI might emphasize relations is crucial in developing better marketing transactions. We stress the judicious role of EI in marketing exchange relationships by presenting that rising levels of EI augment the positive associations among customer orientation and its effect on sales performance—(Franke and Park (2006); Kohli and Zaltman(1988). McFarland, Challagalla, and Shervani(2006); Narver and Slater (1990). Third, EI is interrelated and cooperated with cognitive ability, remarkably one of the most extensively used performance predictor tool (Schmidt, Shaffer, and Oh 2008) and the foundation for recruitment and training decision (Hunter and Schmidt (1998), although studies have signified that cognitive ability cannot precisely forecast sales performance (Verbeke et al. (2008). Accordingly, the EI degree harmonizes cognitive skills and/or foresees sales results ahead of cognitive ability, executives may have a new instrument for more efficient recruitment and better training.

Emotional intelligence scale: This scale, developed by Schutte (Schutte, et al., 1998), is based on Salovey and Mayer’s (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) original conceptualization of emotional intelligence. It consists of 33 self-report items that assess the extent to which respondents

characteristically identify, understand, harness, and regulate emotions in themselves and in others. Items include ones such as “When I experience a positive emotion I know how to make it last,” and “I know why my emotions change.” Respondents rate themselves on each item from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Schutte et al. (1998), reported internal consistency of 0.87 and 0.90 for two different samples and a two-week test-retest reliability of 0.78. The internal consistency of the scale for the present sample of 150 participants was 0.87. Evidence of the scale’s validity includes correlations with measures of attention to feelings, clarity of feelings, mood repair, Self-confidence, impulse control, and lack of depressed affect (Schutte, et al., 1998),. Schutte et al. (1998) reported that in a community sample of 328 individuals, women had a mean score of 130.94 (SD $\frac{1}{4}$ 15.09) and men had a mean score of 124.78 (SD $\frac{1}{4}$ 16.52)

From the above literature, we foresee that sales people outdo customer orientation aspect, only when they have higher levels of EC. It is easier for sales people with higher cognitive skills to identify what kind of products are available in markets and how they function. They intelligently are better able to unearth those matters and challenges that customers confront in their buying decision. Therefore, it is always good to have cognitive skills. However, it is seen that higher EC augments existing cognitive ability to heighten sales performance. Some sales people are blessed with both cognitive skills and high EC. They act better in communicating information concerning the customers; they can understand how customer emotions merge to form more complicated emotions, and thus adjust their emotions with the customers’ during sales encounter. Sales people with low-EC salespeople may endeavor to use customer orientation to win over customers’ buying decisions, but their interaction will not be much efficient because they cannot assimilate emotional aspect in behavior. For instance, customers may infer an inability to detect frustration as an indication a lack of caring attitude when the salesperson is unable to understand consumer’s emotions. On the other hand, High-EC sales personnel can easily comprehend crafty facial expressions of puzzled customers and induce themselves to recap or explain content or find better solutions. Higher levels of EC help customer orientation more convincing and genuine since the salesperson can absorb customers’ emotions. Therefore, superior level of EC can arbitrate the relationship between customer orientation and better sales performance (Kim, 2010)

Although, earlier researches have emphasized more on cognitive part of salespersons' positive selling behaviors such as the what helps determining for superior performances, what

induces better selling abilities, how to calculate financial and non-financial etc., but have ignored emotional aspect influencing sales performances and their reaction on customer purchase pattern. If salespeople efficiently are able to distinguish their emotions and understand customers' emotions, the company will likely to yield enhanced results through their empathetic selling approach and concerned behavior for their customers (Fatt and Howe, 2003).

2.10 REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO RETAIL SCENARIO IN GUJARAT

Talking about Indian retail industry, it is one of the fastest developing sectors in the Indian economy (KPMG India, 2007). Gujarat is one of the Indian states that have a solid middle-class populace and one of the highest per capita GDP. Gujarat dominates a unique place in an Indian economy. Gujarat shares around 16 percent of industrial manufacturing in India. The people of Gujarat are internationally acknowledged as very entrepreneurial and prolific. The risk taking talent and extra ordinary business understanding have made Gujarat the wellspring of new ventures. The labor cost is also reasonable in Gujarat. Excellent infrastructure amenities such as good road connectivity and consistent power supply have supplementary benefits to the emerging businesses. Also, compared to other Indian states, Gujarat enjoys economical industrial real estate tariff.

Gujarat is the highest contributor to Indian exports, with approximately 22 % of the total Indian exports. It is now turning to be a favorite target for the organized retail sector. Forbes magazine ranked Ahmedabad as the third fastest growing city in the world (2010) by (KPMG India, 2007). This serves a proof that the big retail giants like Prozone are looking at establishing their first two malls in Rajkot and Surat prior to penetrating into other cities of India. Few other examples are the brands like Raymond, which established its first kid's apparel store, Zapp, in Ahmedabad before entering markets of Mumbai and Pune (KPMG India, 2007)

Although the retail industry is on an expansion track in Gujarat, there are minor barriers that create hindrance in its development. There is a high need for sufficient qualified manpower for efficient handling of business; moreover, there is a growing demand of recruiting and retention of personnel which commands hike in employee income. Also, there is a challenge

of the ineffectiveness of supply chain management which adds to an increase in business expenditure.

Organized retail of Gujarat forms only three percent of the total Indian retail market, yet it offers an impending potential for development. The state Gujarat intends to increase the accessibility of specialized courses like retail management, which can help in long term in dealing with the problems of scarce eminent human resources. This will be a great help for Government in accomplishing the goal of generating more employment opportunities in the state.

Thus, the above analysis gives evidence that having emotional competence is a great asset for any sales professional especially when it comes to dealing with the customers. Organization's profitability, brand, image etc is laid on how well its employees serve its customers and how far they can take their customer relationships. This reveals that salespeople with great levels of emotional competence/intelligence tend to display flexible selling actions required to serve varied needs of customers, convey positive sentiments, and eventually enrich the service excellence experienced by customers. This study is intended to undertake a research on the identification of the level of emotional competence of sales people of organized retail in major cities of Gujarat state. An experimental research of this will be an opportunity to give attention to salespersons' emotional competence and its progress practically and academically.

Chapter 3

MODELS FOR MEASUREMENT

CHAPTER 3

MODELS FOR MEASUREMENT

3.1 Introduction

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3.3.10 Tapia Emotional Intelligence Inventory (TEII; Tapia, 2001)

3.3.11 Workplace Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test

3.3.12 Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP)

3.3.13 Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)

3.3.14 Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)

3.3.15 Lioussine Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (LEIQ)

3.4 Ability EI versus Trait EI

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI) refers to the cognitive processes concerning the detection, utilization, understanding, and managing individual's and others' emotional state of affair (Mayer & Salovey, 1997)(Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990). Saarni(Saarni, 1999) examined EI as ability or competency defined an attribute, characterized as been derived from personality traits(Brackett & Mayer, 2003)(Mayer, Salovey, & D.Caruso, 2000). Therefore, Emotional intelligence with this practice is understood as a person's aptitude to cause emotion and to deal with emotional information to improve his/her mental processes.

There is a clear dissemination of EI measures, these measures are structured into two main sets of evaluation tools, that is performance-based measures and self-report measures (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002), (Pérez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005). Broadly, researchers work on self-report questionnaires such as the Affect Emotion Scale - AES; (Schutte N. S., et al., 1998) the Emotional Quotient Inventory - EQ-i, (BarOn, 1997); the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Scale - SREIS; (Brackett & Salovey, 2004) , the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire - TEIQue; (Petrides & Furnham, 2001) , the Trait Meta Mood Scale - TMMS, (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995) or the Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale – WLEIS; (Wong & Law, 2002). Whereas, very few investigators have studied the performance tests of EI like the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale - MEIS; (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999) or the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test - MSCEIT; (Mayer J. , Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003)

According to Gardner (2004), the Ability EI and trait EI have altogether distinct measurement methods. In addition to the two techniques, the third type of EI test exists that combines both the EI aspects and emotional competencies

- **Ability Emotional Intelligence:** It involves actual skills and is therefore measured by using performance tests and is akin to ordinary IQ tests (Gardner K. , 2004). Respondents are asked to identify the emotions in pictures of faces or art; then their responses are toned with emotions and think how mood swings generate variety of thoughts; determining how emotions merge to form more multifaceted emotions and how these emotional responses transform eventually; and lastly choosing the suitable reaction to manage emotions (Gardner K. , 2004).

- **Trait Emotional Intelligence:** For evaluating trait EI, the self-report questionnaire is used which is a feasible measure of individual characteristics and self-assessment. In this method, respondents are asked to rank the statements using Likert scales for example “I am good at managing my emotions” (e.g., 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree) (Gardner K. , 2004). Compared to other performance tests like MSCEIT, self-report questionnaires review individual’s inner emotional experiences and are easy to manage and score (Gardner K. , 2004).

- In addition to trait EI measures, there are also few self-report measures in relation to EI that have been argued to be measuring the emotional competencies. These tests in general concentrate on few long-established EI aspects and also on the wider magnitude and competencies correlating to employability for instance: problem-solving tasks or team building activities. However, these measuring tools are detached from the traditional trait EI measures which primarily concentrate on emotion-based individual characteristics and self-assessment.(Gardner K. , 2004)

The choice as to which type of test to use i.e. The Ability EI, Trait EI or emotional competencies is determined by (i) the purpose in using the measure within PDP, and (ii) the practicalities of administration.

According to Mayer et al.(2000), various EI approaches can be categorized into two different clusters. First, Ability Models which spotlights emotion-based cognitive capacity, assessed by performance tests as well self-reports measures and a second, Mixed Models which blends emotion-based cognitive capacity and personality attributes, motivation and affective elements, evaluated through self-reports measures. Nevertheless, researchers believe that the components of these models are neither in harmony with the doctrine of psychological evaluation (Cronbach, 1949)(Hofstee, 2001) nor with the experimental facts that proves that self-report EI measures are inclined to interlink convincingly, irrelevant of whether they are based on “mixed” or “ability” models (Petrides, Furnham, & Mavroveli, 2007)

On the other hand, Petrides and his equals (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Petrides, Furnham, et al., 2004; Petrides, Pita et al., 2007) stressed on the dissimilarity between the trait EI and the ability EI, which is chiefly build on the measurement model used in the working of EI. The

Ability EI involves emotion-based cognitive abilities and is calculated by performance tests; whereas the trait EI is an affect-based behavioral drive and self-perceived capacity and is measured by self-report.

Conversely, numerous oppositions have been provoked against both self-report and performance tests of EI (Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck, 2005); (Brackett & Katulak, 2006) (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002), (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2002); (Perez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005)(Wilhelm, 2005). For example, the performance tests have been condemned as it measured emotional knowledge instead of emotional ability (Brody, 2004)(Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2005)(Gohm, 2004) (Wilhelm, 2005). Also, Mikolajczak et al. (2008) claimed that the performance tests measures may perhaps describe what individuals can do i.e. testing the individual's capacity; while the self-report trait EI measures consider how much emotional management is applied in real. Alternatively, self-report measures are believed to be erroneous, since they are mostly formed by person's individual perception (e.g., Brackett et al., 2006, Mayer et al., 2000; Matthews et al., 2004).

3.2 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ABILITY TEST

3.2.1 EMOTIONAL ACCURACY RESEARCH SCALE (EARS)

The Emotional Accuracy Research Scale developed by Mayer & Geher in the year 1996 was designed to measure the emotional-perception component of the ability model by having participants try to identify which emotion (of two options presented across several items) particular targets reporting feelings.

The test requires individuals to match the written thought sample to dichotomous responses describing how the target felt at the time described. The initial study by EARS produced low scale reliability and weakness in their factor structure and moderate correlation with the measures of empathy and self-reported Scholastic aptitude test (SAT) scores. (Perez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005) Identified only 4 other ability EI instruments in the academic literature. (a) One designed for children, inappropriate for the present study (B) Freudenthaler & Neubauer Emotional Intelligence Performance Test FNEIPT with poor discriminant validity based on correlation with personality and other trait instruments. (C) The MEIS that have been replaced by its authors with a new version (D) the MSCEIT, replacing MEIS is the most current prevailing ability test (Martini, 2008)

3.2.2 THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE FOR CHILDREN (EISC)

The Emotional Intelligence Scale for Children was developed by Sullivan (Sullivan, 1999) which involves emotional intelligence skills like identifying emotions, considering emotions, and managing emotions. It includes Facial images, narrative Stories, and Understanding and Managing segments. (Sullivan, 1999) The scale comprises of 41 items which are divided into 4 segments. For instance, there are 19 facial images in the Faces segment; five items in the Stories segment; 10 items in the Understanding section and seven items in the Managing segment. The investigator asks the related questions to the child and each child answers to the investigator's questions with "yes" or "no" or "I don't know".

The Sullivan Brief Empathy Scale for Children (SBESC): Another sub scale of EISC is Sullivan Brief Empathy Scale for Children (SBESC) which was drafted to offer information about children's empathic reactions (Sullivan, 1999) . It encompasses of ten items. The

investigator recites these items to the child and asks questions and every child needs to reply to the investigator's question with "yes" or "no" or "I don't know".

The Sullivan Teacher Rating Scale of Emotional Intelligence for Children (STRSEIC):

This scale has 11 items. As per his/her observations, the teacher is asked to rate each child separately based on the scale. This scale has two components, one from the investigator's viewpoint and second from the teacher's viewpoint, for better evaluation of each child's emotional intelligence (Ömerog̃lu, 2007).

The ESIC is mainly developed for children, however, there is no information available for its validity and reliability and also there is a weakness in their factor structure (Ömerog̃lu, 2007).

3.2.3 MULTIFACTOR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE (MEIS)

The Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) was developed by Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey in 1999. This scale embraces of 402 items and is divided into four subscales namely: Perception, Assimilation, Understanding, and Managing Emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & D.Caruso, 2000). The authors of MEIS have attempted different methods to find accurate answers, with target scoring, consensus scoring, and expert scoring. In Target scoring, a person (i.e., the target) is asked a variety of questions like whose facial expressions are portrayed in an item; what he/she really felt or what he/she was describing while absorbed in some emotional pursuit. In Consensus scoring, the right answers are obtained by amalgamating the opinions of mass people. This scoring system measures the degree to which the researcher's responses equal the mass judgment (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). The Expert scoring implies deriving answers by assembling the experts' opinion in emotions. Such sort of scoring methods is very much alike to that applied in the ability tests. According to Mayer et al. (2000), the internal consistency reliability of the overall MEIS was 0.95. The average internal consistency reliability score of all four branch for the consensus score was 0.77; and for expert scored scales the average internal consistency reliability was 0.62 (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002) (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). Also, the test-retest reliability of the overall MEIS over a 2-week period was calculated 0.75. On the contrary, reliability coefficients for cognitive ability tests varied from 0.85 to 0.95 (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2001)(Murphy & Davidshofer, 2001)

3.2.4 MAYER–SALOVEY–CARUSO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TEST (MSCEIT)

Founded by Mayer–Salovey–Caruso in the year 2002, The Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) was formed to evaluate the four branches of Mayer and Salovey’s(1993)(1997) emotional intelligence ability model. It is a revised version of MEIS. The MSCEIT provides a total EI score and four Branch scores: (1) Perception of emotion, (2) Integration and Assimilation of emotion, (3) Knowledge about emotions and (4) Management of emotions. In MSCEIT, there are total 141 items and compared to MEIS, MSEIT is concise and faster to manage as it presents both consensus and expert scores for all Branch scores. Where, in MEIS, there are 12 subtests to measure the four Branches, the MSCEIT has two subtests for each Branch (Salovey, Mayer, Caruso, & Lopes, 2003). A study by Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, &Sitarenios(2003), affirmed that the total scale reliability of all Branches were over 0.75. For consensus scoring, the average internal consistency reliability for all scales was found to be 0.68 and for expert scoring, the average internal consistency reliability resulted into 0.71. As MSCEIT is an ability measure, the reliabilities of the subscales are away from most favorable (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). For the validity, the founders still depend upon the data from the MEIS to authenticate MSCEIT. Even though MEIS and MSCEIT seem quite dissimilar, researchers should be careful while making a conclusion about the MSCEIT based on facts from the MEIS. Many investigators are worried about the lack of scientific measures for ascertaining the precise consensus and expert results for the MEIS and the MSCEIT. Also, the consensus scoring uses general answers in establishing right responses to test items, hence, they may not give the significant result of the EI continuum (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). Further, Matthews et al. (2002) argued upon how ‘experts’ were elected in the expert scoring approach, while establishing the accurate answers for emotional intelligence questions and activities. The below Table 3.1 shows Emotional Intelligence Ability Tests.

Table 3.1 Emotional Intelligence Ability Tests

Measure	Authors	Reliability A	Reliability y test-retest	Predictive Validity	Incremental Validity	Convergent / Discriminant Validity	Factor Structure
EARS. Emotional Accuracy Research Scale	Mayer & Geher, 1996	Low (.24 for target scoring, and .53 for consensus scoring)	_____	_____	_____	Small and unstable correlations with self-report empathy	Unclear (4 factors)
EISC. Emotional Intelligence Scale for Children	Sullivan, 1999	Low to moderate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
MEIS. Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale	Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999	Good for Global ability EI(.70- .85), but low(.35-.66) for branches 3& 4 (better for consensus than for expert scoring)	_____	Unclear	_____	Small to moderate correlations with crystallized intelligence (Gc) Low correlations with the Big Five	Unclear (3 factors)
MSCEIT. Mayer Salovey & Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test	Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002	Better for version 2 than version 1(.68-.71)	_____	Wellbeing , verbal SAT scores.	Social deviance (over personality and verbal intelligence)	Convergence between general consensus and expert consensus scoring. Very low correlations (<.30) with trait EI measures	Unclear (4 factors)

FNEIPT. Freudenthaler & Neubauer Emotional Intelligence Performance Test	Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2003	Moderate: .69 for “managing Own emotions,” and .64 for “managing others’ emotions”	_____	_____	_____	“Managing own emotions” correlated with self-reported intrapersonal EI (.51) and, “managing others’ emotions” correlated with self-report Interpersonal EI (.25). Both subscales correlated with the Big Five (.18 to -.51)	Unclear (2 factors)
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Source: Pérez, Petrides & Furnham, Measuring Trait Emotional Intelligence in Trait Emotional Intelligence, London

3.3 THE TRAIT MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The Trait emotional intelligence refers to a group of emotional self - awareness at the basic level of personality characteristics (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). Another name given to this theory is trait emotional self - efficacy. In layman terms, trait EI is an individual's opinion of his own emotional capacity. Trait EI theory is an equipped model that identifies the intrinsic significance of emotional incident occurred. Several studies have been performed in a larger domain of trait EI. And certainly, the majority of the investigators use self - report questionnaires to derive outcome to the concepts of ability, competencies, and skills". (Pérez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005). The trait EI reveals that the concepts of "emotional intelligence" or " EQ " (BarOn, 1997) (Goleman, 1995)(Payne, 1985) (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) inculcate the combination of individuals qualities, like empathy, emotional expression, adaptability, and self – control and are fairly distinct from the cognitive abilities. Trait EI theory proposes a method to redescribe the later models so as to build a correlation between them, and the coordinate assessment techniques, to well-established theories of psychology. Trait EI model claim that some emotion synopsis will be helpful for few references, but not for all. For instance, being aloof or not obliging does not indicate that a person is emotionally weak, but is an individual characteristic that can be adjusted socially or emotionally (Rushton, Murray, & Paunonen, 1983). Evaluating emotional and other *intelligencesfausses* should not provide a significant difference from reviewing the personality, where a person's background has to be in line with particular job requirements (Pervin, 1968).It follows that no magic profile of the "emotionally intelligent " individual, who will excel in all aspects of life, exists. The notion that there is some archetypal "emotionally intelligent" individual who can be identified by proprietary tests and whom all leaders, managers, and employees should strive to emulate in order to succeed is, in all likelihood, a myth. Emotions are known to distort human judgment and decision - making (Shafir & LeBoeuf, 2002) as well as basic reasoning processes (Oaksford, Morris, Grainger, & Williams, 1996). The simplistic notion that "EQ is good for you " is also likely a myth. Emotion - based thinking tends to be intuitive, automatic, with low scientific rigor and low detail in judgment, in contrast to a more consciously analytic thinking, which is low in emotional (Croskerry & Norman, 2008). It is vital to remember that high trait EI scores are not necessarily adaptive and low scores is not necessarily maladaptive. First, very high scores on trait EI instruments may be indicative of hubris and self - promotion. Beyond this, there

are contexts in which high scores can have undesirable consequences. For example, in Petrides and Furnham (Petrides & Furnham, 2003) participants with high trait EI scores showed greater mood deterioration following the presentation of a short distressing video segment when compared to participants with low scores, while in Sevdalis, Petrides, and Harvey (Sevdalis, Petrides., & Harvey, 2007) high scorers showed greater mood deterioration following the recall of a poor real - life decision. Moreover, low trait EI scorers are more likely than their high - scoring counterparts to be straightforward and less likely to be afflicted by a need for self - verification and image management. Especially when it comes to predicting behavior, the desirability of particular trait EI profiles will always depend on the context and type of behavior that one seeks to predict. The sampling domain of trait EI Table 3.2 presents the sampling domain of trait EI (i.e. its constituent elements) that was derived from a content analysis of early models of EI and related constructs, such as alexithymia, effective communication, emotional expression, and empathy (Petrides K. , 2009). The aim was to include core elements common to more than a single model but to exclude peripheral elements appearing in only one specific conceptualization. This is analogous to procedures used in classical psychometric scale development, whereby the commonalities (shared core) of the various items comprising a scale are carried over into a total (internally consistent) score, their random or unique components (noise) being canceled out in the process. The systematic nature of this method is to be contrasted with the haphazard procedures on which other models are based, whereby the inclusion or exclusion of facets is typically the outcome of unstated decisions. The table 3.2 shows the Sampling Domain of Trait EI in Adults

Table 3.2 The Sampling Domain of Trait EI in Adults

Domain	Meaning
Adaptability	... flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions.
Assertiveness	... forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights.
Emotion expression	... capable of communicating their feelings to others.
Emotion management (others)	... capable of influencing other people ' s feelings.
Emotion perception (self and others)	... clear about their own and other people ' s feelings.
Emotion regulation	... capable of controlling their emotions.

Impulsiveness (low)	... reflective and less likely to give in to their urges.
Relationships	... capable of maintaining fulfilling personal relationships.
Self - esteem	... successful and self - confident.
Self – motivation	... driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity
Social awareness	... accomplished networkers with superior social skills.
Stress management	... capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress.
Trait empathy	... capable of taking someone else ’ s perspective.
Trait happiness	... cheerful and satisfied with their lives.
Trait Self-confidence	... confident and likely to “ look on the bright side of life.

Source: Petridis, K.V., *Ability and Trait Emotional Intelligence*

3.3.1 TRAIT META MOOD SCALE (TMMS)

The TMMS is heavily based on the initial model of Salovey and Mayer (1990). The TMMS has three factors, “attention to emotion”, “emotional clarity”, and “emotion repair”. This scale has contains 30 items, which are rated to on a 5-point Likert scale. Many researchers assumed that TMMS served a tool for global score. However, the TMMS was not intended to give a global score, which the researchers should take note while scrutinizing data and deriving conclusions. Also, the other drawback was that the TMMS was not planned to include the whole trait EI sampling sphere and, hence many mainstay elements of the concept are missing. (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995)

3.3.2 BAR ON EMOTIONAL QUOTIENT INVENTORY (EQI)

The EQ-i developed by Reuven Bar-on is one of the most commonly used measures of trait EI. Academically it is little unclear, as it is directly transformed to an EI questionnaire from inventory. EQ-I has 133 items, 15 subscales, and 5 factors named: “intrapersonal”, “interpersonal”, “adaptation”, “stress management”, and “general mood”. Although, there is

no hard core proof for the construct of its structure, as the questionnaire appears to be having unifactorial (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). However, Palmer, Manocha, Gignac, and Stough (2003), discovered a proper solution in item-wise factor analysis, having six subscales, in place of 15 subscales mentioned in the original Bar-On inventory. One more constraint of the EQ-i is that it contains quite a few unimportant elements like “problem-solving”, “reality tests” and “independence” and overlooked many significant elements. For example, “emotion perception”, “emotion expression”, “emotion regulation”. The EQ-i embraces all the sampling area of trait EI better way compared to several other scales (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

3.3.3 SCHUTTE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE (SEIS)

The SEIS comprises of 33 items and is rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Its psychometric properties have been examined in several types of research (Austin, Saklofske, Huang, & McKenney, 2004)(Petrides & Furnham, 2000b); (Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003) and it is discovered three to four factors. A major limitation of the SEIS is that it partially covers the trait EI domain, as it is entirely based on the three aspects suggested by Salovey and Mayer (1990) model. Despite a few limitations, SEIS is been widely used and can be utilized as a small measure of global trait EI (Schutte et al., 2001)

3.3.4 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY (ECI)

Designed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and colleagues in 1999, the ECI is intended to assess emotional competencies and positive social behaviors (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000); (Goleman, 1995) (Sala, 2002). The ECI contains 110 items measuring 20 competencies that are structured into four clusters: (1) Self-Perception, (2) Social Awareness, (3) Self-Management, and (4) Social Skills. The ECI has a 360-degree assessment system that incorporates self-ratings, peer ratings, and supervisor ratings (Perez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005). The internal consistency reliability of the self-assessment ECI scales lies within 0.61 to 0.85. Internal consistency reliability for the peer and supervisor rating scales varies 0.80 to 0.95 (Sala, 2002). The researchers of ECI claim that the validity proof has been adopted from the Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ), which is a forerunner of the ECI model. However, the ECI authors have permitted other researchers to evaluate few items. And so few autonomous evaluation of the reliability and validity of the ECI have been carried out and are made available. Investigators who have studied the subject matter of the ECI competencies

claim that they few elements of ECI coincide with four of the Big Five personality dimensions like Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, Extraversion, and Openness (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). By and large, it can be concluded that the discriminant and predictive validity for the ECI is not presented, and the scale does not earn much significant unless peer-reviewed experimental research using ECI are performed.

3.3.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IPIP SCALES (EIPIP)

The EIPIP Scales refers to Emotional Intelligence International Personality Item Pool. It covers 68 items categorized into seven factors: “positive expressivity”, “negative expressivity”, “attending to emotions”, “emotion-based decision making”, “responsive joy”, “responsive distress”, and “empathic concern” (Barchard, 2001). It provides gender-based internal consistency values for each of the seven factors, ranging from .59 to .83. However, the use of EI-IPIP is not found to be used in the Emotional Intelligence research (Pérez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005).

3.3.6 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SELF REGULATION SCALE (EISRS; Martínez Pons, 2000)

EISRS scale is inspired from the Emotional Intelligence model of Martínez-Pons which focuses on self-regulation. This scale tries to combine two models - Bandura’s social-cognitive theory and the most popular Emotional Intelligence test by Salovey and Mayer (1990). The EISRS encompasses of 52 items responded to on a 7-point Likert scale, 10 subscales and four higher-order dimensions: “motivation”, “goal setting”, “strategy usage”, and “self-evaluation of strategy effectiveness and adjustment”. Martínez-Pons (2000) presents data based on a sample of 100 adults showing adequate internal consistency reliabilities for the EISRS. To our knowledge, this scale has not yet been used in other studies in the literature.

3.3.7 DULEWICZ & HIGGS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE (DHEIQ; Dulewicz& Higgs, 2001; Higgs &Dulewicz, 1999)

The DHEIQ was framed for bringing change in employees at their workplace. This questionnaire is influenced by Goleman’s work on EI. Some concepts were extracted from his books.

The DHEIQ comprises of 69 questions divided into seven sub scales - self-perception, influence, decisiveness, interpersonal sensitivity, motivation, conscientiousness and integrity, and resilience. However, the DHEIQ is not been much utilized as there is a lack of clarity about its reliability and validity.

3.3.8 TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE (TEIQue; Petrides, 2001; Petrides &Furnham, 2003; Petrides et al., 2003)

Since last many years, various different features of the TEIQue are brought into existence and are gaining importance in terms of its reliability and validity. It is assumed that the TEIQuea trait EI model, that considers emotional intelligence as an individual personality trait, which stands at the bottom of all personality ranks (e.g., Petrides &Furnham, 2000b, 2001, 2003). The newest edition of the TEIQue includes 153 questions which are measured on 15 subscales, having four factors. However, the TEIQue is still under scrutiny as far as its overall components are considered. Past researches confirm four factors of this model, they are well-being, self-control skills, emotional skills, and social skills. Nonetheless, experimental research employing various TEIQue format and edition is been found in the studies by Furnham and Petrides (2003); Petrides and Furnham (2003); Petrides et al. (2004).

3.3.9 SJÖBERG PERSONALITY TEST BATTERY (SPTB; Sjöberg, 2001)

The SPTB is an exhaustive Test which is also known as Battery which evaluates various diverse personality dimensions and features, embracing the trait EI test. The whole battery includes 789 questions which are known as items, rated on a 4-point Likert scale. This Battery has a major chunk of 21 SPTB factor scales; four of these factors of EI are listed here: introversion, empathy, emotional inhibition, Machiavellianism, alexithymia, self-actualization, and external attribution. This SPTB is a wholesome battery test which has tried to capture all the facets of Personality test which examines the emotional quotient of an individual

3.3.10 TAPIA EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE INVENTORY (TEII; Tapia, 2001)

The TEII is an EI model which at large is mystified with the cognitive ability model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) through self-report items. However, one should note that the TEII gauges trait EI as its constituents measures individuals' self-perceptions and the reaction, instead of emotionally rated behavior skills. The TEII comprises of 41 items divided into four subscales - empathy, utilization of feelings, handling relationships, and self-control.

3.3.11 WORKPLACE SWINBURNE UNIVERSITY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TEST (Workplace SUEIT; Palmer & Stough, 2002)

This is one of another EI test to be implemented to check the intensity of EI in organizational employees. The Work-place SUEIT consists of 64 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale. It is divided into 5 subscales which are globally accepted. They are - emotional recognition and expression, understanding emotions, emotions direct cognition, emotional management, and emotional control. The Work-place SUEIT is a lately developed scale and hence the reliability and validity processes are still under scrutiny.

3.3.12 WORKGROUP EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE PROFILE (WEIP; Jordan et al., 2002)

This test was developed to locate Emotional Intelligence of a single person when working in a team. WEIP has 27 items in its constituency which is measured on a 7-point Likert scale and evaluating seven factors structured in two wider categories namely intrapersonal and interpersonal. Past studies on WEIP has out shown that organizational teams consisting of employees having a good level of EI execute work in a much positive manner than the people with low intensity (Jordan et al., 2002).

3.3.13 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE (EIS; Vander Zee et al., 2002)

The Emotional Intelligence Scale consists of 85 questions ranked on a 5-point Likert scale and evaluates 17 subscales. EIS has a three-factor model which involves - empathy, autonomy, and emotional control. The reliability level for maximum subscales is found low, with majority values less than .50 points.

3.3.14 WONG & LAW EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002)

The WLEIS is a scale which has 16 items to be rated on a 7-point Likert scale and assesses four dimensions - self-emotion appraisal, emotion appraisal of others, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion. The researchers accounted a sound reliability and validity for this measure and hence we can consider it as a consistent measurement for evaluating emotional intelligence. In one of the studies, the data used displayed that that results on the WLEIS are interconnected to job work and work satisfaction.

3.3.15 LIOUSSINE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE (LEIQ; Lioussine, 2003)

This EI test is framed in the Russian language, having 38 questions measured on a 4-point Likert scale. Its constitution embraces eight subscales and two broad aspects- intrapersonal and interpersonal. The LEIQ Test being lately adopted, its reliability and validity have still been examined.

The below Table 3.3 displays the summary of Trait EI measures of Emotional Intelligence.

Table 3.3 Summary of Trait EI measures of Emotional Intelligence

Measure	Authors	Reliability A	Reliability test-retest	Predictive Validity	Incremental Validity	Convergent / Discriminant Validity	Factor Structure
TMMS. Trait Meta Mood Scale	Salovey et al., 1995	.70-.85	_____	Depression, mood recovery, goal orientation	_____	Moderate correlations with the Big Five	3 factors, but no global score
EQ-i. Emotional Quotient Inventory	Bar-On, 1997	Generally good (about .85)	Good	Mental health, coping, work and marital satisfaction	_____	Moderate to high correlations with the Big Five	Unclear
SEIS. Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scales	Schutte et al., 1998	.70-.85	_____	Social support, life and marital satisfaction, depression, performance on cognitive tasks	Some evidence vis-a-vis the Big Five	Medium-to-high correlations with the Big Five	Unclear (3 or 4 factors), global score

EI-IPIP. Emotional Intelligence based IPIP Scales	Barchard, 2001	.70-.85	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
ECI. Emotional Competence Inventory	Boyatzis, Goleman, & Hay/McB er, 1999	.70-.85 for global score >.85 for social skills	Adequate, but based on small samples	Moderate correlations with managerial styles and organizational climate. Low correlations with career success	_____	Unclear (small samples); uncorrelated with critical thinking and with analytical reasoning	Unclear (4 factors)
EISRS. Emotional Intelligence Self- Regulation	Martinez- Pons, 2000	.75-.94	_____	Depression, life satisfaction, positive affect	_____	Unclear	Unclear (1 factor)

Scale							
DHEIQ. Dulewicz & Higgs Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire	Dulewicz & Higgs, 2001	Low to moderate (.54-.71)	_____	Organizational level advancement	_____	Unclear	Unclear
TEIQue. Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire	E.g., Petrides, 2001; Petrides, Pérez, & Furnham, 2003	Generally good (about .85)	Good (.50 to .82; global score .78; 12-month period)	Mental health (depression, personality disorders, dysfunctional attitudes), adaptative coping styles, job stress, job performance, organizational commitment,	Good vis-a-vis Giant Three, Big Five, and positive and negative effect	The TEIQue can be isolated in Giant Three and Big Five factor space	4 factors, global score

				deviant behavior at school, sensitivity to mood induction			
SPTB. Sjöberg Personality Test Battery (EI Scale)	Sjöberg, 2001	.70-.85	_____	Antiauthoritarian attitudes, emotion identification skills, social orientation	_____	Moderate correlations with extraversion (.37) and neuroticism (-.50)	_____
TEII. Tapia Emotional Intelligence Inventory	Tapia, 2001	.70-.85	Good (.60 to .70)	_____	_____	_____	4 factors, global score
SUEIT. Swinburne University	Palmer & Stough, 2002	Generally good (about .85)	Good (.82 to .94; 1-month	Well-being, occupational stress	_____	Moderate correlations with	_____

Emotional Intelligence Test			period			neuroticism (-.41), extraversion (.44), openness (.27)	
WEIP-3. Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (version 3)	Jordan et al., 2002	.70-.85	_____	Self-monitoring, empathy	_____	Small to moderate correlations with TMMS	Unclear (7 factors)
EIS. Emotional Intelligence Scales	Van der Zee et al., 2002	Adequate for other ratings' (.70-.85). Low for self-ratings (<.60).	_____	Academic performance, social success	Some evidence vis-a-vis the Big Five	Low correlations with IQ. Moderate to high correlations with the Big Five	Unclear (3 factors)
WLEIS. Wong	Wong &	.70-.85	_____	Job	_____	Small negative	4 factors,

& Law Emotional Intelligence Scales Wong & Law, 2002	Law, 2002			performance and Satisfaction. Organizational commitment, turnover intention		correlations with IQ	global score
LEIQ. Lioussine Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire	Lioussine, 2003	.70-.85	_____	_____	_____	Moderate correlations with the Big Five	Unclear (7 factors)

Source: Pérez, Petrides&Furnham, Measuring Trait Emotional Intelligence in Trait Emotional Intelligence, London

3.4 ABILITY EI VERSUS TRAIT EI

The ability approach considers Emotional Intelligence as one kind of intelligence and is different from individual personality character. It mainly focuses on person's way of thinking and interpreting the situations and reacting through emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997); (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004)(Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008). Accurately, EI encompasses of four interconnected units of emotion based skills assembled in chronological order from the fundamental stage (i.e., awareness of emotions, identifying the type of emotion) to the most advanced and complicated phase, that includes emotional assistance in generating ideas, perceptive of emotions being felt (ability to evaluate emotions and recognize their results), and managing emotions by acclimatizing emotions and temper in self and others.

The uppermost unit, managing emotions consist of the extra ordinary talent and represent an interface of motivational, emotional, and cognitive factors that must be recognized and balanced in order to manage and cope with feelings successfully (Mayer J. , Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). Managing emotions effectively requires being open to feelings, knowing the most effective emotion-management technique for a given situation, and also having the expertise to employ them appropriately (Brackett & Katulak, 2006)(Casey, Garrett, Brackett, & Rivers, 2008)(Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, 2002). Among the four ability EI branches, emotional management abilities are supposed to represent the most important EI components for the prediction of relevant EI outcomes, that is, indicators of personal adaptation and social functioning (Matthews et al., 2004).

Similar to the assessment of cognitive intelligence, the ability approach has prompted the construction of putatively objective MP-measures of EI (e.g., the MEIS; (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999), and its successor, the MSCEIT; (Mayer J. , Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003). The latter comprises eight subtests (two for each branch) for the measurement of the four-branch model of EI. The highest branch (managing emotions), for instance, is assessed by two scenario-based subtests requiring subjects to determine how effective several different courses of action would be in managing their own emotions (five scenarios; four responses each) and the emotions of others (three scenarios; three responses each) in various emotionally laden situations. The individuals' test scores are determined by two methods, that

is, consensus scoring and expert scoring, which turned out to be correlated quite highly (Brackett & Salovey, 2004)(Mayer J. , Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

In contrast to the ability approach, the trait perspective envisages EI as a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions located at the lower levels of trait taxonomies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001)(Petrides, Furnham, & Mavroveli, 2007). The sampling domain of the trait EI framework was derived by Petrides and Furnham(2001) via content analysis of early EI models including those of Bar-On (1997), Goleman (1995), and Salovey and Mayer (1990) and cognate constructs such as alexithymia, effective communication, emotional expression, and empathy (following the rationale of including core facets common to more than one specific model). In this context, Petrides and Furnham suggest their formal conception of trait EI to be the guiding framework for the integration and systematization of research on the different facets of EI encompassed by the various existing mixed models (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). It includes 15 facets organized under four factors (*well-being, self-control, emotionality, sociability*) and aims to provide a comprehensive coverage of the key affect-related aspects of personality (Freudenthaler, Neubauer, Gabler, Scherl, & Rindermann, 2008). Consequently, trait EI is not distinct from personality constructs, but part of them. A central aim of this dispositional approach is to integrate variance of emotion-related individual differences that are presently scattered across the higher-order dimensions of personality (e.g., Giant Three, Big Five), as well as variance that lies outside these dimensions (Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy, & Roy, 2007)(Petrides, Furnham, & Mavroveli, 2007)(Petrides, Pérez-González, & Furnham, 2007)(Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). The gathering of affect-related personality facets under the same umbrella (i.e., the trait EI construct) is supposed to offer predictive and, especially explanatory advantages.

In view of some potential shortcomings of early self-report EI measures, Petrides and colleagues embarked on the development of a comprehensive inventory, the TEIQue(Petrides & Furnham, 2003), predicated on their trait EI framework and theory.

3.5 A CRITICAL LOOK AT CURRENT MEASURES OF EI AND THEIR LIMITATIONS

Overall, there are several promising findings for both major approaches to the study of EI. Research with MP-measures has provided some evidence that ability EI meets its underlying conceptual (e.g., content and factorial validity, low or non-significant correlation with personality traits), developmental (e.g., age related differences) and correlational (e.g., moderate correlations with other “intelligences”) criteria (e.g., (Brackett & Salovey, 2004); (Day & Carroll, 2004); (Márquez, Martín, & Brackett, 2006); (Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003); (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999), 2003, 2004; (O’Connor & Little, 2003) ; (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001), (Schulte, Ree, & Carretta, 2004); (Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004); (Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004); (Zeidner, Shani-Zinovich, Matthews, & Roberts, 2005) Moreover, there is some accumulating evidence of the validity of ability EI in predicting various indicators of social functioning and workplace outcomes (e.g., Brackett et al., 2004, 2005; Coté & Miners, 2006; Kerr et al., 2006; Lopes et al., 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005)

While MP-measures of EI have been reported to suffer from problems in relation to reliability (cf. Matthews et al., 2004), self-report measures of EI tend to show satisfactory to excellent internal consistency reliability as well as decent levels of temporal stability (e.g., Bar-On, 1997, 2000; Petrides, 2001, Tett et al., 2005). In accordance with trait EI theory, self-report measures of EI have been found to display convergent relations to conceptually related personality traits and cognate constructs (e.g., Greven et al., 2008; Mikolajczak et al., 2006, 2007; Van Rooy et al., 2005; Vernon et al., 2008), but also near-zero correlations with cognitive intelligence (e.g., Derksen et al., 2002; Newsome et al., 2000; Van der Zee et al., 2002; Saklofske et al., 2003; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004). Moreover, there is an expanding body of evidence suggesting that trait EI is a powerful predictor of a wide range of criteria, encompassing various indicators of personal adaptation and social functioning (e.g., Austin et al., 2005; Extremera & Fernández - Berrocal, 2005; Freudenthaler, Neubauer, et al., 2006; Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Greven et al., 2008; Mavroveli et al., 2007; Mikolajczak et al., 2007; Palmer et al., 2002; Papousek et al., 2008, in press; Petrides, Frederickson, et al., 2004; Petrides & Furnham, 2006; Petrides, Pérez, et al., 2007; Petrides, Pita, et al., 2007; Rindermann, 2009; Saklofske et al., 2003, 2007; Schutte et al., 2001; 2007; Sevdalis et al.,

2007; Smith, Ciarrocchi, et al., 2008; Smith, Heaven, et al., 2008; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004).

Despite these promising findings, both kinds of EI measures have been criticized for several limitations (e.g., Bastian et al., 2005; Brackett et al., 2006; Brody, 2004; Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2005; Gohm, 2004; Matthews et al., 2002, 2004; Pérez et al., 2005; Wilhelm, 2005), suggesting that complementary measurement tools are seemingly required to allow for an effective assessment of EI but also to clarify some contentious issues (e.g., Rivers, Brackett, Salovey et al., 2007; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004; Zeidner et al., 2004). One major objection against self-report measures of EI refers to their potential limitations in assessing emotional abilities or competencies accurately (Brackett et al., 2006; Mayer et al., 2004; Matthews et al., 2004; Zeidner et al., 2004; Wilhelm, 2005). According to these authors, the correctness of self-assessed EI largely depends on the accuracy of an individual's self-concept and might also be biased by social desirability factors, deception and impression management. The proposed limitations of self-report measures are suggested to be directly reflected in their lacking correspondence with ability EI measures, indicating that individuals may be notoriously bad in estimating their actual emotional abilities, and their judgments may be prone to bias or self-enhancement (e.g., Brackett et al., 2006; Gohm et al., 2005; Matthews et al., 2004).

In fact, very low and often non-significant correlations have been found between self-report and MP-measures of EI in numerous studies (e.g., Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2004; Gohm & Clore, 2002, Livingstone & Day, 2005; Lopes et al., 2003; O'Connor & Little, 2003; Van Rooy et al., 2005; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004), even when the same components were assessed by these two kinds of EI measures. Brackett et al. (2006), for instance, reported a correlation of $r = .19$ between the MSCEIT and the SREIS, which are both based on Mayer and Salovey's (1997) ability EI model. Moreover, global self-estimates of EI were moderately associated with the individuals' SREIS scores but not related to their MSCEIT scores. The latter finding substantially deviates from those obtained for cognitive abilities. A meta-analysis of 55 studies by Mabe and West (1982) yielded an average correlation of $r = .34$ between objective intelligence test scores and corresponding self-estimates. The comparatively weaker relationship between self-assessed EI and performance EI could possibly be due to the fact that individuals may not have preconceived notions about their EI (Brackett et al., 2006). Alternatively, this finding could also suggest that MP-

measures of EI, such as the MSCEIT, do not assess individuals' actual emotional abilities adequately (see below).

According to trait EI proponents, the lacking overlap of self-report trait EI measures (encompassing emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions, referring to typical performance) with performance-based ability EI measures (encompassing emotion-related cognitive abilities, referring to maximum performance) is fully in line with trait EI theory, which emphasizes an explicit distinction between these two constructs (Petrides, Furnham, et al., 2007). Considering that trait EI measures aim to capture, amongst others, whether (or to what extent) individuals' "ability EI" translates into practice (Mikolajczak et al., 2008), the weak overlap between performance-based and self-reported measures of EI could also be due to a rather marginal propensity of individuals to use their emotion-related cognitive abilities when they show their typical behaviour in emotional situations. One aim of my research was to examine this assumption by using more objective indicators of the individuals' typical performance in emotional situations than self-report measures of trait EI (cf. Gohm, 2004; Matthews et al., 2004).

I agree with the ability EI proponents that self-perceptions of emotional abilities or competencies can be incorrect because they depend on the accuracy of the individuals' self-concept. Yet, it may be doubted whether the low correlations between self-report and MP-measures of EI have been affected by deliberate faking tendencies. The vast majority of studies in this context were run with university students conducting a confidential survey. Hence, students had no reason to fake in such a situation (cf. Kluemper, 2008). Related to that, Saklofske et al. (2003) only found a very low correlation of .12 between social desirability and Schutte et al.'s (1998) self-report EI scale, using a sample of undergraduate students.

The two measurement approaches to the assessment of EI also yielded divergent findings with regard to sex differences. While women have consistently been shown to perform better than men on MP-measures of EI (e.g., Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Brackett et al., 2006; Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Day & Carroll, 2004; Mayer et al., 1999), there is only some evidence of women's superiority in self-report measures of interpersonal EI components (e.g., Austin et al., 2007; Bar-On et al., 2000; Dawda & Hart, 2000; Saklofske et al., 2003). In contrast, men scored higher than women on self-report measures of intrapersonal EI components,

especially those referring to the assessment of self-control (e.g., Bar-On et al., 2000, Extremera et al., 2007; Mikolajczak et al., 2007; Petrides, in press).

According to Brackett et al. (2006), the different findings obtained for performance-based vs. self-report EI measures are not necessarily surprising as men generally tend to overestimate their abilities, whereas women tend to underestimate theirs (cf. Lenney, 1977; Roberts, 1991). However, this interpretation is rather vague and inconclusive, considering that current MP-measures of EI do not explicitly distinguish between intra- and interpersonal emotional abilities. It is also largely undermined by empirical findings, suggesting that self-estimates of intrapersonal EI components are relevant predictors of personal adaptation (e.g., Bastian et al., 2005; Gignac, 2006; Mikolajczak et al., 2006, 2007; Palmer et al., 2002; Petrides, Pérez-González, et al., 2007; Petrides, Pita, et al., 2007; Schutte et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 2007). Moreover, a huge body of research has shown that men on average report less stress (e.g., Almeida et al., 1998; Cohen et al., 1983; Levenstein et al., 1993; Schulz et al., 2002), less somatic complaints (e.g., Brähler et al., 1999; Carroll & Niven, 1993), less depression proneness (Hautzinger & Bailer, 1993; Zuckerman, 1989), and less sleeping disorders (Roberts et al., 1999) than women, and also tend to exhibit comparatively lower levels of negative affectivity (Smith & Reise, 1998) and neuroticism (Bolger & Schilling, 1991; Borkenau & Ostendorf, 1991). To get a more detailed picture of potential sex differences in emotional abilities or competencies, I considered it important to extend the previous research by using measures of intrapersonal vs. interpersonal EI components which allow for a simultaneous assessment of the individuals' typical vs. maximal performance in these two domains.

Most self-report EI measures have been criticized for their potential lack of divergent validity in relation to personality traits, questioning the uniqueness of trait EI as a construct and its proposed incremental utility for predicting human performance (e.g., Davies et al., 1998; Dawda & Hart, 2000; MacCann et al., 2003; Mayer et al., 2008; Newsome et al., 2000; O'Connor & Little, 2003). In this context, Matthews et al. (2004) pointed out that comprehensive trait EI measures are little more than proxies for the Giant Three or the Big Five, weighted most strongly toward low neuroticism (see also Brackett & Mayer, 2003). These objections, however, are overly pessimistic and have to be qualified for several reasons. First, Petrides and colleagues could repeatedly demonstrate the isolation of an oblique trait EI factor in both Eysenckian and Big Five factor space (Petrides & Furnham,

2001; Petrides, Pita, et al., 2007). Second, there is accumulating evidence of the incremental validity of trait EI measures (beyond the Big Five and the Giant Three) in predicting a wide range of criteria, particularly referring to individual differences in personal adaptation (e.g., life satisfaction, emotional reactivity, coping styles, stress, depression, loneliness, rumination, personality disorders). That applies particularly to the TEIQue (e.g., Chamorro-Premuzic et al. 2007; Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Mikolajczak et al., 2007; Petrides, Pérez-González, et al., 2007; Petrides, Pita, et al., 2007) but also to other trait EI questionnaires, such as the EQ-i (e.g., Petrides, Pérez-González, et al., 2007; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004), the AES (e.g., Saklofske et al., 2003), the TMMS (e.g., Bastian et al., 2005), or the WLEIS (Kluemper, 2008).

These findings suggest that measures of trait EI or trait emotional self-efficacy (assessing what individuals' believe themselves capable of in various emotional circumstances, cf. Bandura, 1997) may influence long-term indicators of adaptation, whether or not they are accurate (Roberts et al., 2001). According to Gohm et al. (2005), feelings of self-control, for instance, can be regarded as a necessary precondition to cope successfully with stressful events. Without them individuals may feel besieged by negative life-events and, consequently, an adaptive progress toward a solution is unlikely. Hence, feelings of self-control are supposed to affect whether (and to what extent) individuals attempt to cope actively with emotion-eliciting and stressful events. Even though perceptions of self-control can be inaccurate (e.g., some individuals may overestimate their emotional management abilities or competencies), they, nevertheless, may be substantially associated with the adequacy of individuals' actual behavior typically shown in such situations (cf. Mikolajczak et al., 2008). The relationship between self-estimates and criteria-based evaluations of behavioral adequacy as well as their relevance to personal adaptation are further issues, which I have addressed.

Last but not least, self-report trait EI measures appear to be better predictors of personal adaptation indicators than MP-measures of ability EI, considering that the MSCEIT, for the most part, displayed only weak or nonsignificant associations with criterion measures such as coping styles, perceived stress, well-being, life satisfaction or depression (e.g., Bastian et al., 2005; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Brackett et al., 2006; Gohm et al., 2005; Lopes et al., 2003; Livingstone & Day, 2005; Brackett et al., 2006; Rode et al., 2008). However, the predictive superiority of trait EI measures in this context could also partly be due to facet duplication or

common method assessment. For instance, comprehensive trait EI inventories such as the EQ-i or the TEIQue include measures of Self-confidence, happiness, emotional well-being or positive mood, whereas positive emotions could be better seen as EI outcomes, dependent on successful management of challenging encounters (Matthews et al., 2004). This objection (also referring to facet duplication) could be somewhat mitigated by Petrides, Pita, et al. (2007) in a recent study, demonstrating that the TEIQue is also able to incrementally predict a variety of relevant EI outcomes over and above the Big Five, even when the ‘well-being’ component (encompassing self-esteem, trait happiness, and trait Self-confidence) was excluded from the analyses.

With respect to the rather disappointing findings for the MSCEIT as mentioned above, ability EI proponents themselves recently indicated that performance-based measures (in comparison to self-report measures) are not always more indicative of true emotional skills (Grewal et al., 2006). More precisely, these authors stated: In some particular instances, people’s self-knowledge of their own emotional skills may provide better predictions for various life outcomes. This may be especially true for the Managing Emotions subscale of the MSCEIT because this skill is presumably the most difficult, complex, and context dependent. Ability measures may not capture the intricacies of emotion regulation in terms of time, place, event, and specific emotions. In some cases, especially when provided with specific questions about particular contexts, we might expect participants to be able to provide a better idea of their tendency to regulate poorly, because, they, in fact, do know themselves best. (p. 45)

Related to that, Petrides and colleagues (e.g., Petrides, Furnham, et al., 2004, 2007) argued – along with others (Robinson & Clore, 2002; Watson, 2000) – that the performance approach to the measurement of EI is largely undermined by the subjectivity of emotional experience. In view of this limitation, which particularly applies to the intrapersonal domain of EI (because much of the information required is available only to the individuals themselves), it becomes clear that the proposed sampling domain of ability EI (which includes, for instance, the ability to perceive one’s own emotion accurately) cannot be assessed comprehensively by performance-based measures. Nevertheless, I think the individuals’ knowledge about emotions and also the adequacy or effectiveness of their emotion-related behaviors can be assessed more objectively and accurately by experts in the field of emotions than by the individuals themselves.

Even though it is assumed that EI generalizes across different kinds of event and challenge, several authors have pointed out that individual differences in emotional management ability or tendencies may vary as a function of emotion and emotional situation (Grewal et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2004; Rivers, Brackett, Katulak, et al., 2007). Accordingly, both knowledge-related and behaviour-related measures of emotional management abilities or competencies should encompass a great variety of both discrete emotions and specific (intra- and interpersonal) contexts. This does not hold for the two emotional management tasks of the MSCEIT, which refer to a very limited number of emotional situations (intrapersonal: five situations; interpersonal: three situations). Amongst others, this limitation may have also prompted the authors of the MSCEIT to combine these two – moderately intercorrelated (cf. Mayer et al., 2003) – tasks to a composite measure of emotional management, instead of using them separately in previous research. However, it seems rather questionable whether the composite emotional management scale itself provides a valid indicator of the individuals' global emotional management capacity.

A latest research by Goleman and Boyatzis (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2017) suggest that by simply reviewing the 12 competencies self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management empathy, positive outlook, self-control, achievement, influence, conflict management, teamwork and inspirational leadership in one's mind can give a sense of where you might need some development

Several authors objected that there is a contradiction between what ability EI measures claim to be measuring and what they actually measure; that is, at best, declarative knowledge of emotions (Brody, 2004; Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2005, Gohm, 2004). From my point of view, MP-measures of emotional management abilities – requiring subjects to rate the effectiveness of behavioral alternatives in various emotional situations – do not directly assess emotional management per se, but rather emotional knowledge about the effectiveness of various behaviours, indicating what individuals are (theoretically) capable of doing when highly motivated (cf. Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2007, 2008). However, individuals may only use this capacity to a certain extent when behaving typically in emotional situations (cf. Gohm, 2004; McCrae, 2000; Wilhelm, 2005). Hence, validity evidence is clearly needed, showing that the availability of emotional knowledge demonstrated by high scorers on MP-measures of EI translates into behaving accordingly.

According to a study by Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004), an successful evaluation of EI should be capable to measure how individuals amalgamate emotional information they receive and encounter and how they feel and react to their emotions. Also, it should verify how would they behave in the same emotional occurring daily in their life (Rivers, Brackett, Salovey et al., 2007).

To conclude, we can say that the above remarks have general inference revealing that the skill of manipulating emotions is measured by assessing the genuine behavior of a person in different emotional situations. Laboratory experiment of emotions in such situations is unreal and ineffective as a person's emotions are short lived. It varies from time to time. Also, the subject experts should check the consistency in individual's emotional behavior. If they express the same type of emotions in every different situation, then the conclusion is to be made clear that he lacks emotional flexibility. But when a person displays a variety of emotions in dissimilar situations, then he is to be judged accordingly and results should be generated based on the honesty and his genuine behavior with respect to the situation tested. (cf. Rivers, Brackett, Katulak, et al., 2007)

Chapter 4

**RESEARCH
METHODOLOGY**

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

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4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter details out the problem statement, hypothesis and research methodology for the present study. It explains the research objectives and a suitable methodology to achieve those objectives. The objectives of this study were to identify the level of Emotional Competence of the front-end salespeople of the organized retail in major cities of Gujarat State. This involved an exhaustive study of the demographic characteristics and their level of emotional competence. Second, was the identification of various factors in maintaining the emotional competence of sales people. This was done by detecting the factors through field survey and comparing them across the demographics. Third, the perceived effect of each factor of emotional competence was studied. In addition, the study also assessed emotional competencies and its factors distinguish among low, medium, and high performances. This was followed by measure the relationship between emotional competence and sales performance. (based on outcomes, behavior, and professional development). The research methodology has to be robust in order to minimize errors in data collection and analysis. Owing to this, various methodologies namely survey, interview (structured) was chosen for data collection. This chapter describes the problem statement, hypothesis, pilot testing; participants of the study, instrumentation did for the study, data collection, and data analysis procedures of the entire study.

4.2 CLASSIFICATION OF STUDY

The study was classified into five sections. Section I, II, III, IV and V. Section I included designing a study that was a collective mixture of applied and theoretical research which can address existing trends and issues in the retail industry. Section II discusses studying the previous literature and information to detect a survey tool that measures the level of emotional competence and the factors affecting the emotional competence of sales people in the retail industry such as Self-Perception, Self-Confidence, Interpretation of Unspoken Cues, and Thoughtfulness etc. From various literature studies, it was found that there were several models to measure emotional intelligence/competence. Validity and reliability were also ensured before confirming the model for measurement of Emotional competence. In Section III, a sample of front line sales people of organized retail was casually chosen for surveying to check the reliability and validity of the sample and the scale used. In section IV, data collection was done and in section, V data analysis was performed.

Stage I. Introduction to Topic and practical research in Retail Industry

Prior research on emotional competence failed to address the significant facets of EC like knowledge, talent, and capabilities which are essential for any sales people to execute better. Those studies mainly emphasized on detecting the factors of emotional competence but did not work on measuring the level of EC. Furthermore, previous research failed to ascertain how EC and its factors distinguish amongst low, medium and high performers. The present study considers challenges and issues that did not exist when the previous studies on emotional competence were performed.

Stage II. Review of Literature

Stage II of this research was intended to analyze the applicable literature concerning emotional competence and its effect on organizational performance. Literature was studied and examined for understanding the development and growth of the concept of emotional competence, factors of emotional competence, and its importance to organizational success. Additionally, literature review also concentrated on the several models of emotional intelligence. After studying the literature review, research gap was recognized.

Stage III. Sample selection, developing Questionnaire and Pilot Study

Using the non-probability convenience sampling method, 600 employees of sales people from retail industry from major cities of Gujarat State were chosen for the survey. Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS), which is a standardized scale, was used for this research. A pilot study was conducted for 50 respondents.

Stage IV. Data Collection and Field Survey

Stage IV entailed on data collection of 600 respondents i.e. front line sales people working in the retail industry of major cities of Gujarat State.

Stage V Analysis and Interpretation of Data

Post data collection, data analysis, and interpretation were conducted with the help of statistical program SPSS. In the next stage IV, research hypotheses were developed, total five hypotheses were formed. The subsequent stage V, defines the research design, including the sampling. In the next stage VI, survey questionnaire of SEIS (Schutte Emotional Intelligence

Scale) was used for analysis. Thereafter, in stage VII a pilot-testing was conducted. Subsequently, in stage VIII, data collection was done for all 600 respondents. Later in stage IX, data analysis was done. Besides, the hypotheses developed in stage IV were tested. In the last stage X, the data analysis was formally interpreted, the report was made and formal write-up was prepared. Also, in this stage key findings, major conclusion and significant recommendations of the research were mentioned.

4.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

“Don’t bring the personal problems to work” is one disparity of the argument that emotions are inappropriate in the workplace. In business decisions, the emotions should be kept at a *lower level* and everything should be based on information, logic and practicality, with emotions kept to a minimum (G.Radhika, 2000).

Some people may assume, for a variety of reasons, that emotional neutrality is an ideal, and try to keep feelings out of sight. Such people work and relate in a certain way: usually, they come across as rigid, detached or fearful, and fail to participate fully in the life of the workplace. It is not a good sign for the organization for such people to move into management roles. (G.Radhika, 2000)

The same would be true for people who emote excessively, who tell that how they feel about everything. Simply being around them can be exhausting. Developing emotional intelligence in the workplace acknowledges that emotions are always present and doing something intelligent with them. People differ enormously in their skills with which they use their own emotions and react to the emotions of others and that can make the difference between a good manager and a bad one.

Effective management of organizations and human resources is facing enormous challenges. Organizations are downsizing, re-engineering themselves to compete in the global market and facing an explosion of available information (Luthans, 1998).The matter of concerns in organization involve people handling different roles, emotional intelligence must become a determining factor for their effective management. It has also been found that ultimately it is the emotional and personal competencies that we need to identify and measure if we want to be able to predict performance at workplace resulting in its effectiveness, thereby enhancing

the worth of the human capital. In this scenario, the competencies possessed by the people will have an attitude on the extent to which they can actualize their emotional intelligence.

Here, an attempt is made to assess the level of emotional competence of front line sales professionals in organized retail outlets of Gujarat state and to identify whether the organizational leaders are giving equal opportunities to their employees in developing or enhancing their level of EC.

4.4 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The broad objective of this research is to identify the level of emotional competence, and its impact on the sales performance of retail sales people. The study focused on the sales people of organized retail industries of selected cities of Gujarat state. The study is aimed to identify the factors in maintaining Emotional Competence in sales people of the retail industry. It also identifies the importance of each factor of Emotional Competence. Through this research, the researcher also intends to find out whether there are any differences in demographics and emotional competence of sales people.

4.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

1. The study is likely to provide the reasons and the possible solutions for increasing the EC level of sales professionals.
2. Also, this research will throw light on the efforts put in by the organizations of Gujarat state to maintain the emotional competence of their employees.
3. By understanding the in-depth association between emotional competencies and job performance, retail organizations may develop business plans and employee programs to mitigate the effect of job dissatisfaction and ease the stressors experienced in today's changing environment.
4. The study could provide an opportunity to develop models of management, in which employees are encouraged to develop their emotional quotient abilities

4.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Based on the research, the following hypotheses have been formed:

H0₁: Job performance does not vary amongst respondents with different level of EC

Today's workplace is dynamic in nature and is characterized by time deadlines, cross cultural teams, work pressures and work family conflicts, which in turn result in a highly tensed workforce.

Sy, T., Tram, S., & O'Hara, L.(2006)reported managers' emotional intelligence had a stronger positive correlation with job satisfaction and job performance. Lyons and Schneider (2005)found that high emotional intelligence levels promote challenge appraisal and lead to better performance. It has been suggested in one of the studies that a link between the emotional intelligence and work place measure of effectiveness would lead to enhanced system success (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005).Thus the above hypothesis is proposed.

H0₂: There is a no significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales People in organized retail based on Gender.

Gender issues may matter more than ever in the workplace, as more companies are starting to recognize the advantages of high EI when it comes to positions like sales, teams, and leadership. In this context, the gender of a person may have a significant impact on his/her personality as well as behavioral characteristics.

Springer and Deutsch (1998)commenting on the gender differences in certain human abilities like verbal and spatial skills point out that males tend to be more lateralized for verbal and spatial functions, whereas females show greater bilateral representation for both types of functions

As noted by Lezak (2004) the nature-nurture issue remains unsettled in questions of gender differences in cognitive abilities. In view of these considerations, the present study assumes that there is a significant difference in the level of EC based on gender differences.

H0₃: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales people based on Age.

The key factor that is assumed to have an influence on emotional competence is the age of the staff members; due to their higher learning potential; the emotional competence holds a vital role in youth in contrast to the other age group of staff.

There is an adage "the older, the wiser". But in this case, it does not fit the situation. Although few elements of the emotional competence (EC) grow with age, others may not be associated with age. But in reality, some studies have resulted that many youthful employees are more emotionally competent than their senior employees and some elements of the EQ can only be built up by training and education.

There are studies which say that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and age. Also, Goleman's in his research stated about the clear association between emotional intelligence and experience.

H0₄: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of Sales people with different level of education.

A study by Goldenberg and associates found that the ability EI of people correlated positively with educational level. These findings are consistent with a previous study showing that educational level improves ability EI in adults (Goldenberg, Matheson, & Mantler, 2006)

The study by Hosseini and Rao (Hosseini & Rao) portrays that the level of emotional intelligence of the employees was positively associated with the education qualification.

H0₅: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of Sales people with different level of experience.

Goleman in his book 'Working with Emotional Intelligence', asserted about the relationship between emotional intelligence and experience, there is research that suggests that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and age and work experience. (Goleman, 1998) Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) asserted that in order for emotional competence to be considered a standard competence, it should increase with work experience.

In a study conducted by Day and Carroll (2004), experience was positively correlated with three of the four emotional intelligence scales, as measured by the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test.

One might assume that emotional intelligence will increase as work experience increases. Hence, to prove it correct, it is assumed.

4.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design refers to the overall strategy chosen to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby, ensuring that the research problem is effectively addressed; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data. A research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. The research design is the conceptual structure within which research would be conducted. The function of research design is to provide for the collection of relevant information with minimal expenditure of effort, time and money. According to John W. Best (2002), Research may define as systematic and objective analysis and recording of controlled observations that may lead to the development of organizations, principles, and possibility ultimate control of events.

Different research designs can be conveniently described and categorized as: (1) research design in case of exploratory research studies; (2) research design in case of descriptive and diagnostic research studies, and (3) research design in case of hypothesis-testing research studies. (C. R. Kothari, 2004)

1. Research design in case of exploratory research studies: Exploratory research studies are also termed as formative research studies. The main purpose of such studies is that of formulating a problem for more precise investigation or of developing the working hypotheses from an operational point of view. The major emphasis in such studies is on the discovery of ideas and insights.

2. Research design in case of descriptive and diagnostic research studies: Descriptive research studies are those studies which are concerned with describing the characteristics of a particular individual, or of a group, whereas diagnostic research studies determine the frequency with which something occurs or its association with something else. The studies concerning whether certain variables are associated are examples of diagnostic research studies.

3. Research design in case of hypothesis-testing research studies: Hypothesis-testing research studies (generally known as experimental studies) are those where the researcher tests the hypotheses of causal relationships between variables. Such studies require procedures that will not only reduce bias and increase reliability but will permit drawing inferences about causality.

The research design used in the study is Descriptive as the study carried out describes factors of EC possessed by sales people in the retail industry of major cities of Gujarat state. Descriptive research endeavors to explain thoroughly a condition, a dilemma, an incident, service or program, or presents information about, or illustrates attitudes concerning the problem. Moreover, the study also intends to explain the relationship between Emotional competence and sales performance.

4.7.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of proposed research work are as follows:

1. To identify the level of Emotional Competence (EC) of salespeople in organized retail industry.
2. To identify the important factors in maintaining the emotional competence of sales people.
3. To identify the perceived importance of each factor of emotional competence.
4. To identify how emotional competencies and its factors distinguish among low, medium, and high performances.
5. To find out if there are differences in demographics and emotional competence.
6. To measure the relationship between emotional competence and sales performance. (based on outcomes, behavior, and professional development)

4.7.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the most important factors in maintaining the emotional competence for sales people in the retail industry?
2. What is the importance of each factor for Emotional Competence?
3. What is the effect of demographic variables on the level of emotional competence of sales people?
4. Is there any correlation between Emotional Competence and Sales Performance of sales people?

Also, this research will ascertain which factors of EC is identified to be significant and how they impact on Sales Performance of sales people.

4.7.3 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The emotional competence of sales people and its effect on organization performance which will be identified through research undertaken might be applicable to retail industries of India and also other industries of India, but to make study feasible, the sales people of the retail industry of major cities of Gujarat state will be included as population.

4.7.4 SAMPLE OF THE STUDY

Researchers usually draw conclusions about large groups by taking a sample. A Sample is a segment of the population selected to represent the population as a whole. Ideally, the sample should be representative and allow the researcher to make accurate estimates of the thoughts and behavior of the larger population. A sample as the name implies is a smaller representation of a larger population, where the observation of the same phenomenon of emotional competence and its impact on organization performance would involve such a mass of data. In the present study, the researcher will choose a sample of 600 sales people of the retail industry of major cities of Gujarat state like Ahmedabad, Baroda, Surat, Rajkot, Mehsana, Bhavnagar, Jamnagar, and Kutch.

Formula for determining sample size

$$\text{Sample Size} = \frac{Z^2 * (p) * (1-p)}{c^2}$$

Where:

Z = Z value (e.g. 1.96 for 95% confidence level)

p = percentage picking a choice expressed as a decimal (0.5 used for sample size needed)

c = confidence interval, expressed as decimal (e.g., .04 = ±4)

Hence, putting values in the formula, we get,

$$\text{Sample Size: } \frac{(1.96)^2 * (0.5) * (1 - 0.5)}{(0.04)^2}$$

$$= 600.25$$

Sample Size \approx 600 respondents

4.7.5 SAMPLING METHOD

There are two types of sampling methods. **Probability sampling:** Probability sampling is also known as ‘random sampling’ or ‘chance sampling’. Under this sampling design, every item of the universe has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample. The probability or chance of every unit in the population being included in the sample is known. Selection of the specific unit in the sample depends entirely on chance. The results obtained from probability or random sampling can be assured in terms of probability. **Non-probability sampling** is that sampling procedure which does not afford any basis for estimating the probability that each item in the population has of being included in the sample. **Non-probability convenience** method for sampling is used in the present study.

4.7.6 DEMOGRAPHIC STATISTICS

Although the data was collected from 600 respondents, only 577 were reliable and hence the data analysis was done based on the data of 577 respondents. The sample was bifurcated on the basis of the following demographics (Table 11 to 14):

- Gender
- Age
- Experience
- Salary

1. Gender

Table 4.1 Gender Categorization

Gender	Total Respondents
Male	426
Female	151
Total	577

In the study of 577 respondents, 74% of them were male (total 427) and rest 26% were females (151). Therefore, we presume that less than 50% of the females participated in this survey.

2. Education Qualification

Education wise bifurcation is given under.

Table 4.2 Gender wise bifurcation of Educational Qualification

Education Qualification	Male	Female
PG	102	36
UG	193	71
12 th	70	22
Others	61	22
Total	426	151

It can be inferred from the above figure that most of the male participants were graduates. However, post graduates were in sufficient number. Looking at the female participation, same ratio as that of male follows. Least number of participants were diploma holders or just matric passed.

3. Experience wise Breakup

Table 4.3 Gender wise bifurcation of Experience

Experience	Male	Female
0 to 1 years	84	27
1 to 3 years	144	56
3 to 5 years	142	65
More than 5 years	42	17
Total	412	165

The above chart displays work experience if respective gender. We can see that respondents working in the retail outlets had work experience of 1 to 3 years (144) and also almost equal (142) numbers were seen having 3 to 5 years of experience of retail job. Majority of the females (65) were having 3 to 5 years of experience

4. Salary wise Breakup

Table 4.4 Gender wise bifurcation of Salary

Salary	Male	Female
5k-10k	66	24
11k-15k	144	45
16k-20k	133	54
>20k	91	20
Total	434	143

Based on the above figure, we can infer that most of the respondents were in the salary range of 11000 Rs to 15000 Rs per month (144 males). However, most females (54) were paid between 16000 Rs to 20000 Rs per month. Respondents whose payment were above 20,000 Rs were only 121 (91 males and 30 females).

4.7.7 SOURCES OF DATA

There are two types of collection method.

1) **Primary Data:** Primary data is collected by the researcher himself for the purpose of a specific inquiry or study. The data is original in character and highly representative and unbiased. There are various methods for primary data collection such as observation, experimentation, questionnaire, interviews and case study.

2) **Secondary Data:** Secondary data is already collected by others which may be published or unpublished. This data is primary data for the agency that collects it and becomes secondary for someone else who uses this data for the own purpose. Various methods for secondary data collection are publications of central, state and a foreign government, journals, books, magazines, newspaper, reports.

Primary Data: Primary data for the study was carried out with the help of questionnaire wherein the sales people of retail industry were the respondents.

Secondary Data: Secondary data was collected from the previous research work conducted from articles, newspaper columns, magazines, journals.

4.8 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

The construction of a research instrument or tool for data collection is the most important aspect of a research project because findings or conclusions are based upon the type of information collected, and the data gathered is entirely dependent upon the questions asked to respondents. The famous saying about computers- “garbage in garbage out”- is also applicable for data collection. The research tool provides the input into a study and therefore the quality and validity of the output (the findings), are solely dependent on it. The questionnaire was prepared in order to collect the data from the respondents. The questionnaire was close-ended with five points Likert scale. The questionnaire is used to gather data by asking questions from people who are thought to have the desired information.

The questionnaire was majorly divided into two parts wherein the first part focused on the questions related to the emotional competence of sales people such as communication, interpersonal, team building, empathetic behavior etc. The questions were derived based on the research work of Schutte. The scale used was Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS). The SEIS comprises of 33 items and is rated on a 5-point Likert scale.

The SEIS developed by Schutte et al. (1998) has subsequently been used in a number of studies (Ciarrochi, Caputi, & Mayer, 2003); (Petrides & Furnham, 2000b); (Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003); (Schutte N. S., Malouff, Bobik, Coston, Greeson, & al, 2001). Attention is given to this scale because of its conciseness comparative to the key commercial trait EI instrument, the Bar-On (1997) that includes 133 items. Conclusions from research of the SEIS recommend that the scale offers a reliable and valid characteristic of EI measure. Test-retest and internal reliabilities are good, and group variances in score and correlations with other EI scales is usually understood to be in accordance with academic outlooks (Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Saklofske et al., 2003; Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2001).

The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) used in this study contains 33 self-referencing statements and compels respondents to rank the extent to which they agree or disagree with every statement on a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

(Ciarrochi, Caputi, & Mayer, 2003) Respondents answer on a Likert scale and a total score is generated by adding up the item answers (Petrides & Furnham, 2000b). The SEIS measures the awareness, recognition, expression, and controlling of emotion of the self and others (Schutte et al., 1998).

The second part of questionnaire was related to Sales Performance which focused on three dimensions: Customer Centric behavior, Result Oriented, and professionalism. To measure Customer Centric behavior approach and professionalism of the sales person, SOCO scale was taken which was developed by Wachner, Plouffe, Gregoire (2009). SOCO stands for Sales Oriented and Customer Oriented. The SOCO scale focuses on how the customer orientations of sales people influence customer behavior like customer loyalty (DelVecchio, 1998) and customer satisfaction (Johnston, Parasuraman, & Futrell, 1989) (Sigaw & Honeycutt, 1995). Whereas some researches gave a supporting proof of the assertion that a customer orientation absolutely influences individual sales performance (Keillor, Parker, & Pettijohn, 2000) the style in which performance is exhibited in these reports is mostly as a self-reported measure from the salesperson themselves (Franke & Park, 2006). However, the SOCO scale measures sales orientation and customer orientation both; but for this research only the questions pertaining to Customer Oriented were considered in the questionnaire.

For result oriented approach, ADAPTS-SV scale was used. Robinson et al. (2000) in his research suggested the 5-item ADAPTS-SV scale to evaluate adaptive selling. In the consequent exploration by Chakraborty et al. (2004) also found support for ADAPTS-SV as a better measure of adaptive selling scale. Consequently, in the current study, the 5-item ADAPTS-SV was used to measure adaptive selling. ADAPTS-SV was a reliable and valid measure of adaptive selling (chakraborty, subhra, G, R, & R, 2004).

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 is used for statistical analyses of the collected and tabulated data. The following statistical techniques have been used for analyses of all the research instruments-Factor Analysis, ANOVA, Correlation and Weighted Average tools were used for analyzing the data.

Chapter 5

DATA ANALYSIS

AND

INTERPRETATION

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Data Analysis

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Data analysis forms the crux of any research, particularly those which involve primary data collection. The present research involves analysis of Quantitative data. Quantitative research has to do with numbers and data acquiescent to quantification. One widely used quantitative technique, the survey, was deployed in the research. It is usually based on a large number of cases, where a broad overview of the existence of a phenomenon (Emotional Competence and its impact on work behavior) in a population (Retail companies operating in major cities in Gujarat State) is required.

In the current research, SPSS version 21 and MS Excel are used for data analysis. The research hypotheses framed and mentioned in the research methodology chapter are verified using various tools available as a part of inferential statistics like Exploratory Factor analysis, one-way ANOVA and Rgression Analysis. Measures of central tendency like mean, median, mode and frequency tables are used for descriptive statistics to provide information of a set of data. A weighted average is used to identify the actual and required level of Emotional Competence.

In this research, five hypotheses are put to test. The responses to the questions pertaining to hypotheses were collected using five point Likert scales. Data were collected by administering questionnaires personally to the respondents - sales people of organized retail industry. Data collected was organized, coded and entered into software packages SPSS version 21 and MS Excel. To test the hypotheses formulated, software package SPSS was used; MS Excel was used for descriptive statistics displayed in the form of frequency distribution. This chapter begins with Descriptive statistics pertaining to the various variables (independent as well as a dependent) describing the variables of interest in detail. Thereafter, various hypotheses are followed by analysis of the data.

The data was originally collected for 600 respondents, but during filtration, it was found that 23 responses were unfinished and partial and so were removed in the analysis. Hence instead of 600 only 577 responses were considered for further data analysis. Below is the case summary of the data analysis and reliability statistics. For the research objectives, Schutte Emotional Intelligence Test (SEIT) was used. This tool comprised of 33 items which

measured Emotional Competence of sales people. The Table 5.1 is the case processing summary of the data collected.

Table 5.1 Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	577	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	0
	Total	577	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

5.2 DATA ANALYSIS

Objective 1: To identify the level of Emotional Competence of sales people in organized retail industry

For the above objective Weighted Mean and Standard Deviation is to be calculated. The Mean is the average sales person's response to an item of emotional competence. It is computed by adding up the number of points earned by all sales persons on the item, and dividing that total by the number of people.

The Standard Deviation is a measure of the dispersion of sales person scores on that item. That is, it indicates how *spread out* the responses was. The below Table 5.2 shows Descriptive statistics of the data.

Table 5.2 Descriptive Statistics

Statements	N	Weighted Mean	Std. Deviation
I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.	577	3.6950	.90936
When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.	577	3.7764	.86619
I expect that I will do well on most things I try.	577	3.3882	1.21123
Other people find it easy to confide in me.	577	3.3847	1.51072
I find it hard to understand the nonverbal messages of other people.	577	3.7764	.86619
Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.	577	3.3882	1.21123
When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.	577	3.4905	.81244
Emotions are some of the things that make my life worth living.	577	3.6742	.89243
I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.	577	3.2860	1.19738
I expect good things to happen.	577	2.9757	1.55883
I like to share my emotions with others.	577	3.5719	1.01316
When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.	577	3.0815	1.38517
I arrange events others enjoy.	577	3.2825	1.42945
I seek out activities that make me happy.	577	3.7747	.86473
I am aware of the nonverbal messages I send to others.	577	3.3847	1.20947
I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.	577	3.0399	1.24588

When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.	577	3.7747	.86473
By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.	577	3.3847	1.20947
I know why my emotions change.	577	3.2825	1.42945
When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.	577	3.6915	1.28228
I have control over my emotions.	577	2.8128	1.25816
I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.	577	3.5719	1.01316
I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.	577	3.6915	1.28228
I compliment others when they have done something well.	577	3.1231	.94121
I am aware of the nonverbal messages other people send.	577	3.2877	1.01057
When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself.	577	3.7816	1.32712
When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.	577	3.6950	.90936
When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.	577	3.7764	.86619
I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.	577	3.3882	1.21123
I help other people feel better when they are down.	577	3.3847	1.51072
I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.	577	3.6950	.90936
I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.	577	3.7764	.86619
It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.	577	3.3882	1.21123
Valid N (listwise)	577		

To identify the level of Emotional Competence, we have considered Weighted Mean and Standard Deviation. An average of weighted mean and standard deviation is calculated which is mentioned below:

Weighted Average = 3.46

Standard Deviation = 1.13

On 1 to 5 Likert scale, it is positioned at 3.46, which is more skewed towards agreement side or it could also be said to be moderately high. Hence we can say that the level of Emotional Competence of sales people in organized retail in Gujarat state is moderately high.

Objective 2: To identify the important factors in maintaining Emotional Competence of sales people.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a technique that is used to reduce a large number of variables into fewer numbers of factors. This technique extracts maximum common variance from all variables and puts them into a common score. As an index of all variables, we can use this score for further analysis. There are two ways for doing factor analysis.

1. Confirmatory factor analysis is used to determine the factor and factor loading of measured variables, and to confirm what is expected on the basis of pre-established Data Analysis and Interpretation theory. It assumes that each factor is associated with a specified subset of measured variables.

2. Exploratory factor analysis is a statistical technique that is used to reduce data to a smaller set of summary variables and to explore the underlying theoretical structure of the phenomena. It is used to identify the structure of the relationship between the variable and the respondent. There are two methods for driving factor, these two methods are as follows: Principle component factor analysis method: This method is used when researcher needs to drive the minimum number of factors and explain the maximum portion of variance in the original variable. Common factor analysis: This method is used when the researchers do not know the nature of the factor to be extracted and the common error variance

Selection of factors to be extracted: Theory is the first criteria to determine the number of factors to be extracted. From theory, we know that the number of factors extracted does make sense. Most researchers use the Eigenvalue criteria for the number of factors to be extracted. Value of the percentage and variance explained method is also used for exploratory factor analysis. In this method, Eigenvalue is plotted on a graph and factors are selected. Orthogonal rotation: In this method, axis are maintained at 90 degrees, thus the factors are uncorrelated to each other. In orthogonal rotation, the following three methods are available based on the rotation:

A. Quartimax: Rows are simplified so that the variable should be loaded on a single factor.

B. Varimax: Used to simplify the column of the factor matrix so that the factor extracts are clearly associated and there should be some separation among the variables.

C. Equimax: The combination of the above two methods. This method simplifies row and column at a single time. Criteria for Practical and Statistical Significance of Factor Loadings: Factor loading can be classified based on their magnitude (Table 5.3):

Table 5.3 Classification of Factor Loading

Greater than + .30	Minimum consideration level
+.40	More important
+ .50	Practically significant

In the current study, total 43 statements were asked related to Emotional Competence and Sales Performance. The questionnaire was divided into two parts; first 33 questions measures EC and rest 10 questions measures sales performance. The objective of the study is to identify level of emotional competence for the sales people of retail industry in major cities of Gujarat state. Exploratory factor analysis for only first 33 questions was conducted for data reduction. The factor analysis was applied to identify emotional competence of sales people that can have impact on sales performance.

Table 5.4 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.846	33

To check the validity and reliability of the data, reliability statistics (Table 5.4) has been performed and the Cronbach's Alpha resulted in 0.846 which is more than 0.7. Hence, we can prove that the data is valid and reliable to proceed with further analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

The KMO measures the sampling adequacy (which determines if the responses given with the sample are adequate or not) which should be close than 0.5 for a satisfactory factor analysis to proceed. Usually the value of KMO test varies from 0 to 1. If KMO value is greater than 0.5, the sample is considered to be adequate. Looking at the table below, the KMO measure is 0.715, which is above 0.5 and therefore can be readily accepted (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.715
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1.1091
	Df	907
	Sig.	.000

The KMO and Bartlett's test measure of sampling adequacy was conducted to check appropriateness of Factor Analysis. The approximate of Chi-square is 1.1091 with 907 degrees of freedom which is significant at 95% confidence level. The KMO statistic of .715 is also large as it is greater than 0.50. Thus, Factor Analysis is an appropriate technique for further data analysis.

Communalities

The next item from the output is a table of communalities which shows how much of the variance (i.e. the communality value which should be more than 0.5 to be considered for further analysis. Else these variables are to be removed from further steps factor analysis) in the variables has been accounted for by the extracted factors. In the below table 5.6, all the variables have values above 0.5 and hence to be considered for factor analysis.

Table 5.6 Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.	1.000	.983
When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.	1.000	.980
I expect that I will do well on most things I try.	1.000	.962
Other people find it easy to confide in me.	1.000	.960
I find it hard to understand the nonverbal messages of other people.	1.000	.980
Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.	1.000	.962
When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.	1.000	.951
Emotions are some of the things that make my life worth living.	1.000	.986
I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.	1.000	.976
I expect good things to happen.	1.000	.892
I like to share my emotions with others.	1.000	.958
When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.	1.000	.947
I arrange events others enjoy.	1.000	.919
I seek out activities that make me happy.	1.000	.913
I am aware of the nonverbal messages I send to others.	1.000	.970
I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.	1.000	.880
When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.	1.000	.913
By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.	1.000	.970
I know why my emotions change.	1.000	.919
When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.	1.000	.948
I have control over my emotions.	1.000	.977
I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.	1.000	.898
I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.	1.000	.948
I compliment others when they have done something well.	1.000	.842
I am aware of the nonverbal messages other people send.	1.000	.948
When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself.	1.000	.954
When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.	1.000	.983

When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.	1.000	.980
I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.	1.000	.962
I help other people feel better when they are down.	1.000	.960
I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.	1.000	.983
I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.	1.000	.980
It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.	1.000	.962
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

Rotated Component matrix

Factor Analysis was run, initial component matrix (Annexure E) was obtained and on the basis of that SPSS generated Rotated Component Matrix a under (next page). The table 19 shows the loadings of 33 variables on the five factors extracted. The higher the absolute value of the loading, the more the factor contributes to the variable. Five variables were extracted wherein the 33 items are divided into 5 variables according to most important items. The gap (empty spaces) on the table represent loadings that are less than 0.5, this makes reading the table easier. The researcher has suppressed all loadings less than 0.5.

Table 5.7 Rotated Component Matrix^a

Sr. No.		Component				
		1	2	3	4	5
		1	I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.	.978		
2	When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.	.978				
3	I expect that I will do well on most things I try.	.978				
4	Other people find it easy to confide in me.	.978				
5	I find it hard to understand the nonverbal messages of other people.	.960				
6	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.	.855				
7	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.	.841				
8	Emotions are some of the things that make my life worth living.	.837				
9	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.	.837				
10	I expect good things to happen.	.836				
11	I like to share my emotions with others.	.790				
12	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.	.680				
13	I arrange events others enjoy.		.938			
14	I seek out activities that make me happy.		.908			
15	I am aware of the nonverbal messages I send to others.		.872			
16	I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.		.872			
17	When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.		.872			
18	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.		.872			
19	I know why my emotions change.		-.708			
20	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.		-.708			

The idea of rotation is to reduce the number factors on which the variables under investigation have high loadings. Rotation does not actually change anything but makes the interpretation of the analysis easier. The labeling of these components is done below:

Factor 1: Self Perception

The linear combination of items 28, 5, 2, 32, 8, 11, 22, 30, 4, 10, 25 and 7 constitute the first factor of Emotional Competence. These items are based on one's understanding and accepting how one thinks about and perceives oneself. It is a way of building a new perspective about oneself and transform how to show up in the world as one leads and participate in discussions. And these characteristics form a part of Self-perception. So, the first factor is named as Self-Perception.

Self-Perception is a manner in which people recognize their own feelings and thoughts based on their conduct in a certain condition. It is essentially a representation of oneself from the viewpoint of other individual.

Factor 2: Self confidence

The second factor of Emotional Competence is a linear combination of items 9, 12, 6, 3, 33, 29, 31, 1 and 27. These items comprises of the questions that checks a positive approach of individuals without being egotistic. It consists of a basic belief that we can do what is needed to produce the desired outcome. Even when the obstacles occur, a person with a confident attitude continues to work to overcome the barriers. This positivity can also be termed as self-confidence.

Self-confidence focuses on being positive, and becoming what one wants to be. It is about holding up for oneself, having a stand, the personal power to consider oneself equivalent to others. Self Confidence is a belief in an individual's ability to achieve his targets or complete a task successfully.

Factor 3: Interpretation of Unspoken Cues

It's important to recognize, though, that it's a nonverbal communication—our facial expressions, gestures, eye contact, posture, and tone of voice—that speak the loudest. The items 18, 15, 24, 16, 20 and 23 altogether form the third factor of Emotional Competence - Interpretation of Unspoken Cues. It is an ability to understand and use nonverbal communication, or body language, as a powerful tool that can help sales employees connect

with their customers, express what they really mean, and build better relationships. Sales people need to be able to interpret the emotions of customers and the true feelings behind the cues they are sending.

Factor 4: Jovial

The fourth factor of Emotional Competence is Jovial which is a set of items 13, 19, 14 and 17. These items test the state of being happy merely with being cheerful all the time. The ability to maintain a positive mood has positive correlation and preventing from depression modes. It is the key to being an effective leader and a critical factor to the quality of both personal and business relationships. Hence, these items are clubbed together and named as factor Jovial.

People with emotional competence are capable of perceiving emotions, harnessing their emotions, understanding their emotions, and managing their emotions. Because of this, emotional competence can help navigate all kinds of everyday situations: the workplace, friendships, romantic relationships, familial relationships, etc. Studies have shown that people with high emotional intelligence are very jovial in nature. They have greater mental health, excellent job performance, and even more potent leadership skills.

Factor 5: Thoughtfulness

The fifth factor of Emotional Competence is a linear combination of the items 26 and 21. These questions evaluate a person's ability to read other people's emotions without them having to explicitly tell others what they are feeling. Being sympathetic about others indicates making oneself aware of the desires and opinions of others and then enduring actions to assist them. These attribute are labeled as Thoughtfulness. It means at a certain point of life, one need to stop thinking about him/her, to understand somebody else's wants and to ask what can I do to make other person a little happy and contented? Thoughtfulness is one of the vital elements of emotional competence- is to consider with others feelings. It is to emotionally put one in the place of another. It also involves paying attention to people— things like listening, attending to needs and wants of others, and building relationships.

Employees should understand how the customer feels when they interact with an employee. It determines how they feel about the company itself Once a customer understands the comfort, usefulness, pleasure or pain of a particular service or product, in that he or she shall realize or feel for that. The purpose of business is not to make a sale, but to make and keep customers.

Objective 3: To identify perceived importance of each factor of Emotional Competence

Total five factors were identified through factor analysis. However, these factors have their own importance and weightage in contributing to Emotional Competence of a sales person. In this objective, we have to identify perceived importance of each factor of EC in sales people. And hence, for analysis, the table of Total Variance Explained (of Factor Analysis) was considered.

In the below table 20 (next page), Eigenvalue reflects the number of extracted factors whose sum should be equal to number of items (33) which are subjected to factor analysis. The Eigenvalue table has been divided into three sub-sections, i.e. Initial Eigen Values, Extracted Sums of Squared Loadings and Rotation of Sums of Squared Loadings. In the column of Initial Eigen value, total 10 component sums up to 100% out of which only 5 components have Total Initial Eigen Values more than 1. And hence their Cumulative % is considered for further analysis. Hence up to 5th component the Cumulative % is 94.98% and rest is below 1 and so they are not included for consideration.

Table 5.8 Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.935	36.168	36.168	11.935	36.168	36.168	11.067	33.538	33.538
2	10.106	30.625	66.792	10.106	30.625	66.792	8.451	25.609	59.147
3	5.407	16.384	83.176	5.407	16.384	83.176	5.708	17.297	76.444
4	2.416	7.322	90.498	2.416	7.322	90.498	3.983	12.071	88.516
5	1.479	4.481	94.980	1.479	4.481	94.980	2.133	6.464	94.980
6	.581	1.760	96.740						
7	.505	1.531	98.272						
8	.487	1.475	99.747						
9	.083	.253	100.000						
10	1.134E-013	1.406E-013	100.000						
11	1.081E-013	1.244E-013	100.000						
12	1.069E-013	1.210E-013	100.000						
13	1.035E-013	1.107E-013	100.000						
14	1.028E-013	1.085E-013	100.000						
15	1.002E-013	1.007E-013	100.000						
16	1.002E-013	1.006E-013	100.000						
17	1.001E-013	1.004E-013	100.000						
18	1.001E-013	1.003E-013	100.000						
19	1.000E-013	1.001E-013	100.000						
20	1.000E-013	1.000E-013	100.000						
21	1.000E-013	1.000E-013	100.000						

22	-1.000E-013	-1.000E-013	100.000					
23	-1.000E-013	-1.001E-013	100.000					
24	-1.000E-013	-1.001E-013	100.000					
25	-1.001E-013	-1.003E-013	100.000					
26	-1.001E-013	-1.003E-013	100.000					
27	-1.005E-013	-1.014E-013	100.000					
28	-1.026E-013	-1.079E-013	100.000					
29	-1.036E-013	-1.110E-013	100.000					
30	-1.049E-013	-1.148E-013	100.000					
31	-1.068E-013	-1.205E-013	100.000					
32	-1.085E-013	-1.258E-013	100.000					
33	-1.156E-013	-1.473E-013	100.000					

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

In a nutshell,

Table 5.9 Summary of the factors extracted and its weight.

Factors	Initial Eigen Value	No. of items	Eigen Value/No. of Items	% weight
Self-Perception	11.935	33	0.3621	36.21%
Self-confidence	10.106	33	0.3062	30.62%
Interpretation of Unspoken Cues	5.407	33	0.1638	16.38%
Jovial	2.416	33	0.0732	07.32%
Thoughtfulness	1.479	33	0.044	04.44%

In the above table 5.9, the last column (% weight) is the actual weight of each factor of Emotional Competence. Higher the value, more importance the factor possesses. Here one should note that the first factor Self-Perception accounts for 36.21% of the weight, the second factor Self-confidence weights for 30.62%, the third factor Interpretation of Unspoken Cues 16.38%, the forth factor Jovial carries importance of 7.32% and the last factor, Thoughtfulness only weights 4.44%.

Objective 4: To identify how emotional competence and its factors distinguish among low, medium and high performances.

For this objective, 10 additional questions were added in the questionnaire which measured Sales Performance. These questions were taken from various established standardized scale of Adaptive Selling developed by (Robinson et.al 2002), Industrial Sales Performance developed by Behrman and Perreault, Jr. (1982) and role of personality in selling developed by Verbeke (1994).

In order to fulfill this objective, factor analysis was done. KMO test (Table 5.10) was run to check the sampling adequacy before factor analysis. The Kaiser Meyer Olkin is the measure of sampling adequacy which can be between 0 to 1.

Table 5.10 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.784
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5.1237
	Df	901
	Sig.	.000

Usually the value of KMO test varies from 0 to 1. If KMO value is greater than 0.5, the sample is considered to be adequate. In table 20, KMO value is .784 indicating that sample is adequate and researcher may proceed with the factor analysis. Considering a 95% level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$. The p value is 0.000 which is less than α value. Thus, Factor analysis is valid. The KMO and Bartlett's test measure of sampling adequacy was conducted to check appropriateness of Factor analysis. The approximate of Chi-square is 5.1237 with 901 degrees of freedom which is significant at 95% confidence level. The KMO statistic of .784 is also large as it is greater than 0.50. Thus, Factor analysis is an appropriate technique for further data analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix table represents the strength of relationship between the item and factor is determined by identifying the highest loading in one factor. The loading values fall under the range from 0 to 1. Values closer to 1 denotes highest factor loading. The important thing to be remembered while classifying is that negative sign of factor has to be ignored.

Generally, factor loading higher than 0.5 is acceptable but according to Hair (2006), for sample size above 200, factor loading of 0.40 is also acceptable.

Table 5.11 Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
I try to find out what are the customer's needs.	1.000	.874
A good employee should act based on what is better for the customer.	1.000	.898
I offer the product/service that better fits the customer's problem.	1.000	.653
I try to sell to the customer everything I can convince him/her to buy, even being an amount beyond reasonable.	1.000	.826
I create an extremely favorable image of the product so that it looks the best as possible.	1.000	.869
When I feel that my sales approach is not working, I can easily change to another approach.	1.000	.926
I don't change my approach with customers.	1.000	.936
I am very sensitive to the needs of my customers.	1.000	.898
I vary my sales style from situation to situation.	1.000	.565
I try to understand how one customer differs from another.	1.000	.828
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

Rotated Component Matrix (Table 5.12) was conducted for factor loading. The first step in factor analysis process is to extract factors. Once factors are extracted then interpretation is required. Based on the extraction and interpretation, naming of factors has to be done. Factor naming is done based on the membership of various items in various factors.

Based on the factor analysis done for the research, following factors emerged to be significant determinants of Sales Performance (SP).

Table 5.12 Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	1	2	3
I try to sell to the customer everything I can convince him/her to buy, even being an amount beyond reasonable.	.907		
I try to understand how one customer differs from another.	-.905		
I try to find out what are the customer's needs.	.821		
A good employee should act based on what is better for the customer.	-.787		
I vary my sales style from situation to situation.	.694		
I don't change my approach with customers.		.966	
I am very sensitive to the needs of my customers.		.930	

I offer the product/service that better fits the customer's problem.		-.587	
When I feel that my sales approach is not working, I can easily change to another approach.			.922
I create an extremely favorable image of the product so that it looks the best as possible.			.819

Table 5.13 Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.392	43.916	43.916	4.392	43.916	43.916	3.822	38.220	38.220
2	2.498	24.979	68.895	2.498	24.979	68.895	2.642	26.424	64.643
3	1.383	13.834	82.729	1.383	13.834	82.729	1.809	18.085	82.729
4	.904	9.035	91.764						
5	.337	3.368	95.132						
6	.236	2.364	97.496						
7	.170	1.701	99.197						
8	.080	.797	99.994						
9	.001	.006	100.000						
10	1.066E-013	1.659E-013	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Factor 1: Customer Centric Behaviour

Tuning into customers' emotional needs is a prerequisite for achieving customer attention. Customer attention will lead to customer engagement which is important because engaged customers are the ones that stick around for years. Thus, customers should be placed in the centre and employees should be trained to display customer centric behaviour. Ultimately, customer centric behaviour will boost organization's profit margin. Front-line salespeople should know how to read and appropriately respond to customer emotions. The first factor is Customer Centric Behaviour which is a linear combination of the items 37,43,34,35, and 42.

Factor 2: Result Oriented

One of the major objectives of training for sales employees is to guide them on how to transform product attributes into benefits for clients. Result oriented employees mainly focus on endorsing and selling their products. Result oriented approach of employees have helped many companies earn huge profits if well directed. The age of globalization has brought stiff competition and there is call for result oriented objectives so as to facilitate organizations take action promptly to the changes occurring in business. Result oriented attitude can encourage sales people for better performance. Result oriented behavior in reality illustrates how flourishing the individual is as a sales person. Nevertheless, to accomplish his individual target, he should be result oriented. The second factor is Result Oriented approach which is a linear combination of the items 40, 41 and 36.

Factor 3: Professionalism

Understanding emotional competence in relation to building more successful partnerships with co-workers and customers can take many forms. The benefits of actively engaging in a better understanding of EC can lead to better listening skills with customers, more adaptable attitude, effective personnel management and the development of leadership acumen etc. The statements given in the questionnaire were put to measure professional conduct of retail sales people. And thus, the third factor obtained is Professionalism which is a linear combination of the items 38 and 39.

Three factors of sales performance were identified from Factor Analysis: Customer Centric Behavior, Result Oriented and Professionalism.

For understanding the level of performers, 3 factors of sales performance - Customer Centric Behavior, Result Oriented and Professionalism were considered. Quartiles were calculated and based on the means, level of performance was computed; which means sales people whose score was between 0 - 2.99 (on Likert's 5 point scale) for a particular factor was believed to be a low performers. Sales person whose score was 3 or nearby (on Likert's 5 point scale), were medium performers and those sales people whose score was from 3.01 to 5 (on Likert's 5 point scale) were high performers.

The below table 5.14 shows the number of respondents for every level of performances for each factor of sales performance.

Table 5.14 Statistics

		Professionalism	Result Oriented	Customer Centric Behavior
N	Valid	577	577	577
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		3.7357	3.4893	3.4738
Median		4.0000	3.6700	3.4000
Mode		4.50	4.00	3.40
Std. Deviation		.78500	.60428	.43336
Variance		.616	.365	.188
Range		2.00	2.00	1.40
Minimum		2.50	2.33	2.80
Maximum		4.50	4.33	4.20
Percentiles	25	3.0000	3.0000	3.2000
	50	4.0000	3.6700	3.4000
	75	4.5000	4.0000	3.8000

Table 5.15 Quartiles for Customer Centric Behavior

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 2.80	106	18.4	18.4	18.4
3.20	59	10.2	10.2	28.6
3.40	176	30.5	30.5	59.1
3.60	59	10.2	10.2	69.3
3.80	59	10.2	10.2	79.5

4.00	59	10.2	10.2	89.8
4.20	59	10.2	10.2	100.0
Total	577	100.0	100.0	

For the factor Customer Centric Behavior, the respondents whose mean was in-between 4.00 to 4.20 in 1 to 5 Likert scale were termed as **High performers** (118). The respondents whose mean was in-between 3.40 to 3.80 were termed as **Medium performers** (294). And the respondents whose mean was in-between 2.80 to 3.20 were termed as **Low performers** (165).

Table 5.16 Quartiles for Result Oriented

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 2.33	48	8.3	8.3	8.3
2.67	58	10.1	10.1	18.4
3.00	59	10.2	10.2	28.6
3.33	117	20.3	20.3	48.9
3.67	59	10.2	10.2	59.1
4.00	177	30.7	30.7	89.8
4.33	59	10.2	10.2	100.0
Total	577	100.0	100.0	

For the factor Result Oriented, the respondents whose mean was in-between 4.00 - 4.33 (in 1 to 5 Likert scale) were termed as **High performers** (236). The respondents whose mean was in-between 3.33 – 3.67 were termed as **Medium performers** (176). And the respondents whose mean was in-between 2.33 – 3.00 were termed as **Low performers** (165).

Table 5.17 Quartiles for Professionalism

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 2.50	118	20.5	20.5	20.5
3.00	59	10.2	10.2	30.7
3.50	58	10.1	10.1	40.7
4.00	117	20.3	20.3	61.0
4.50	225	39.0	39.0	100.0
Total	577	100.0	100.0	

For the factor Professionalism, the respondents whose mean was in-between 4.00 - 4.50 in 1 to 5 Likert scale were termed as **High performers** (342). The respondents whose mean was in-between 3.00 - 3.50 were termed as **Medium performers** (117). And the respondents whose mean was 2.50 were termed as **Low performers** (118).

To identify whether there are any differences across EC and level of sales performers one way ANOVA was used.

The one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of two or more independent groups. One-Way ANOVA is used to test the significance of the difference in the means of three or more samples. The ANOVA tests the null hypothesis that samples in two or more groups are drawn from populations with the same mean values. The ANOVA produces an F-statistic, the ratio of the variance calculated among the means to the variance within the samples

1. Levels of Performance for Customer Centric Behavior Factor and Emotional Competence.

Table 5.18 ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13.366	2	6.683	33.245	.000
Within Groups	115.386	574	.201		
Total	128.752	576			

In the above table 5.18, it can be seen that the group means are significantly different because the value in the row is 0.000 which is less than 0.05. Hence we can say that Low, Medium and High performers significantly differ in terms of Emotional Competence under the factor Customer Centric Behavior.

Table 5.19 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EC
 Tukey HSD

(I) Customer Centric Behavior	(J) Customer Centric Behavior	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
low	Medium	.09535	.04361	.042	-.0071	.1978
	High	.42461*	.05405	.000	.2976	.5516
Medium	Low	-.09535	.04361	.042	-.1978	.0071
	High	.32925*	.04886	.000	.2144	.4441
High	Low	-.42461*	.05405	.000	-.5516	-.2976
	Medium	-.32925*	.04886	.000	-.4441	-.2144

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Looking at the above table 5.19, we can see that all the values are less than .05. These values exhibit the comparison between the Level of Performers (Low, Medium, and High) and EC. For this reason, we can conclude that level of performers and EC were significantly different for the factor Customer Centric Behavior.

2. Levels of Performance for Result Oriented Factor and Emotional Competence.

Table 5.20 ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	47.344	2	23.672	166.912	.000
Within Groups	81.407	574	.142		
Total	128.752	576			

In the above table 5.20 it can be seen that the group means are significantly different because the value in the row is 0.000 which is less than 0.05. Hence we can say that Low, Medium and High performers significantly differ in terms of Emotional Competence under the factor Result Oriented.

Table 5.21 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EC

Tukey HSD

(I) Result Oriented	(J) Result Oriented	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Low	Medium	.27792*	.06151	.000	.1334	.4225

Medium	High	.71364*	.04100	.000	.6173	.8100
	Low	-.27792*	.06151	.000	-.4225	-.1334
High	High	.43571*	.05281	.000	.3116	.5598
	Low	-.71364*	.04100	.000	-.8100	-.6173
	Medium	-.43571*	.05281	.000	-.5598	-.3116

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Looking at the above table 5.21, we can see that all the values are less than .05. These values exhibit the comparison between the Level of Performers (Low, Medium, and High) and EC. For this reason, we can conclude that level of performers and EC were significantly different for the factor Result Oriented.

3. Levels of Performance for Professionalism Factor and Emotional Competence.

Table 5.22 ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	45.557	2	22.779	157.159	.000
Within Groups	83.195	574	.145		
Total	128.752	576			

In the above table 5.22 it can be seen that the group means are significantly different because the value in the row is 0.000 which is less than 0.05. Hence we can say that Low, Medium and High performers significantly differ in terms of Emotional Competence under the factor Professionalism.

Table 5.23 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EC

Tukey HSD

(I) Professionalism	(J) Professionalism	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Low	Medium	-.34662*	.04967	.000	-.4633	-.2299
	High	-.69830*	.04065	.000	-.7938	-.6028
Medium	Low	.34662*	.04967	.000	.2299	.4633
	High	-.35168*	.04077	.000	-.4475	-.2559
High	Low	.69830*	.04065	.000	.6028	.7938

Medium	.35168*	.04077	.000	.2559	.4475
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*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Looking at the above table 5.23, we can see that all the values are less than .05. These values exhibit the comparison between the Level of Performers (Low, Medium, and High) and EC. For this reason, we can conclude that level of performers and EC were significantly different for the factor Professionalism.

And therefore, the first hypothesis, Job performance does not vary amongst respondents with different level of EC is rejected.

Objective 5: To find out if there are any differences across demographics and Emotional Competence.

To identify whether there are any differences across demographics and EC of sales people, one way ANOVA and T test was used.

The One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of two or more independent groups. ANOVA is a method used to compare means of three or more samples. The ANOVA tests the null hypothesis that samples in two or more groups are drawn from populations with the same mean values. The ANOVA produces an F-statistic, the ratio of the variance calculated among the means to the variance within the samples

1. Gender and Emotional Competence

The hypothesis framed is:

H₀: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales People across Gender.

H₁: There is a significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales People across Gender

Table 5.24 Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EC	Male	425	3.4707	.00684	.00033
	Female	151	3.4010	.02959	.00241

The table 5.24 shows Group Statistics which reveals that there is a minor difference between the mean of EC in Gender groups of males and females. According to the above table, mean of Male was 3.47 and Female was 3.40 which is almost near to 3.47. Hence, there is a difference between the mean EC and gender groups.

Table 5.25 Independent Samples T -Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means
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		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
EC	Equal variances assumed	.982	.322	1.069	574	.046	.00164	.00154	-.00138	.00466
	Equal variances not assumed			.676	155.733	.040	.00164	.00243	-.00316	.00644

Looking at the above table 5.25 of Independent Samples Test we can see that the group means of EC are statistically significantly different because the value in the "**Sig. (2-tailed)**" row is less than 0.05.

2. Salary and Emotional Competence

The hypothesis framed is:

H₂₀: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales people across salary groups.

H₂₁: There is a significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales people across salary groups.

Total four income groups were developed to detect whether there is any significant differences in EC among the respondents who fit into different salary structure. According to monthly income of respondents, four income groups formed: 5K to 10K, 11K – 15K, 16K – 20K and >20K. Maximum number of respondents that is 189 belonged to the monthly income group of 11K – 15K rupees.

The below descriptive table 5.23 provides some very useful descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation and 95% confidence intervals for the dependent variable EC.

Table 5.26 Descriptives – Salary

EC

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
5k-10k	90	3.4958	.49012	.05166	3.3331	3.5384	2.88	4.24
11k-15k	189	3.3261	.45390	.03302	3.3810	3.5112	2.88	4.24
16k-20k	187	3.4059	.47575	.03479	3.4173	3.5546	2.88	4.24
>20k	111	3.6074	.48733	.04626	3.4157	3.5991	2.88	4.24
Total	577	3.4692	.47279	.01968	3.4305	3.5078	2.88	4.24

There is a difference between EC in salary groups of the respondents. According to the above table, mean of the highest number of respondents 189 was 3.32 and the total average of 577 respondents was 3.40.

Table 5.27 ANOVA

EC

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.416	3	.139	.619	.603
Within Groups	128.336	573	.224		
Total	128.752	576			

The above table 5.27 shows the output of the ANOVA analysis and ascertains that there is no significant difference between salary group means. It can be observed that the significance level is 0.603 ($p = .603$), which is above 0.05 and, therefore, there is no significant difference in the level of EC in salespeople having different salary groups. Thus, H_0 is accepted at 95% confidence level.

3. Education and Emotional Competence

H_{3_0} : There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of Sales people with different level of education.

H_{3_1} : There is a significant difference in Emotional Competence of Sales people with different level of education.

Based on the education qualification, sales people were categorized on four separate qualification groups (Table 5.28). The first group consisted of the sales people who were Post Graduates (PG). The total PG degree holders were 154. The second group was of the Under Graduates (UG) who were in maximum numbers of 253 respondents. The third group had total 90 respondents who were 12th pass and the respondents who were either diploma holders or having other technical background were 80.

Table 5.28 Descriptives – Education

EC

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
PG	154	3.4885	.46938	.03782	3.3838	3.5332	2.88	4.24
UG	253	3.4152	.46000	.02892	3.4083	3.5222	2.88	4.24
12 th	90	3.3552	.50604	.05334	3.3392	3.5512	2.88	4.24
Diploma	80	3.5693	.48480	.05420	3.4214	3.6371	2.88	4.24
Total	577	3.4692	.47279	.01968	3.4305	3.5078	2.88	4.24

Table 5.29 ANOVA

EC

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.362	3	.121	.738	.043
Within Groups	128.390	573	.224		
Total	128.752	576			

The result of ANOVA (Table 5.29) shows analysis and reveals whether there is a significant difference between educational qualification group means. It can be perceived that the significance level is 0.043 ($p = .043$), which is below 0.05 and, hence we can say that there is a significant difference in sales people's EC having different educational qualification. Sales people who possessed different educational qualification showed an obvious dissimilarity in their level of EC. Thus, H_0 is rejected at 95% confidence level. Hence, it is proved that there

exists a significant difference in EC of salespeople with respect to education qualification in retail industry.

Table 5.30 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EC

Tukey HSD

(I) Education	(J) Education	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
PG	UG	.00113	.00166	.036	-.0032	.0054
	12th	-.00130	.00216	.041	-.0069	.0043
	Others	-.00051	.00224	.026	-.0063	.0053
UG	PG	-.00113	.00166	.036	-.0054	.0032
	12th	-.00243	.00200	.011	-.0076	.0027
	Others	-.00164	.00208	.028	-.0070	.0037
12th	PG	.00130	.00216	.041	-.0043	.0069
	UG	.00243	.00200	.011	-.0027	.0076
	Others	.00079	.00250	.439	-.0056	.0072
Others	PG	.00051	.00224	.026	-.0053	.0063
	UG	.00164	.00208	.028	-.0037	.0070
	12th	-.00079	.00250	.439	-.0072	.0056

Looking at the above table 5.30, we can see that most of the values are less than .05. However, there are two values that are 0.439. These values correspond with the comparison between the Groups of Education levels. For this reason, we can conclude that respondents having education qualification of PG, UG, were significantly different in terms EC. However, the other comparisons of 12th and others were not significantly different from one another.

4. Experience and Emotional Competence

H₀: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of Sales people with different level of experience.

H₁: There is a significant difference in Emotional Competence of Sales people with different level of experience.

Total four experience groups were formed to identify if there were any significant differences in the EC of salespeople belonging to various experience groups (Table 5.28). The group comprised of sales people who had experience of less than 1 year, second group involved sales people having experience of 1 to 3 years, the third group had candidates of experience

between 3 to 5 years and group four comprised of sales people having experience of more than 5 years. Maximum respondents were 191 who belonged to the experience group between 3 to 5 years. Least numbers of respondents that is 90 belonged to the group who had experience of more than 5 years.

Table 5.31 Descriptives - Experience

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0-1	106	3.4005	.47666	.04630	3.3487	3.5323	2.88	4.24
1-3	190	3.3822	.45938	.03333	3.3765	3.5080	2.88	4.24
3-5	191	3.5710	.47905	.03466	3.4426	3.5794	2.88	4.24
>5	90	3.4712	.48401	.05102	3.3698	3.5726	2.88	4.24
Total	577	3.4692	.47279	.01968	3.4305	3.5078	2.88	4.24

Table 5.32 ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.560	3	.187	2.834	.025
Within Groups	128.192	573	.224		
Total	128.752	576			

The ANOVA table 5.32 checks whether there is a statistically significant difference between experience group means. It can be observed that the significance level is 0.025 ($p = .025$), which is below 0.05 and, therefore, there is a significant difference in salespeople's EC having different experience groups. Sales people of various experience groups showed clear difference in their level of EC. Thus, H_0 is rejected at 95% confidence level. It can be analyzed that there exists a significant difference between the level of EC of sales people and their groups of work experience in retail industry.

Table 5.33 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EC						
Tukey HSD						
(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0-1	1-3	-.00361	.00197	.026	-.0087	.0015
	3-5	-.00266	.00196	.038	-.0077	.0024
	>5	-.00376	.00233	.013	-.0098	.0023
1-3	0-1	.00361	.00197	.026	-.0015	.0087
	3-5	.00095	.00166	.040	-.0033	.0052
	>5	-.00014	.00208	.017	-.0055	.0052
3-5	0-1	.00266	.00196	.038	-.0024	.0077
	1-3	-.00095	.00166	.040	-.0052	.0033
	>5	-.00110	.00208	.023	-.0065	.0043
>5	0-1	.00376	.00233	.013	-.0023	.0098
	1-3	.00014	.00208	.017	-.0052	.0055
	3-5	.00110	.00208	.023	-.0043	.0065

Looking at the above table 5.33, we can see that all the values are less than .05. These values demonstrate the comparison between the Experience Groups and EC. For this reason, we can conclude that respondents having various experience groups of 0-1, 1-3, 3-5 and >5 years were significantly different in terms EC.

5. Age and Emotional Competence

H₀: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales People across different Age groups.

H₁: There is a significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales People across different Age groups

The descriptive table 5.34 offers extremely useful descriptive statistics, comprising mean, standard deviation and 95% confidence intervals for the dependent variable, Emotional Competence for each distinct age group (18-20, 21-25, 26-30 and above 30 years), in addition when all groups are shared. Out of total respondents, total 193 respondents fit in to the age group of 21-25 years. The smallest number of respondents that is 107 belonged to the age group of above 30 years.

Table 5.34 Descriptives - Age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
18-20	113	3.4842	.49249	.04633	3.3724	3.5560	2.88	4.24
21-25	193	3.4412	.46814	.03370	3.4048	3.5377	2.88	4.24
26-30	164	3.3187	.46725	.03649	3.3566	3.5007	2.88	4.24
>30	107	3.5329	.46798	.04524	3.4432	3.6226	2.88	4.24
Total	577	3.4692	.47279	.01968	3.4305	3.5078	2.88	4.24

Table 5.35 ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.707	3	.236	2.055	.028
Within Groups	128.045	573	.223		
Total	128.752	576			

This is the table 5.35, which shows output of ANOVA analysis and whether there is any significant difference between group means. It can be seen that the significance level is 0.028 ($p = .028$), which is below 0.05 and, therefore, there is a significant difference in the level of emotional competence for the sales people of diverse age groups. Thus, sales people belonging to different ages are likely to show visible difference in EC. And therefore H_0 is rejected.

Table 5.36 Multiple Comparison

Dependent Variable: EC						
Tukey HSD						
(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
18-20	21-25	.00261	.00192	.028	-.0023	.0076
	26-30	-.00022	.00198	.014	-.0053	.0049
	>30	.00043	.00219	.033	-.0052	.0061
21-25	18-20	-.00261	.00192	.028	-.0076	.0023
	26-30	-.00283	.00172	.016	-.0073	.0016
	>30	-.00217	.00196	.045	-.0072	.0029
26-30	18-20	.00022	.00198	.014	-.0049	.0053

	21-25	.00283	.00172	.016	-.0016	.0073
	>30	.00065	.00202	.022	-.0046	.0059
>30	18-20	-.00043	.00219	.033	-.0061	.0052
	21-25	.00217	.00196	.045	-.0029	.0072
	26-30	-.00065	.00202	.022	-.0059	.0046

Looking at the above table 5.36, we can see that all the values are less than .05. These values exhibit the comparison between the Age Groups and EC. For this reason, we can conclude that respondents having various age groups of 18-20, 21-25, 26-30 and >30 years were significantly different in terms EC.

Objective 6: To measure the relationship between Emotional Competence and Sales Performance (based on outcomes, behavior and professional development)

The sixth objective deals with measuring the relationship between Emotional Competence and sales performance which is based on outcomes, behavior and professional development of sales persons. The evidence that Emotional Competence is a linked to job performance is clear. The problem is that no-one can agree what it is about EC that actually makes the difference to performance. However, after many researches and studies, the authors were able to conclude that there is a strong correlation between EC and sales performance.

Now, we shall find the relationship between Factors of Emotional Competence and Factors of Sales Performance (Table 5.37)

Table 5.37 Factors of Emotional Competence and Factors of Sales Performance

No. of Factors	Factors of Emotional Competence	No. of Factors	Factors of Sales Performance
1	Self-Perception	1	Customer Centric Behavior
2	Self-confidence	2	Result Oriented
3	Interpretation of Unspoken cues	3	Professionalism
4	Jovial		
5	Thoughtfulness		

Table 5.38 Regression Analysis of Overall EC and Sales Performance of the Sales People

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.795 ^a	.767	.085	.45218

a. Predictors: (Constant), sales Performance

Table 5.38 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R² square and standard error of the estimate. The R column represents the value of R, the multiple correlation coefficients. R can be considered to be one measure of the quality of the prediction of the dependent variable, Sales Performance. A value of 0.795 indicates a good level of prediction. The R Square column represents the R² value (also called the coefficient of determination), which is the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that can be explained by the independent variables. R² value is 0.767 indicating that independent variable (Emotional Competence) explain 76.7% of the variability in Sales Performance.

Table 5.39 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.184	1	11.184	54.697	.000 ^b
	Residual	117.568	575	.204		
	Total	128.752	576			

a. Dependent Variable: EC

b. Predictors: (Constant), Sales Performance

The F ratio in the Anova table (table 5.39) tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 54.697$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.40 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.814	.225		8.079	.000
	EC	.472	.064	.295	7.396	.000

a. Dependent Variable: sales performance

A Linear regression was run to predict sales performance of sales people in relation with the emotional competence. The emotional competence significantly predicted sales performance $F = 54.697$, $p < .005$, $R^2 = 0.767$. Also, The effect of EC ($b = -.472$, $p = .000$) is significant and its coefficient is positive indicating that high level of EC promotes better Sales Performance.

Now, in the below tables, researcher has performed Regression Analysis between each factor of Emotional Competence and each factor of Sales Performance.

1. Self-Perception and Customer Centric Behavior

Table 5.41 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.251 ^a	.417	.404	.52216

a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Perception

Table 5.41 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.251 indicates a low level of prediction of Customer Centric Behavior factor of Sales performance (SP) based on Self-Perception factor of Emotional Competence (EC). The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Customer Centric Behavior that can be explained by Self-Perception. R² value is 0.417 indicating that Self-Perception explain 41.7% of the variability in Customer Centric Behavior.

Table 5.42 ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	.454	1	.454	3.102	.024 ^b
Residual	237.114	575	.412		
Total	237.568	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

b. Predictors: (Constant), Self-perception

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 3.102$, $p < .005$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.43 Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	.491	.073		6.718	.000
	Self-perception	.035	.033	.044	1.050	.024

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

A linear regression was run to predict Customer Centric behavior of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 3.102$, $p < .005$, $R^2 = .417$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Self Perception (factor of EC) on Customer Centric behavior (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

2. Self-Perception and Result Oriented

Table 5.44 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.634 ^a	.718	.001	.64244

a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Perception

Table 5.44 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.634 indicates a good level of prediction of Result Oriented factor of SP based on Self-Perception factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Result Oriented factor that can be explained by Self-Perception. R² value is 0.718 indicating that Self-Perception explains 71.8% of the variability in Result Oriented factor.

Table 5.45 ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
1	Regression	.584	1	.584	4.416	.035 ^b
	Residual	237.319	575	.413		
	Total	237.903	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

b. Predictors: (Constant), Self-perception

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 4.416$, $p < .005$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.46 Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.243	.073		3.318	.001
1 Self-Perception	.039	.033	.050	1.190	.025

a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

A linear regression was run to predict Result Oriented factor of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 4.416$, $p < .005$, $R^2 = .718$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Self Perception (factor of EC) on Result Oriented (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

3. Self-Perception and Professionalism

Table 5.47 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.909 ^a	.881	.061	.43712

a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-perception

Table 5.47 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.909 indicates a good level of prediction of Professionalism factor of SP based on Self-Perception factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Professionalism that can be explained by Self-Perception. R² value is 0.881 indicating that Self-Perception explain 88.1% of the variability in Professionalism.

Table 5.48 ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	.005	1	.005	7.290	.021 ^b
1 Residual	10.811	575	.019		
Total	10.816	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

b. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Perception

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 7.290$, $p < .005$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.49 Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.730	.016	46.710	.000
	Self-Perception	.004	.007	.022	.539

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

A linear regression was run to predict Professionalism of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 7.290$, $p < .005$, $R^2 = .881$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Self Perception (factor of EC) on Professionalism (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

4. Self Confidence and Customer Centric Behavior

Table 5.50 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.0871 ^a	.792	.001	.74285

a. Predictors: (Constant).Self Confidence

Table 5.50 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.871 indicates a good level of prediction of Customer Centric Behavior factor of SP based on Self-confidence factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Customer Centric Behavior that can be explained by Self-confidence. R² value is 0.792 indicating that Self-confidence explains 79.2% of the variability in Customer Centric Behavior.

Table 5.51 ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
1	Regression	.540	1	.540	5.310	.011 ^b
	Residual	237.029	575	.412		

Total	237.568	576		
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- a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior
- b. Predictors: (Constant), Self Confidence

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 5.310$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.52 Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.499	.074		6.745	.000
1 Self confidence	.038	.033	.048	1.144	.023

- a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

A linear regression was run to predict Customer Centric Behavior of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 5.310$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .792$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Self Confidence (factor of EC) on Customer Centric Behavior (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

5. Self Confidence and Result Oriented

Table 5.53 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.914 ^a	.902	.002	.94312

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Self Confidence

Table 5.53 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.914 indicates a good level of prediction of Result Oriented factor of SP based on Self-confidence factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Result Oriented that can be explained by Self-confidence. R² value is 0.902 indicating that Self-confidence explain 90.2% of the variability in Result Oriented.

Table 5.54 ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	.008	1	.598	8.118	.008 ^b

Residual	237.895	575	.414	
Total	237.903	576		

- a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented
b. Predictors: (Constant), Self Confidence

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 8.118$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.55 Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.333	.074		4.497	.000
Self Confidence	.025	.033	-.006	-.136	.008

- a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

A linear regression was run to predict Result Oriented approach of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 8.118$, $p < .05$, $R_2 = .902$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Self Confidence (factor of EC) on Result Oriented (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

6. Self Confidence and Professionalism

Table 5.56 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.882 ^a	.824	.001	.73711

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Self Confidence

Table 5.56 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.882 indicates a good level of prediction of Professionalism factor of SP based on Self-confidence factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Professionalism that can be explained by Self-confidence. R² value is 0.824 indicating that Self-confidence explains 82.4% of the variability in Professionalism.

Table 5.57 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.007	1	.007	3.373	.042 ^b
	Residual	10.809	575	.019		
	Total	10.816	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

b. Predictors: (Constant), Self Confidence

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 3.373$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.58 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.731	.016		46.262	.000
	Self Confidence	-.004	.007	-.025	-.611	.042

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

A linear regression was run to predict Professionalism of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 3.373$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .824$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Self Confidence (factor of EC) on Professionalism (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

Self -confidence ($b = -.004$) is significant ($p = 0.042$), but only just so, and the coefficient is negative ($-.025$) which would indicate that greater self Confidence is related to greater Professionalism

7. Interpretation of Unspoken Cues and Customer Centric Behavior

Table 5.59 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.929 ^a	.901	.007	.64227

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interpretation of Unspoken Cues

Table 5.59 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.929 indicates a good level of prediction of Customer Centric Behavior factor of SP based on Interpretation of Unspoken Cues factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the

proportion of variance in Customer Centric Behavior that can be explained by on Interpretation of Unspoken Cues. R2 value is 0.901 indicating that on Interpretation of Unspoken Cues explain 90.1% of the variability in Customer Centric Behavior.

Table 5.60 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.374	1	.374	7.906	.026 ^b
	Residual	237.195	575	.413		
	Total	237.568	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interpretation of Unspoken Cues

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 7.906$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.61 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.484	.072		6.684	.000
	Interpretation of Unspoken Cues	.031	.033	.040	.952	.026

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

A linear regression was run to predict Customer Centric Behavior of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 7.906$, $p < .05$, $R_2 = .901$. Thus, there is a significant impact of on Interpretation of Unspoken Cues (factor of EC) on Customer Centric Behavior (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

8. Interpretation of Unspoken Cues and Result oriented

Table 5.62 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.143 ^a	.127	.001	.34242

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interpretation of Unspoken Cues

Table 5.62 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.143 indicates a low level of prediction of Result Oriented factor of SP based on Interpretation of Unspoken Cues factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Result Oriented that can be explained by Interpretation of Unspoken Cues factor. R² value is 0.127 indicating that Interpretation of Unspoken Cues explain only 12.7% of the variability in Result Oriented factor.

Table 5.63 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.598	1	.598	1.450	.047 ^b
	Residual	237.305	575	.413		
	Total	237.903	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interpretation of Unspoken Cues

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 1.450$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.64 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.243	.072		3.352	.001
	Interpretation of Unspoken Cues	.039	.033	.050	1.204	.047

a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

A linear regression was run to predict Result Oriented of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 1.450$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .127$. Thus, there is a low significant impact of Interpretation of Unspoken Cues (factor of EC) on Result Oriented (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

9. Interpretation of Unspoken Cues and Professionalism

Table 5.65 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.658 ^a	.614	.001	.43713

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interpretation of Unspoken Cues

Table 5.65 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.658 indicates a good level of prediction of Professionalism factor of SP based on Interpretation of Unspoken Cues factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Professionalism that can be explained by Interpretation of Unspoken Cues. R² value is 0.614 indicating that Interpretation of Unspoken Cues explains 61.4% of the variability in Professionalism.

Table 5.66 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.003	1	.003	7.141	.039 ^b
	Residual	10.813	575	.019		
	Total	10.816	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interpretation of Unspoken Cues

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 7.141$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.67 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.727	.015		47.027	.000
	Interpretation of Unspoken Cues	.003	.007	.016	.376	.039

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

A linear regression was run to predict Professionalism of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 7.141$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .614$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Interpretation of Unspoken Cues (factor of EC) on Professionalism (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

10. Jovial and Customer Centric Behavior

Table 5.68 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.288 ^a	.210	.002	.64273

a. Predictors: (Constant), Jovial

Table 5.68 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.288 indicates a low level of prediction of Customer Centric Behavior factor of SP based on Jovial factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Customer Centric Behavior that can be explained by Jovial. R² value is 0.210 indicating that Jovial explain 21% of the variability in Customer Centric Behavior.

Table 5.69 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.033	1	.033	3.180	.047 ^b
	Residual	237.535	575	.413		
	Total	237.568	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

b. Predictors: (Constant), Jovial

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 3.180$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.70 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.439	.074		5.953	.000
	Jovial	.009	.033	.012	.283	.047

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

A linear regression was run to predict Customer Centric Behavior of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 3.180$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .210$. Thus, there is a low significant impact of Jovial (factor of EC) on Customer Centric Behavior (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

11. Jovial and Result oriented

Table 5.71 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.499 ^a	.473	.001	.64230

a. Predictors: (Constant), Jovial

Table 5.71 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.882 indicates a good level of prediction of Result Oriented factor of SP based on jovial factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Result Oriented that can be explained by Jovial. R² value is 0.473 indicating that Jovial explain 47.3% of the variability in Result Oriented factor.

Table 5.72 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.688	1	.688	2.669	.044 ^b
	Residual	237.215	575	.413		
	Total	237.903	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

b. Predictors: (Constant), Jovial

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 2.669$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.73 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.413	.074		5.594	.000
	Jovial	.042	.033	.054	-1.292	.044

a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

A linear regression was run to predict Result Oriented of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 3.373$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .473$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Jovial (factor of EC) on Result Oriented (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

12. Jovial and Professionalism

Table 5.74 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.418 ^a	.382	.001	.23698

a. Predictors: (Constant), Jovial

Table 5.75 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.382 indicates a relatively low level of prediction of Professionalism factor of SP based on jovial factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Professionalism that can be explained by Jovial. R² value is 0.382 indicating that Jovial explain 38.2% of the variability in Professionalism.

Table 5.75 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.027	1	.027	4.428	.033 ^b
	Residual	10.789	575	.019		
	Total	10.816	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

b. Predictors: (Constant), Jovial

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 4.428$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.76 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.739	.016		46.987	.000
	Jovial	.008	.007	.050	1.195	.033

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

A linear regression was run to predict Professionalism of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 4.428$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .382$. Thus, there is a low significant impact of jovial (factor of EC) on Professionalism (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

13. Thoughtfulness and Customer Centric Behavior

Table 5.77 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.876 ^a	.860	.002	.84274

a. Predictors: (Constant), Thoughtfulness

Table 5.77 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.876 indicates a good level of prediction of Customer Centric Behavior factor of SP based on Thoughtfulness factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Customer Centric Behavior that can be explained by Thoughtfulness. R² value is 0.860 indicating that Thoughtfulness explains 86% of the variability in Customer Centric Behavior.

Table 5.78 ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	.027	1	.027	2.064	.038 ^b
Residual	237.542	575	.413		
Total	237.568	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

b. Predictors: (Constant), Thoughtfulness

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 2.064$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.79 Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.402	.076		5.254	.000
Thoughtfulness	.009	.034	.011	.253	.038

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Centric Behavior

A linear regression was run to predict Customer Centric Behavior of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 2.064$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .860$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Thoughtfulness (factor of EC) on Customer Centric Behavior (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

14. Thoughtfulness and Result Oriented

Table 5.80 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.567 ^a	.539	.002	.64320

a. Predictors: (Constant), Thoughtfulness

Table 5.80 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.882 indicates a good level of prediction of Result Oriented factor of SP based on Thoughtfulness factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Result Oriented that can be explained by Thoughtfulness. R² value is 0.539 indicating that Thoughtfulness explains 53.9% of the variability in Result Oriented factor.

Table 5.81 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.018	1	.018	3.044	.033 ^b
	Residual	237.885	575	.414		
	Total	237.903	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

b. Predictors: (Constant), Thoughtfulness

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 3.044$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.82 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.339	.077		4.429	.000
	Thoughtfulness	.007	.034	.009	.211	.033

a. Dependent Variable: Result Oriented

A linear regression was run to predict Result Oriented of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 3.044$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .539$. Thus, there is a significant impact of Thoughtfulness (factor of EC) on Result Oriented (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

15. Thoughtfulness and Professionalism

Table 5.83 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.698 ^a	.675	.001	.63712

a. Predictors: (Constant), Thoughtfulness

Table 5.83 is the model summary table indicating values of R, R². A value of 0.698 indicates a good level of prediction of Professionalism factor of SP based on Thoughtfulness factor of EC. The R Square column represents the R² value, which is the proportion of variance in Professionalism that can be explained by Thoughtfulness. R² value is 0.675 indicating that Thoughtfulness explains 67.5% of the variability in Professionalism.

Table 5.84 ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	.004	1	.004	3.230	.032 ^b
Residual	10.812	575	.019		
Total	10.816	576			

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

b. Predictors: (Constant), Thoughtfulness

The F ratio in the Anova table tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The table shows that $F = 3.230$, $p < .05$. Thus, regression model is good fit of the data.

Table 5.85 Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.729	.016		44.687	.000
Thoughtfulness	.003	.007	.020	.479	.032

a. Dependent Variable: Professionalism

A linear regression was run to predict Professionalism of sales people of retail industry. The figures showed $F = 3.230$, $p < .05$, $R_2 = .675$. Thus, there is a significant impact Thoughtfulness (factor of EC) on Professionalism (factor of SP) of sales people in retail industry of Gujarat state.

Chapter 6

RESEARCH FINDINGS

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Research findings

6.3 Findings from Research Objectives.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter evolves findings of the research. It presents feasible descriptions, associations to previous researches and confers findings of the present study. Emotional Competence and its impact on sales people have been studied through this research. Differences in the level of competencies based on demographic variables such as age, gender, experience, education, and salary have been considered. The rationale of this chapter is to examine statistical results and effect of Emotional Competence of sales people in the retail industry. This chapter represents findings and results of the study. In the beginning, research findings are presented and then the chapter proceeds on the discussion of the findings for all the research objectives.

6.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS

There are several key findings of the study mentioned as below:

A sales representative in the retail industry requires various competencies such as interpretation skills, commercial awareness, functional abilities as well as managerial competencies. However, along with the organizational competencies, sales people are required to possess emotional competencies like empathetic behavior, self-perception, optimistic approach and understanding nonverbal cues of the customers. The most important competencies required to perform the job in an effective manner are functional competencies as well as emotional competencies. Based on the factor analysis, five factors of Emotional Competence were derived namely: Self-Perception, Self-Confidence, Interpretation of Unspoken Cues, Jovial and Thoughtfulness. To measure the effect of Emotional Competence on sales performance, ten questions based on performances were asked to the sales people and from the responses received, another three factors were derived. They are Customer Centric Behavior, Result Oriented, and Professionalism. Regression Analysis measuring the impact of EC on Sales performance was also checked. The detailed research findings based on the objectives are as under.

6.3 FINDINGS FOR RESEARCH OBJECTIVES:

Objective 1. To identify the level of Emotional Competence (EC) of salespeople in organized retail industry

Based on the various literatures reviewed and after analyzing all the Emotional Intelligence (EI) Models, Schutte Model of Emotional Intelligence (SESI) was used. Here, it should be noted that since very few models of Emotional Competence were available and also very expensive to purchase, the researcher has used the model of Emotional Intelligence. From different models EI, Schutte Model of Emotional Intelligence was applied which best fitted the research objectives. The Schutte model has 33 questions which fulfilled major research objectives.

To identify the level of Emotional Competence, we have to consider Weighted Mean and Standard Deviation. An average of weighted mean and standard deviation is calculated which is mentioned below:

Weighted Average = 3.46

Standard Deviation = 1.13

On 1 to 5 Likert scale, it is positioned at 3.46, which is more skewed towards agreement side or it could also be said to be moderately high. Hence we can say that the level of Emotional Competence of sales people in organized retail is moderately high.

Findings for objective 2: To identify the important factors in maintaining Emotional Competence of sales people.

Total 33 statements were asked to respondents as per Schutte Emotional Intelligence Model. In order to identify key factors of Emotional Competence and data reduction, factor analysis was performed. Rotated component matrix was executed for factor loading. Findings of the factor analysis suggested that following five factors are important for maintain Emotional Competence.

Table 6.1 List of Factors of Emotional Competence

Sr. No.	Factors of Emotional Competence
1	Self-Perception
2	Self-Confidence
3	Interpretation of Unspoken Cues
4	Jovial
5	Thoughtfulness

Factor 1: Self-Perception

Self-Perception is one of the key components of Emotional Competence. People decide on their own attitudes and feelings by viewing themselves perform in various circumstances. Self-Perception as being made up of emotional consciousness, precise self-assessment, and self-assurance. In other words, it is all about knowing one’s emotions, personal strengths and weaknesses, and having a clear wisdom of one’s own value.

Factor 2. Self-confidence

Today’s workplace demand more than sharp business insight and professional skills to be successful. If an employee desires to lead the race and reach the top position, then developing Self-confidence is essential. Sales people who are optimistic are more expected to create a fine bond with customers and confirm a favorable ending to the transaction. Optimistic salespeople will bring extra sales. By imparting Self-confidence in the organization, employees will be able to exploit their greatest capacity and can release their own competence for success.

Factor 3. Interpretation of unspoken cues

Individuals translate messages according how you respond, pay attention, observe, etc. while communicating. When spoken and unspoken gestures do not coordinate, it creates suspicion, vague message, confusions and misperception. Non-verbal communication is used to display various emotions such as pleasure, irritation, sorrow, curiosity, awkwardness, etc. People exhibit these emotions automatically. They convey their empathetic behavior through non-verbal interaction. So when customers communicate with the sales people, sales people must complement what they say with proper signs and body language. Sales people should also observe the unspoken cues of the customers they are interacting with.

Factor 4. Jovial

If one is in a good (happy) mood, there are fair more chances of bringing creative ideas at work. Jovial and happy people tend to have more pleasure in and around and thus have good interactions at work. On the other hand, if a person feels low, or is demotivated, it will directly result into low efficiency, and the only way to be motivated at work is to be happy and make surrounding cheerful. Jovial nature helps to have more contented customers and enhanced sales. Apart, jovial characteristic facilitates pleasantness and sociability with customers also.

Factor 5. Thoughtfulness

Individuals who have achieved great heights in their professions because of brilliant technical skills sometimes do not cope-up with their team mates; it's for the reason that they're not much productive in their people (soft) skills. People believe that a person's true picture is seen when he deals with other people i.e. interacting with others. Here is where Thoughtfulness plays its role. Thoughtfulness is ability to recognize and identify emotions in others, and being capable to "put yourself in another person's shoes" – understanding the other person's viewpoint and truth. Thoughtfulness is an important factor for sales person. A sales person should put himself into customer's place and understand his requisite. It helps customers to be friendly with sales people and builds faith with the organization's employees.

Thus, the findings of this objective were closely related to the findings of the previous studies. A study by Cavallo (1999) at Johnson & Johnson Consumer and Personal Care

Group confirms successful executives were perceived to be high on Empathy, Self-Management ability, Social competence, and Organizational familiarity. Furthermore, a research carried out by Benard (Benard, 2004) confirmed that Empathy is also measured as a crucial social-emotional ability and a number of writers have emphasized it as one of most essential competences D. Jamali, et al, (2008) studied Emotional Competence from the Lebanese perspective, the outcomes were Empathy, Self-regulation, Self-motivation, Social awareness and Social skills had significant impact on work performance.

Findings for Objective 3: To identify perceived importance of each factor of Emotional Competence.

To fulfill this objective, Initial Eigen value from Factor Analysis was considered. Eigenvalue reflects the number of extracted factors whose sum should be equal to number of items (33). Initial Eigen Value of each factor is divided by the number of items which determines the weight of that factor. For easy understanding, the values obtained after dividing with number of items is converted into percentage.

Table 6.2 Weighted Average of Factors of EC

Factors	Initial Eigen Value	No. of items	Eigen Value/No. of Items	% weight
Self-Perception	11.93	33	0.36	36.16%
Self-Confidence	10.10	33	0.30	30.62%
Interpretation of Unspoken Cues	5.41	33	0.16	16.38%
Jovial	2.41	33	0.07	07.32%
Thoughtfulness	1.49	33	0.04	04.48%

In the above table, the last column (% weight) is the actual weight of each factor of Emotional Competence. Higher the value, more importance the factor possesses. From the calculation, it was found that the first factor Self-Perception accounted 36.16% of the overall weight, the second factor Self-confidence weighted 30.62%, the third factor Interpretation of Unspoken Cues was 16.38%, the forth factor Jovial was of 07.32% and the last factor, Thoughtfulness only weighted 4.48%.

It was discovered that, conditional to the industry and the work requirement, some emotional competencies may be unimportant as forecasters of job performance. A study on Emotional Competence of insurance sales executive (Nisar & Asha, 2014) resulted that life insurance sales executives understand the significance of self-confidence as a major factor of their

Emotional Competence which helped them to improve their sales performance. Abhishek , (Abishek, 2009) in this article focuses on a vital fact that gaining knowledge and understanding about oneself (self-perception) is one of the most basic factor of being emotional competent. A study on critical Success factor for selling funeral policies (Shiri, Chitakunye, & Fields, 2014) revealed that some of the competences on emotional competence were insignificantly related to sales agents' performance while others, such as understanding hidden emotions of customers and social skills, were substantial.

Findings for Objective 4: To identify how Emotional Competence and its factors distinguish among low, medium and high performances.

For this objective, 10 questions were added in the questionnaire which measured Sales Performance. These questions were taken from various established standardized scales. Based on the items, factor analysis was done to identify factors of sales performance. Three factors were extracted namely: Customer Centric Behavior, Result Oriented and Professionalism. The brief of the factors is given below:

Factor 1: Customer Centric Behaviour

It means developing a thinking that customers should be placed in the centre and employees should be trained to display customer centric behaviour since, customer centric behaviour will boost organization's profit margin. Front-line salespeople should know how to read and appropriately respond to customer emotions. Using ANOVA, the P value obtained was 0.000 which was less than 0.05. The mean values of all level of performers were above 3; however there was a slight difference in their means. Hence we can see that there was a significant difference across Emotional Competence and low, medium and high performers of Customer Centric Behavior factor.

Factor 2: Result Oriented

Result oriented behavior in reality illustrates how flourishing the individual is as a sales person. Result oriented employees mainly focus on endorsing and selling the products. Result oriented approach of employees have helped many companies earn huge profits if well directed. The outlook can encourage sales people for better performance. From the ANOVA used, the P value was 0.000 which is less than 0.05. The mean values of all level of performers were above 3; however there was a slight difference in their means. Hence we can see that there was a significant difference across Emotional Competence and low, medium and high performers for Result Oriented factor.

Factor 3: Professionalism

The statements given in the questionnaire were put to measure professional conduct of retail sales people. Professionalism helps in better listening skills with customers, developing more adaptable attitude, having effective personnel management and the development of leadership acumen etc.

To identify how Emotional Competence and its factors were distinguished between low, medium and high performers. ANOVA tool of measurement was used and the descriptive table is considered to exhibit level of performers. In the ANOVA table, it was seen that the group means are significantly different because the p value for all levels for all factors of sales performance was 0.000 which is less than 0.05. The mean values of all level of performers were above 3; however there was a slight difference in their means.

Hence we can see that there was a significant difference across Emotional Competence and low, medium and high performers for all the factors Customer centric Behavior, Result oriented and Professionalism. Hence, we can see the significant difference between EC and its factors for the level of performers (high, medium and low). Also, it supports the results of past studies. A research was conducted on understanding relationship between emotional competence and sales performance in Kuwait where the researchers found that “low” performers were of low EC levels while “high” performers had higher EC levels (S.AIDosiry & H.Alkhadher, 2016). A researcher Christopher Blocker (Blocker, 2009) in his study on Hallmark Communities found that those sales people who acquired higher levels of Emotional Competence were more constructive than their colleagues with low levels of Emotional Competence.

And therefore, the first hypothesis (H_{01}), Job performance does not vary amongst respondents with different level of EC is rejected.

Findings for Objective 5: To find out if there are any differences across demographics and Emotional Competence

One way Anova test was run to examine if there are significant difference in the level of Emotional Competence held by the sales people across various demographic variables such as Gender, Age, Experience, Education and Salary.

H0₂: There is a no significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales People in organized retail based on Gender.

H0₃: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales people based on Age.

H0₄: There is no significant difference in Emotional Competence of Sales people with different education level.

Also, Salary, being a part of demographic variable, ANOVA was run to check whether there is any significant difference in Emotional Competence of sales people based on Salary.

Table 6.3 Summary of Independent and Dependent variable

Sr. no.	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sig. Value	Interpretation
1	Gender	Emotional Competence	.046	H ₀ Rejected
2	Age	Emotional Competence	.028	H ₀ Rejected
3	Education	Emotional Competence	.043	H ₀ Rejected
4	Experience	Emotional Competence	.025	H ₀ Rejected
5	Salary	Emotional Competence	.603	H ₀ Accepted

The result thus obtained is consistent with the findings of the previous studies; where it was concluded that there is a difference in the mean scores of male and female employees (Hassan Jorfi, April 2011). Age was found to be positively associated with EC. The outcome of this research was in uniformity with the earlier study (Wong & Law, 2002) where it was established that age links positively with EC across different job conditions. The credible motive for the highly qualified salespeople scoring more on the EI scale can be recognized to the fact that these employees have the need to communicate with customers of diverse families, which results in them obtaining interpersonal skills and thus enhancing one's capacity of evaluating other's emotion. (Anand & Udayasuriyan, 2010). Moreover, the earlier research also concluded that the work experience due to the fact that having no or less work experience, the job of the sales people in the age group between 18 to 25 years have less time

communicating with customers which results them in not being conscious of their interpersonal skills and hence are weak at Emotional Competence. However, Salary was not having a significant difference (0.603) in the mean score of EC. And hence the hypothesis is accepted as p value is >0.05 .

Findings for Objective 6: To measure the relationship between Emotional Competence and sales performance (based on Outcomes, Behaviour and Professional Development)

Five factors of Emotional Competence and three factors of Sales Performance were compared and regression function was performed to check how EC impacts sales performance.

Table 6.4 Summary of Regression Analysis between factors of Emotional Competence and factors of Sales Performance

Factors of Emotional Competence	Factors of Sales Performance					
	Customer Centric Behaviour (R value)	R2 Value	Result Oriented (R value)	R2 Value	Professionalism (R value)	R2 Value
Self-Perception	0.251	0.417	0.634	0.718	0.909	0.881
Self-Confidence	0.871	0.792	0.914	0.902	0.882	0.824
Interpretation of Unspoken Cues	0.929	0.901	0.143	0.127	0.658	0.614
Jovial	0.288	0.210	0.499	0.473	0.418	0.382
Thoughtfulness	0.876	0.860	0.567	0.539	0.698	0.675

Linear regression was done to identify impact of Independent variable Emotional Competence on dependent variable Sales Performance. R value exhibits the relation between variable.

In the above table 6.4, we can see that first factor of Emotional Competence, Self-Perception was less correlated with customer centric behavior (Factor of SP) with R value of only 0.251. Whereas, it was mediocrely correlated with Result Oriented with R value of 0.634. However, a strong correlation existed with Professionalism with R value of 0.909.

- The second factor, Self Confidence was displayed a strong correlation with all the factors of Sales Performance i.e. R value 0.871 for Customer Centric Behavior, R value 0.914for Result Oriented and R value 0.824 for Professionalism.
- The third Factor, Interpretation of Unspoken Cues showed a fluctuating correlation between the factors of sales performance. The R value was highest (0.929) for Customer Centric Behavior. But, it was extremely low for Result Oriented factor with

the R value of only 0.143. However, it had a slightly above average correlation with the professionalism factor with R value of 0.658.

- The fourth factor of Emotional Competence, Jovial, conversely demonstrated low to below average level of correlation with all three factors of sales performance with R value of 0.288 for Customer Centric Behavior, 0.499 for result Oriented and 0.418 for Professionalism.
- The fifth and last factor of Emotional Competence is Thoughtfulness which presented an unstable level of correlation with a strong relationship between Customer Centric Behavior (R value 0.876). Whereas it had a middling correlation of 0.567 with result oriented factor and a decent correlation with Professionalism (R value 0.675)

Thus, it was found through research that having emotional competencies empowers superior sales performance among salespeople and leads to higher organization effectiveness. The above mentioned findings can be used for other industries also. It can be generalized that Emotional Competence is one of the key variables to enhance job performance. Other industries of India or Asia who aims to enhance job performance of their sales people should also attempt to increase the level of Emotional Competence of their employees.

The past results of similar studies disclosed related outcomes. Enhelder (Enhelder, 2011) studied sales people of financial sector and the results established a statistically significant impact of Emotional Competence on financial advisor sales performance. Successful Sales people use emotions to facilitate positive results for self and their customers. Also a research by Kidwell et al. (2012) supported the fact that emotions play a significant role in managing buyer-seller relationships. Within retail sales, Moon and Hur (Moon & Hur, 2011) studied the ways in which Emotional Competence affected emotional exhaustion that could influence organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance among 295 participating retail sales employees in South Korea. Hence, we can conclude that for this research, Self-Perception factor had high impact on Professionalism of the salespeople.

Chapter 7

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER 7

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Limitations of the study

7.2 Future Scope of Research

7.3 Recommendations

7.1 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is limited to explore the current level of Emotional Competence of sales people, factors affecting Emotional Competence and whether the demographics have any effect on EC of sales people. The research is conducted with quantitative methods to comprehend in-depth information of the research questions mentioned in the previous chapters. The survey intended to the sales people of organized retail outlets of major cities of Gujarat State. i.e. Ahmedabad, Vadodara, Surat, Rajkot, Bhavnagar, Jamnagar, Kutch, and Mehsana. Hence, the limitations of this study are stated as below:

1. The major drawback faced in the study was the language barrier. Most of the sales people being Gujarati localities did not properly understand or comprehend the English language. Hence, it was tough to translate the entire questionnaire into Gujarati language.
2. The study focused on sales people of only retail companies of selected cities of Gujarat State as the sampling unit of the study. Hence, the results cannot be generalized for all industries.
3. Due to the limitation of study timeline and sales people of selected cities of Gujarat state, the research subject chosen was only front line salespeople of retail outlets. Hence, some biases might have been incurred.
4. The study focused only on EC of sales people required in the retail industry in Gujarat state at the organizational level. While reviewing the literature regarding competencies and sales performance, it was found that effectiveness of organization can be evaluated in two ways: EC of employees and EC of managers. The research is limited to measuring EC of sales employees only. Moreover, there are several factors which influence sales performance other than EC which are not included in the study. The research is focused only on the Emotional Competence aspect of sales people.

7.2 FUTURE SCOPE OF RESEARCH

This research is conducted through quantitative data. However, it is suggested that future research can be incorporated into both quantitative as well as qualitative data. As the research was limited to only emotional competence and its effect on sales performance, more variables may be included for further consideration. Additionally, the research is limited to study emotional competence only, so further study can be conducted that measures and develops emotional competence. A related type of studies can be carried out for the other industries in

order to generalize the result of EC for sales people as this research is restricted to only retail industries of selected cities Gujarat state.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are based on the results of this study:

1. There exists a gap between the current level and required level of emotional competence in the salespeople of the retail industry of Gujarat state. It is suggested that sales people should develop higher know-how of emotional competence.
2. Moreover, in the retail industry, Marketing leaders and HR professionals should also assist them in grasping such required skills. Sales people should be endowed with learning prospects and training for getting proficiency in EC.
3. Sales people perceive only functional knowledge and customer centric behaviour approach to be very important. Emotional Competence is treated least important, a large number of respondents exhibited mediocre expertise in displaying EC. Hence, it is recommended that both Marketing managers and HR professionals understand the necessity of developing EC and try to make their sales team skilled in such competency.
4. Training sessions for future sales people can be tailored based on the important factors of EC acclaimed in this research. The same EC factors can also be utilized as one of the constituents for performance measurement of sales people in the retail industry of Gujarat state.

Chapter 8

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A Gender * EC Cross tabulation

		EC										Total	
		2.88	2.94	3.03	3.09	3.33	3.55	3.73	3.94	4.09	4.24		
Gender	Male	Count	46	44	44	40	43	44	39	48	33	45	426
		% within	10.8%	10.3%	10.3%	9.4%	10.1%	10.3%	9.2%	11.3%	7.7%	10.6%	100.0%
		Gender											
		% within	78.0%	74.6%	74.6%	67.8%	72.9%	74.6%	67.2%	82.8%	68.8%	76.3%	73.8%
		mean											
		Count	13	15	15	19	16	15	19	10	15	14	151
Female		% within	8.6%	9.9%	9.9%	12.6%	10.6%	9.9%	12.6%	6.6%	9.9%	9.3%	100.0%
		Gender											
		% within	22.0%	25.4%	25.4%	32.2%	27.1%	25.4%	32.8%	17.2%	31.3%	23.7%	26.2%
Total		Count	59	59	59	59	59	59	58	58	48	59	577
		% within	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.1%	10.1%	8.3%	10.2%	100.0%
		Gender											
		% within	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

APPENDIX B Salary * EC Cross tabulation

			EC								Total		
			2.88	2.94	3.03	3.09	3.33	3.55	3.73	3.94		4.09	4.24
Salary	5k-10k	Count	11	10	10	9	13	6	5	8	7	11	90
		% within Salary	12.2%	11.1%	11.1%	10.0%	14.4%	6.7%	5.6%	8.9%	7.8%	12.2%	100.0%
		% within mean	18.6%	16.9%	16.9%	15.3%	22.0%	10.2%	8.6%	13.8%	14.6%	18.6%	15.6%
	11k-15k	Count	20	17	22	20	19	20	24	18	16	13	189
		% within Salary	10.6%	9.0%	11.6%	10.6%	10.1%	10.6%	12.7%	9.5%	8.5%	6.9%	100.0%
		% within mean	33.9%	28.8%	37.3%	33.9%	32.2%	33.9%	41.4%	31.0%	33.3%	22.0%	32.8%
	16k-20k	Count	16	19	17	23	19	19	18	17	19	20	187
		% within Salary	8.6%	10.2%	9.1%	12.3%	10.2%	10.2%	9.6%	9.1%	10.2%	10.7%	100.0%
		% within mean	27.1%	32.2%	28.8%	39.0%	32.2%	32.2%	31.0%	29.3%	39.6%	33.9%	32.4%
	>20k	Count	12	13	10	7	8	14	11	15	6	15	111
		% within Salary	10.8%	11.7%	9.0%	6.3%	7.2%	12.6%	9.9%	13.5%	5.4%	13.5%	100.0%
		% within mean	20.3%	22.0%	16.9%	11.9%	13.6%	23.7%	19.0%	25.9%	12.5%	25.4%	19.2%
	Total	Count	59	59	59	59	59	59	58	58	48	59	577
		% within Salary	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.1%	10.1%	8.3%	10.2%	100.0%
		% within mean	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

APPENDIX C Education * EC Cross tabulation

		EC									Total	
		2.88	2.94	3.03	3.09	3.33	3.55	3.73	3.94	4.09		4.24
Education	Count	17	17	17	12	17	12	21	14	14	13	154
	PG % within Education	11.0%	11.0%	11.0%	7.8%	11.0%	7.8%	13.6%	9.1%	9.1%	8.4%	100.0%
	% within mean	28.8%	28.8%	28.8%	20.3%	28.8%	20.3%	36.2%	24.1%	29.2%	22.0%	26.7%
	Count	20	24	29	29	27	33	24	24	16	27	253
	UG % within Education	7.9%	9.5%	11.5%	11.5%	10.7%	13.0%	9.5%	9.5%	6.3%	10.7%	100.0%
	% within mean	33.9%	40.7%	49.2%	49.2%	45.8%	55.9%	41.4%	41.4%	33.3%	45.8%	43.8%
	Count	15	11	6	9	8	7	6	11	5	12	90
	12th % within Education	16.7%	12.2%	6.7%	10.0%	8.9%	7.8%	6.7%	12.2%	5.6%	13.3%	100.0%
	% within mean	25.4%	18.6%	10.2%	15.3%	13.6%	11.9%	10.3%	19.0%	10.4%	20.3%	15.6%
	Count	7	7	7	9	7	7	7	9	13	7	80
	Others % within Education	8.8%	8.8%	8.8%	11.3%	8.8%	8.8%	8.8%	11.3%	16.3%	8.8%	100.0%
	% within mean	11.9%	11.9%	11.9%	15.3%	11.9%	11.9%	12.1%	15.5%	27.1%	11.9%	13.9%
	Count	59	59	59	59	59	59	58	58	48	59	577
	Total % within Education	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.1%	10.1%	8.3%	10.2%	100.0%
	% within mean	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

APPENDIX D Experience * EC Cross Tabulation

		EC									Total			
		2.88	2.94	3.03	3.09	3.33	3.55	3.73	3.94	4.09		4.24		
Experience	0 -1	Count	13	11	11	10	15	8	9	10	8	11	106	
		% within Experience	12.3%	10.4%	10.4%	9.4%	14.2%	7.5%	8.5%	9.4%	7.5%	10.4%	100.0%	
		% within mean	22.0%	18.6%	18.6%	16.9%	25.4%	13.6%	15.5%	17.2%	16.7%	18.6%	18.4%	
		1-3	Count	19	19	23	20	20	20	21	17	16	15	190
		% within Experience	10.0%	10.0%	12.1%	10.5%	10.5%	10.5%	11.1%	8.9%	8.4%	7.9%	100.0%	
		% within mean	32.2%	32.2%	39.0%	33.9%	33.9%	33.9%	36.2%	29.3%	33.3%	25.4%	32.9%	
		3-5	Count	15	18	17	24	17	19	19	20	20	22	191
		% within Experience	7.9%	9.4%	8.9%	12.6%	8.9%	9.9%	9.9%	10.5%	10.5%	11.5%	100.0%	
		% within mean	25.4%	30.5%	28.8%	40.7%	28.8%	32.2%	32.8%	34.5%	41.7%	37.3%	33.1%	
		>5	Count	12	11	8	5	7	12	9	11	4	11	90
		% within Experience	13.3%	12.2%	8.9%	5.6%	7.8%	13.3%	10.0%	12.2%	4.4%	12.2%	100.0%	
		% within mean	20.3%	18.6%	13.6%	8.5%	11.9%	20.3%	15.5%	19.0%	8.3%	18.6%	15.6%	
Total		Count	59	59	59	59	59	59	58	58	48	59	577	
		% within Experience	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.1%	10.1%	8.3%	10.2%	100.0%	
		% within mean	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

APPENDIX E Age * EC Cross tabulation

		EC										Total	
		2.88	2.94	3.03	3.09	3.33	3.55	3.73	3.94	4.09	4.24		
Age	18-20	Count	17	8	10	12	14	11	7	9	11	14	113
		% within Age	15.0%	7.1%	8.8%	10.6%	12.4%	9.7%	6.2%	8.0%	9.7%	12.4%	100.0%
		mean	28.8%	13.6%	16.9%	20.3%	23.7%	18.6%	12.1%	15.5%	22.9%	23.7%	19.6%
		Count	18	21	20	19	17	24	21	18	16	19	193
		% within Age	9.3%	10.9%	10.4%	9.8%	8.8%	12.4%	10.9%	9.3%	8.3%	9.8%	100.0%
		mean	30.5%	35.6%	33.9%	32.2%	28.8%	40.7%	36.2%	31.0%	33.3%	32.2%	33.4%
		Count	15	20	20	21	15	14	15	19	11	14	164
		% within Age	9.1%	12.2%	12.2%	12.8%	9.1%	8.5%	9.1%	11.6%	6.7%	8.5%	100.0%
		mean	25.4%	33.9%	33.9%	35.6%	25.4%	23.7%	25.9%	32.8%	22.9%	23.7%	28.4%
		Count	9	10	9	7	13	10	15	12	10	12	107
		% within Age	8.4%	9.3%	8.4%	6.5%	12.1%	9.3%	14.0%	11.2%	9.3%	11.2%	100.0%
		mean	15.3%	16.9%	15.3%	11.9%	22.0%	16.9%	25.9%	20.7%	20.8%	20.3%	18.5%
Total		Count	59	59	59	59	59	59	58	58	48	59	577
		% within Age	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.2%	10.1%	10.1%	8.3%	10.2%	100.0%
		mean	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

APPENDIX F Factor Analysis - Component Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
VAR00030	.914				
VAR00004	.914				
VAR00028	.892				
VAR00005	.892				
VAR00002	.892				
VAR00032	.892				
VAR00001	.846				
VAR00027	.846				
VAR00031	.846				
VAR00022	.832				
VAR00007	.810				
VAR00008	.803				
VAR00025	.766				
VAR00010	.743				
VAR00021	.730				
VAR00011	.652				
VAR00029		.951			
VAR00033		.951			
VAR00003		.951			
VAR00006		.951			
VAR00009		.898			
VAR00020		-.734			
VAR00023		-.734			
VAR00014			.528		
VAR00017			.572		
VAR00013			-.817		
VAR00019			.799		
VAR00012					
VAR00024				.528	
VAR00015				.614	
VAR00018				.614	
VAR00016					.614
VAR00026					.687

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 5 components extracted.

SCHUTTE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE QUESTIONNAIRE (SEIS)

Sr. No	Particulars	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.					
2	When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.					
3	I expect that I will do well on most things I try.					
4	Other people find it easy to confide in me.					
5	I find it hard to understand the nonverbal messages of other people.					
6	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.					
7	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.					
8	Emotions are some of the things that make my life worth living.					
9	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.					
10	I expect good things to happen.					
11	I like to share my emotions with others.					
12	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.					
13	I arrange events others enjoy.					
14	I seek out activities that make me happy.					
15	I am aware of the nonverbal messages I send to others.					
16	I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.					
17	When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.					

18	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.					
19	I know why my emotions change.					
20	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.					
21	I have control over my emotions.					
22	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.					
23	I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.					
24	I compliment others when they have done something well.					
25	I am aware of the nonverbal messages other people send.					
26	When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself.					
27	When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.					
28	When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.					
29	I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.					
30	I help other people feel better when they are down.					
31	I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.					
32	I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.					
33	It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.					

A Study on Stress Level of Sales Employees in Garment Retail Stores of Ahmedabad City

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ABSTRACT

Retailing as a sector is witnessing revolution in India. Retailing in India is gradually becoming the next boom industry. However, with the growing retail entities and increasing competition, employees working in retail stores, especially in garment sector are facing a severe problem of stress. The study shows that there are various factors that affect job stress of the employees. Some of the major factors are health, work environment, job, emotional stability, personal relation, work load and appreciation and feedback. Out of these factors tests show that respondents have high stress based on factors health, emotional stability, personal relation, and appreciation and feedback. While low stress based on work environment, work load and job. It is also concluded that stress is high among the respondents, irrespective of age group they belong to or their gender.

Keywords:

Stress level, Garment Retail Industry, Sales people, Causes, Ahmedabad city

INTRODUCTION TO STRESS

The most commonly accepted definition by Richard S Lazarus is "Stress is a condition or feeling experienced when a person perceives that demands exceed the personal and social resources the individual is able to mobilize." Another definition of Stress by Udai Pareek says, "Stress is the term used to denote a stimulus (or cause); the response (physiological, behavioral, or cognitive changes); or the resultant state of the organism." In general, we can say that stress is an unpleasant state of emotional and physiological arousal that people experience in situations that they perceive as dangerous or threatening to their well-being. Different people have different understanding of stress. Some people define stress as events or situations that cause them to feel tension, pressure, or negative emotions such as anxiety and anger. Others view stress as the response to these situations. This response include physiological changes, such as increased heart rate and muscle tension a well as emotional and behavioral changes. However, most psychologists regard stress as a process involving a person's interpretation and response to a threatening

event. Stress is a part of everyone's life. Much of this stress results from work place.

In broad terms we can say that stress is experienced when there is an awareness of a substantial imbalance between demand and capability, under conditions where failure to meet the demand is perceived to have unwanted consequences.

Often people experience stress because of problems at work or in social relationship. Some people may be particularly exposed to stress in situation involving the threat of failure or personal humiliation. Others have extreme fears of objects or things associated with physical threats such as snakes, illness, storms, flying in airplane and become stressed when they encounter or think about these perceived threats. Major life events, such as death of a loved one, can cause a serious stress.

However, we sometimes mix the meaning of **stress** and **pressure**; there is a difference between both. We all experience pressure on a daily basis, and need it to motivate us and enable us to perform at our best. It is when we experience too much pressure without the opportunity to recover that we start to experience stress.

INTRODUCTION TO GARMENT RETAIL

Philip Kotler, one of the most influential Marketing Guru, in his book Marketing Management defined Retailing as, "Retailing includes all the activities in selling goods or services directly to the final consumers for personal, non-business use".¹ IT is very clear from the above definition that Retailer is a Person or Agent or Agency or Company or Organization who is instrumental in reaching the goods or merchandise or services to the end user or the ultimate consumer.

In the Indian retailing industry, things started to change slowly in the 1980s. Textile companies like Bombay Dyeing, Raymond's, S Kumar's and Grasim were the first to see the emergence of retail chains. Later on, Titan, the maker of premium watches, successfully created on

¹ Philip Kotler, et.al, Marketing Management, 13th edition, Pearson Publication, 2009, pg 432

organized retailing concept in India by establishing a series of elegant showrooms.

Indian apparel industry forms the most highly fragmented part of the Indian textile industry. Due to the low entry barriers, numerous players have entered the industry. However, to remain competitive in the international market, Indian apparel industry needs to build up a strong weaving and processing link so as to provide support to the apparel manufacturers and also set up large units for reaping the benefits of economies of scale.

The Indian apparel retail industry had total revenue of \$28,102.6 million in FY10, representing a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 9.9% for the period spanning 2005-2009. India's Apparel industry (domestic + exports) is expected to grow from the current \$ 70 billion to \$ 220 billion by 2020. The Indian domestic Apparel market size in FY10 was \$ 47 billion and is expected to grow at 11% CAGR to reach \$ 140 billion by 2020. India's exports have also recovered in FY10 following increased global demand and is currently worth \$ 23.5 billion India has been ranked as the top retail destination globally for retail investment attractiveness among 30 emerging markets in the world. The Indian retail sector is the second largest untapped market after China. Retail business contributes around 11 percent of India's GDP.

Retailing as a sector is witnessing a great revolution in India. Retailing in India is gradually becoming the next boom industry. The growth of India's retail sector is not only limited to urban areas but is also growing in rural areas. In the next few years, India's retail industry can be expected to expand more than 80%.

STRESS IN RETAIL JOBS

Retail employees have to balance the expectations of management and customers. Role-related stressors i.e. role conflict and role ambiguity have been found adding more strain to the stressful internal environment (e.g., long hours with high performance expectations) faced by retail employees. Role stress is defined as a persisting state of mental tension resulting in to negative psychological, psycho-social, and behavioral outcomes. Studying role stress is a potential method of reducing the negative effects of retail role stressors and may help to further our understanding of how to better manage retail employees.²

² Todd Arnold et.al, Role Stressors and Retail Performance: The Role of Perceived Competitive Climate, Journal of Retailing 85 (2, 2009) 194–205

The major source of stress is the relationships at work and those with one's bosses. In one survey, it was found that most of the stresses were experienced from the management approach implemented by senior managers. Other problems rose from lack of support from senior managers. This was linked with the failure of others to achieve their given tasks within a given time limit. An aggressive management culture has have prevailed in retailing. However, some retail organizations are becoming more people centered and they expect managers to work in totally different environment.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

Retailing was regarded as a young generation industry: older people struggle to keep up with the pace of change in the industry and fears of outmoded were real. The youthful nature of the industry added an extra load on managers to get acknowledged early on in their career, demanded long work hours. This created frustration which resulted retail job a very stressful one. The rapidly changing job description created further problems in gaining appreciation. Managers' duties and responsibilities continually kept on changing. Career development issues related to pay rise and gender discrimination and injustice still prevailed. Some female managers believed that retail sector was occupying a male dominated culture while some male managers accepted that there is a need for more women on senior rank to offset the existing culture.³

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Objective of Study

To study the stress level among sales staff of garment stores of independent retailers and franchisees in Ahmedabad City.

Sources of Data

- **Primary Data**

For this research, primary data was collected with the use of a well designed questionnaire based on a five point Likert Scale measuring whether the stress level of the respondent is high or low.

- **Secondary Data**

To collect secondary data books, articles, journals, project report etc. related to the topic were used.

Research Type

Research type is descriptive research.

³ Adelina Broadbridge, Retail managers: their work stressors and coping strategies, Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services 9 (2002) 173–183

Sampling Technique

For this survey, non probability convenience sampling technique was used.

Sampling unit

The sampling unit was the sales people of garment franchisees and independent retail stores in Ahmedabad city.

Sample Size

For this research sample size of 100 respondents was taken.

Research Instrument

For the purpose of this research a well designed Questionnaire based on Likert Scale as research instrument was used. The questionnaire included twenty eight questions classified into seven factors including health, work environment, job, emotional stability, personal relations, work load, appreciation and feedback.

Contact Method

To fill the questionnaire, personal interview technique was used.

Statistical Tools

The analysis of this research is based on the averages, ANOVA test and Mann Whitney test. The means for various factors were calculated and the overall mean was also calculated to see the stress level. ANOVA test was then applied to it based on age and gender. Mann Whitney test was applied to see the stress level depending on gender and age.

Software

To analyze the data we have used the software SPSS version 16.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The analysis and interpretation of this research is done with the help of ANOVA test and Mann Whitney test. With the help of such tests the stress level of sales personnel is obtained. Demographic variables like age and gender are also taken into consideration for performing these tests. This will enable us to know whether stress level is more in men or women or in people with age below 30 or above 30. The demographic profiles of the respondents have also been analyzed in this part.

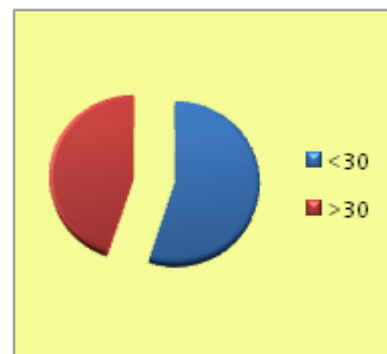
Demographic profile of the respondents

- Profile of respondent on basis of gender



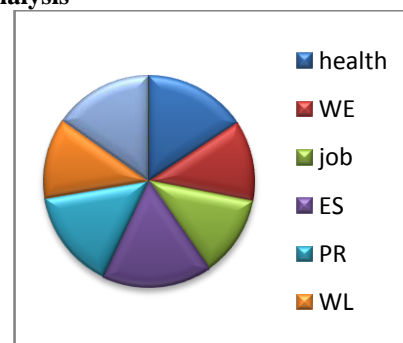
As shown from the above chart majority of the respondents are male. From total 100 respondents 74 are male and 26 are female respondents. It means that 74% consisted of are male respondents and rest female respondents.

- Profile of the respondents based on age



As shown in the above pie chart respondents are almost equal from both age groups. There were 55 respondents whose age was less than 30 years and 45 respondents who were above 30 years. Hence it is clear that there are 55% respondents above 30 year age group and 45% respondents below 30 year age group. Hence the research is not biased towards any age group.

Mean Analysis



The mean distribution of the data collected according to various factors is shown in the above pie chart. Questions 1 to 3 analyze health variables. The mean for all these questions for all the respondents is 2.833. A five point

Likert scale is used in the report with 5 resembling strongly agree i.e. high stress and 1 strongly disagree i.e. low stress. Hence if the mean is more than 2.5 we can say that the stress is high. Here the mean for health variable higher than 2.5 which means that the respondents are facing high stress if seen from health perspective.

The mean for factor **work environment** is **2.232** which is lower than 2.5 and hence we can say that the working environment of the respondents is good and it is not leading to higher stress among employees. The mean for the factor **job** is **2.224** which is lower than 2.5 which clearly suggests that there is a lower level of stress among respondents due to their job or task.

The mean for the factor **emotional stability** is **3.013** (higher than 2.5), which means that the emotional stability among the respondents was quite low leading to a high stress level among them. The mean for the factor **personal relations** is **2.747**. This clearly shows that the respondent's personal relations are suffering because of his/her work and he is unable to fight back stress.

The mean for **work load** is **2.235** i.e. less than 2.5 thus the respondents were not having lot of pressure and workload and hence stress level due to this is low. Whereas on other hand the mean for the factor **appreciation and feedback** is **2.755**, which is higher than 2.5. This shows that the respondents were not given proper appreciation or feedback about their work and thus led to a higher stress among them.

As it is clear from the pie chart the mean for factor emotional stability is the highest among all of them which means that the respondents were having a very low level of emotional stability and this has led to a high level of stress among them.

The mean of mean for all the factors i.e. the overall mean for all the questions for all 100 respondents is **2.539**. This makes it very clear that the stress level among the respondents is high. Therefore on basis of the analysis of means we can conclude that the stress level of sales staff of the garment stores of independent retailers and franchisees is high.

ANOVA TEST.

In this part of analysis and interpretation it has been checked whether various factors are having any significant effect on job stress or not.

1. ANOVA for Health factor

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	20.889	12	1.741	2.591	.005
Within Groups	58.447	87	.672		
Total	79.336	99			

For this analysis hypothesis would be as follows:

H0: There is no significant effect of health on job stress

H1: There is a significant effect of health on job stress

The test is performed by taking 95% significance level. This means that α is 5% i.e 0.05. As shown in the above table P (i.e. Sig. in table) is 0.005 which is lower than α i.e. 0.05. Hence we should reject null hypothesis and accept alternative hypothesis. Hence we can conclude that, there is a significant effect of health on job stress.

2. ANOVA for Work Environment

For this analysis hypothesis would be as follows:

H0: There is no significant effect of work environment on job stress

H1: There is a significant effect of work environment on job stress

As shown in the above table P (Sig. level) is 0.000 which is lower than α i.e. 0.05. Hence alternative hypothesis is accepted. Hence we can conclude with full accuracy that, there is a significant effect of work environment on job stress.

3. ANOVA for Job

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	39.437	15	2.629	5.535	.000
Within Groups	39.898	84	.475		
Total	79.336	99			

For this analysis hypothesis would be as follows:

H0: There is no significant effect of job on job stress

H1: There is a significant effect of job on job stress

The table shows P value 0.000 (<0.05). Hence we reject null hypothesis and accept alternative hypothesis. Therefore it is concluded that there is a significant effect of job on job stress.

4. ANOVA for Emotional Stability

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	27.931	15	1.862	3.043	.001
Within Groups	51.404	84	.612		
Total	79.336	99			

For this analysis hypothesis would be as follows:

H0: There is no significant effect of emotional stability on job stress

H1: There is a significant effect of emotional stability on job stress

The test is performed by taking 95% significance level. P value is 0.001 which is lower than α i.e. 0.05, Therefore we can say that there is a significant effect of emotional stability on job stress.

5. ANOVA for Personal Relations

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	18.518	12	1.543	2.207	.018
Within Groups	60.818	87	.699		
Total	79.336	99			

For this analysis hypothesis would be as follows:

H0: There is no significant effect of personal relations on job stress

H1: There is a significant effect of personal relations on job stress

As shown in the above table P is 0.018 which is lower than α i.e. 0.05. Therefore, null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. Thus, it is proved that there is a significant effect of personal relations on job stress.

6. ANOVA for Work Load

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	18.435	12	1.536	2.195	.019
Within Groups	60.901	87	.700		
Total	79.336	99			

For this analysis hypothesis would be as follows:

H0: There is no significant effect of work load on job stress

H1: There is a significant effect of work load on job stress

In the above table P (i.e. Sig. in table) is 0.019 which is lower than α i.e. 0.05. Hence we accept alternative hypothesis. The conclusion is that there is a significant effect of work load on job stress.

7. ANOVA for Appreciation and Feedback

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	30.324	15	2.022	3.465	.000
Within Groups	49.012	84	.583		
Total	79.336	99			

For this analysis hypothesis would be as follows:

H0: There is no significant effect of appreciation and feedback on job stress

H1: There is a significant effect of appreciation and feedback on job stress

As shown in the above table P (i.e. Sig. in table) is 0.000 which is lower than α i.e. 0.05. Hence we reject null hypothesis and accept alternative hypothesis; this proves there is a significant effect of appreciation and feedback on job stress.

Mann Whitney U Test

In this part of analysis and interpretation we have covered two aspects gender and age. Here, we have tried to check whether there is any difference in the stress levels of respondents depending on their gender or age.

1. Gender

The respondents are classified gender wise: male and female and applied Mann Whitney test to it, we have tried to see whether there is any difference between the stress levels of male and females.

Test Statistics	
Mann-Whitney U	788.000
Wilcoxon W	3.869E3
Z	-.583
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.560
a. Grouping Variable: gender	

The hypothesis for this test is as follows:

H0: Stress level of the sales staff in garment stores does not change according to gender.

H1: Stress level of the sales staff in garment stores changes according to gender.

As shown in the above table Sig. is 0.560 which is higher than 0.05. Therefore we accept null hypothesis and we can conclude that Stress level of the sales staff in garment stores does not change according to gender.

2. Age

The respondents are classified into two parts i.e. above 30 years age and below 30 years and then applying Mann Whitney test to it, we have tried to see whether there is

any difference between the stress levels of both age group respondents.

Test Statistics	
Mann-Whitney U	1.152E3
Wilcoxon W	2.187E3
Z	-.593
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.553
a. Grouping Variable: age	

The hypothesis for this test is as follows:

H0: Stress level of the sales staff in garment stores does not change according to age.

H1: Stress level of the sales staff in garment stores changes according to age.

The significance level of 95% has been taken for the test. As shown in the above table Sig. is 0.553 which is higher than 0.05. Therefore we accept null hypothesis and conclude that Stress level of the sales staff in garment stores does not change according to age.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Following are the recommendations of this research project for the managers and owners of the garment stores:

- The stress level among the sales staff of garment stores is quite high. This may lead to lower productivity

and turnover. Hence the owners and managers should take steps to reduce such stress.

- The effect of work environment and job is very high on job stress but, the stress level due to these factors is not high which means employees are satisfied with work environment and job, care should be taken that these factors remain satisfactory in future as well.
- The effect of work appreciation and feedback is very high on job stress and at the time, stress level is also very high as compared to other factors. Hence owners and managers should adopt various employee appraisal techniques. This will not only give a better idea about job but, it will also motivate the employee and reduce stress.
- Majority of the employees said they were not satisfied with their compensation, when compared to the hard work they put in. Hence compensation of the employees should be increased. Increasing the non monetary part of the compensation may work as it will motivate the employees and help them perform better.
- Many respondents said that, they are facing health problems. Store managers or owners should provide proper sitting facilities and breaks so as that these small health problems do not turn into severe stress and health issues.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The major limitations of this research study include:

- Due to the time constrain, data has been collected from Ahmedabad city only, this narrows down the scope of the research. Therefore the accuracy of the results would be less as compared to the data collected from a bigger target population.
- The research includes only the independent retailers and franchisees. Hence the results may differ if the data is collected for employees working in other retail formats.
- The questionnaire is designed by us and we have tried to cover all the relevant points. Yet it might happen that we have missed out some of the points.
- As it is known HR research is generally perception based research i.e. the responses to various questions are affected by the perception of the respondents, their mood, presence of others while filling the questionnaire etc. hence the results are not 100% accurate.

There may be other limitations besides what have been included over here as it is again based on individual's perception.

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A STUDY ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MEASURES: ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON

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Abstract: *In the past few years, there is a growing concern for researching emotional intelligence (EI). Studies have uncovered that EI tends to be a promising attribute in predicting individual and professional accomplishment. The present paper analyzes and compares the EI measures, which stand out against in content and their evaluation. In this editorial, the four major EI measures i.e. Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQI), Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test V.2 (MSCEIT) are assessed and compared and a conclusion is established based on the study. The existing EI measurements serve a four- or five-factor model, but work and non-work results are being unnoticed. After examining various EI dimensions, it is anticipated that further controlled research should be acted upon separately for incremental validity of EI measures in projecting job and other work performances instead of applying traditional cognitive skill and Big Five personality dimensions.*

Key Words: *Emotional Intelligence, MSCEIT, EQ-I, ECI, Comparison*

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INTRODUCTION

Human creatures have tendency to act both logically and emotionally. However, emotions are at the center of their strength, dedication, and enthusiasm. Feelings are prime substances in generating responses to the differences that people see and identify among themselves and others. As one recognizes and controls his/her emotional responses, the more likely one relishes better happiness in relationships, success in communications, and experience internal harmony.

Over a last few decades, curiosity in studying emotional intelligence (EI) has been greatly intensified. While some researchers and practitioners are very confident about the significance of EI in organizations, there are suspects about the concept idea, theory, and assessment of EI (Landy & Conte, 2004) (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002)

A few studies have been performed on emotional intelligence and it was revealed that EI is an emerging feature in forecasting personal, educational and professional attainment. For a job success, a person needs to perform efficiently and effectively and therefore emotional intelligence abilities necessitate to be developed by him. Employees who have a capacity and skill to cope up with their emotions in an effective manner are more victorious at work. There are three models of emotional intelligence which have been developed on three aspects namely, Ability, Traits and Mixed model (combination of ability and traits) of emotional intelligence (Kulkarni, Janakiram, & Kumar, 2009).

The current paper evaluates the EI measures, which contrasts in content and their method of valuation. In this article, the four major EI measures i.e. Emotional Competence Inventory, Emotional Quotient Inventory, Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale, Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test V.2 are measured and compared and a conclusion is made based on the study.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Though there has been substantial research performed into change in organizations over a long period, (Dunphy & Stace, 1990) (Floyd, 2002) (Guest & Hersey, 1977) attention given to the role of emotions in organizations has been afresh (e.g. (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995)(Fineman, 2000)(Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Few researches on emotions in the workplace have centered the topics like emotional labor (Hochschild, 1979) (Morris & Feldman, 1996,)emotional expression and organizational culture (Maanen & Kunda,



1989)organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990,) emotions in work place ((Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989) work motivation (George & Brief, 1996) (Isen & Baron, 1991)(Locke & Latham, 1990); general mood and job fulfillment (Forgas, 1995) and the variety of emotions felt at work (Fisher 1997). Emotions have been publicized to determine affect-driven attitude such as rash behavior, organizational dedication, and short-lived attempts (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). However, some works have focused on the role of emotion as it powers the mind-set and conduct of individuals. To study this, four branches of emotional competence were linked as directed by Mayer and Salovey (1997)and elucidated how they can associate to behaviors that create a learning organization (Senge, 1992) a medium for supporting continuing institutional change.

Saarni (Saarni, 1999) suggested that emotional competence comprised of various skills, or aspects, that appear during the lifetime and are critical elements for effectiveness in interpersonal communications and associations. In playgroup, as children develop in their understanding of emotions, they initiate to interact with friends and companions, and face the classroom atmosphere for the first time, three components of emotional competence are most important: (1) emotion knowledge, i.e. the capability to distinguish others' emotions by comprehending relative and indicative signs; (2) emotion regulation, the skill to control the power or length of emotional situation; and (3) expressed emotion in societal settings (Denham et al., (2003) When researchers do examine the relationships between emotion knowledge, intensity of negative emotion, and emotion regulation, conclusions obtained are complex. Emotion expressions and emotion regulation tend to be correlated, even though in some researched there is slight demarcation between the two paradigm, and in others the two are merged into a single variable (Cole, Martin, & Dennis, 2004) (Denham, Blair, Schmidt, & DeMulder, 2002). When the relationship between negative emotion expressions and emotional control are inspected, they emerge to be modest, such that children who convey more negative emotions tend to demonstrate through emitting approaches, like crying or demonstrating anger to release aggravation (Denham et al., (2003) (Fabes & Eisenberg, (1992)). Researchers have instituted that emotion knowledge is linked (though weakly) to emotion expressions (Denham et al., 2003). The study proposed that low risk middle income young children who have great levels of emotion knowledge were able to convey fairly more optimistic emotions. Others have found, on the other hand,



that emotion knowledge is not correlated to expressing emotion or emotion control (Arsenio et al., ((2000).)Denham et al (2002)

Tans (2003) found an affirmative affiliation between emotional competence and other measures like job satisfaction and related performance. Nevertheless, emotional competence can operate with other variables like gender, individual character and personal ethics and morals to forecast job fulfillment and performance. Cote and Miner (2006) claimed that emotional competence and cognitive intelligence intermingle to stimulus performance. It is a truth that it demands more than usual cognitive intelligence to be victorious at job. It also requires emotional intelligence; the talent to curb negative feelings such as anger and self mistrust, and instead concentrate on positive sentiments such as being self-confident and cheerful to be successful at job place. The mixed outcomes of these researches provoked the investigator to empirically analyze the correlation between Emotional intelligence/competence and job excellence.

D. Jamali, et al, (2008) studied emotional competence from the Lebanese perspective, and examined emotional intelligence competency framework that is (Self-awareness, Self-regulation, Self-motivation, Social awareness and Social skills) in a sample of 225 Lebanese workers and executives. A questionnaire-based rate was developed to encapsulate the basic competencies on a self-report basis. The conclusion availed dissimilarity in emotional competence scores across different emotional intelligence competencies for males and females, with males achieving good on self-regulation and self-motivation aspects, and females making high on self-awareness, empathy and social skills, and that emotional intelligence levels raise radically with managerial status.

A study at Johnson & Johnson Consumer and Personal Care Group confirms the perception that emotional competence discriminates successful managers. Better performing executives were perceived to have considerably superior Self-Awareness, Self-Management ability, Social competence, and Organizational familiarity; all constitute a part of the Emotional Intelligence/Competence ambit. Prior studies have publicized that Emotional Competence, like technical talent; can be learned through an organized and constant strategy to create competency in private and public state of affairs. (Cavallo)

David Rosete and Joseph Ciarrochi, (2005) examined to explore the association between emotional competence, individual character, cognitive intelligence and leadership efficiency.



A sample of 41 senior managers underwent an ability measure of emotional intelligence John Mayer and Peter Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), a scale of personality 16 Personality Traits, 5th edition (16PF5) and a computing cognitive ability through Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence (WASI). Leadership efficacy was evaluated by an objective scale of performance and a 360° assessment including each leader's juniors and direct managers. Correlation and regression analyses showed that higher emotional intelligence competence was related with higher leadership efficiency, and that emotional intelligence described the discrepancy which was not clarified by personality or intelligence.

Empathy is also measured as a crucial socio-emotional ability and a number of writers have emphasized it as one of most essential competences (Benard, 2004); (Grotberg, 1997); (Kumpfer, 1999); (Parker, Cowen, Work, & Wyman, 1990). As Benard (2004) stated "empathy not only helps facilitate relationships development, it also forms the basis of morality, forgiveness, and compassion and caring for others" (p.15). This should be considered a decisive factor for the creation of teambuilding described as pro-social and non-materialized.

A study performed by Barling observed relationship between leadership styles and their ECI of 49 managers. The author calculated EI by the Bar-On EQ-i, but only accounted total EQ and not various subscales it involves. This study found EC and three components elements of transformational leadership were absolutely interconnected, and moreover it discovered that one element of transactional leadership was positively allied with EC. Maximum connection in this study was established between EC and inspiring motivation (Barling et al. (2000)

Orhanlı and Dincer in their research studied 150 staff members of Turkish banking sector using Wong and Law's Emotional Intelligence scale The major motive of using that scale was that some of the scales such as "Baron's 15", which comprised of 133 questions, were tough to imply and had validity and reliability issues and were very exhaustive. Nevertheless, the Wong and Law scale contained only sixteen sub-factors concerning four major factors. The survey conducted on 150 employees of state-owned and private banks of Turkey found a noteworthy connection and relations between employees' emotional competence/intelligence and job satisfaction in an optimistic way but not very intense.



Moreover, the results notified that there was a considerable difference between the employees of state-owned and private banks in regards of emotional intelligence competency. The analysis showed that emotional intelligence level of private bank employees were elevated contrast to the state-owned bank employees. In terms of job fulfillment, it was identified that there was no major disparity between state-owned and private bank employees apart from for the organizational climate element. Private bank employees were greatly contented with their working environment.

The latent relation between EI and interpersonal competence is strengthened by earlier researches covering sensible and important associations between EI and the individual competency spheres of communication, motivation, conflict management, and problem solving. Those who were competent in communication were perceived to be more empathetic (Schmid & Adams, 2008) Empathy is a paradigm conduct in varied models of EI (Goleman D. , 1998a) Persons with high EI expressed more empathy. That formed a bond between EI and communication skills. Henderson (2008) extended this correlation by detailing that EI and the encoding and decoding system of communication are truly alike. If the basic Emotions Theory (Mesquita, 2001) is proper, it is reasonable to recommend that some people have skills or propensity that improves their communication flair, based on their intensity of emotional and technical understanding.

The EC of a person has been described to possess some connection with organizational learning (Singh, 2007) , managerial perception ((Matzler, Bailom, & Mooradlan, 2007) , and performance within stipulated time (Newsome, Day, & Catano, 2000) Emotions induce decision-making practice (Milivojevich, 2006) (Sy & Cote, 2004). These studies grant a bunch of findings signifying that superior EI assessment scores might upshot higher problem-solving aptitude.

Owing to anxiety and doubt, change and emotions are interlaced ((Chrusciel, 2006); (French, 2001) (Lundberg & Young, 2001). Caruso and Wolfe (2002)) srcinated that persons with high EC are characteristically calmer with uncertainty and change in the place of work. Project management is a category of change management. Emotions may be comprehended in well manner by a few employees, thereby raising the probability of competence. Mayer and Salovey (2004) confirmed this hypothesis in previous studies when



they found that EI affects the individual efficacy while absorbed in change management pattern.

Malek (2000) instituted that populace with superior EC are expected to settle conflict efficiently and successfully using more shared styles for solving disputes. Sy and Cote (2004) indicated that people with high EC outperform in managing the clashing circumstances, coping their own emotions, and lining up with the group targets. Goleman (1998a) cited conflict management as a measure within EI tool, which is the ECI. Whereas these illustrations do not clearly look at project managers or, particularly, EI, a case exists that a relationship of some kind may be present..

OVERVIEW OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODELS

As stated in the introduction of this paper, there are three basic models of Emotional Intelligence i.e. the Ability Model, Trait Model and Mixed Model. The detail study of each model is done in The Ability model of emotional intelligence elucidates emotional intelligence as “an ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Conte, 2005).

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is an Ability-based test intended to evaluate the four spheres of the EI model of Mayer and Salovey. The Second is Traits model of emotional intelligence which integrates non-rational competencies such as self-esteem, self-actualization, general mood, and general well-being with emotional intelligence. It should be noted that measures based on trait aspects do not greatly connect with intelligence traits. Nevertheless, these competencies compellingly associate with individual’s personality traits, inclining investigators to deem this approach as emotional intelligence-as-personality (Conte, 2005). Lastly, the Mixed Model of emotional intelligence which is a combination of ability model and traits model of emotional intelligence. The

mixed model signifies the concept that in conjunction with emotional intelligence, personality features and cognitive intelligence should also be integrated. (Schutle 2006).

MEIS AND MSCEIT V.2

Mayer et al. (2000) proposed that emotional intelligence concerns with the ability to understand the cause and effect of emotions. They worked out two different EI tests. Initially they developed a Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) having subscales



but had few difficulties of low reliability and scoring method. Later, they developed the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), which was a modernized form of MEIS. The fresh version of the MSCEIT is Version 2. Both EI tests are described herewith since the MSCEIT V.2 seems to have advanced some of the troubles of the former test, the MSCEIT V.2 is novel and little research have been done using it. The MEIS comprises of 402 items and produces four subscales: Perception, Assimilation, Understanding, and Managing Emotions (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000). The MEIS is an ability test that has distinct tactics to detect right answers, including target scoring, consensus scoring, and expert scoring. In Target scoring, a person (i.e., the target) is asked a few questions and based on his/her facial expressions and how he or she actually felt or when engaged in some emotional activity, correct responses are portrayed. On other hand, Consensus scoring includes concluding the answer by assembling the opinion of hundreds of people. This scoring procedure evaluates the degree to which the test taker's choice tallies with the mass opinion. Thus, consensus scoring techniques are 'in direct contrast to traditional measures of intelligence where an objective measure of truth is considered' Matthews (2002, p. 186). The third scale is Expert scoring which considers uncovering the right answers by amalgamating the experts' opinion in emotions. This type of scoring technique is most parallel to that used in cognitive ability tests. Studies performed over 75 years ago found some association between paradigm such as social intelligence and verbal intelligence (Hunt, 1928)

A research by Landy (2004) researched the primitive history of social intelligence in detail. The Mayer Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) V.2 is also intended to assess the four branches of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) (1993) emotional intelligence ability model. The MSCEIT V.2 provides a total EI score and four Branch scores: (1) perception of emotion, (2) integration and assimilation of emotion, (3) knowledge about emotions, and (4) management of emotions. The MSCEIT V.2 is relatively small and fast to manage compared to the MEIS as it contains 141 items, and offers both consensus and expert scores for all Branch scores. Whereas the MEIS have 12 subtests to evaluate the four Branches, the MSCEIT V.2 includes two subtests for each Branch (Salovey et.al (2003). Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios (2003), researched that total scale reliabilities and Branch levels were all above 0.75. In the MSCEIT V.2, for every scale the standard internal consistency reliability



was 0.68 for consensus scoring and 0.71 for expert scoring. However, for validation, the writers primarily depend on facts from the MEIS to support the MSCEIT V.2.

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test was executed on 5000 white females aging 30 years. (Mayer et al., (2002) Stability estimates of the MSCEIT (in the form of test-retest reliability after 3 weeks) were accounted 0.86 (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). The internal consistency (in the form of split half reliability) for the four branches scaled between $r = .80$ to $.91$ and $r = .91$ for the entire test (Mayer et al., (2003). The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test slightly correlate with measures of intelligence (IQ), with correlations ranging from $r = .05$ (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000) to $r = .38$ (Mayer et al., 1999). Similarly, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test was observed to be reasonably interrelated to elements of psychological welfare ($r = .28$) and to two of the Big Five personality factors as calculated by the NEO Personality Inventory – Revised (NEO-PI-R; $r = .25$ for Openness and $r = .28$ for Agreeableness; (Brackett & Mayer, 2003)

BAR-ON EMOTIONAL QUOTIENT INVENTORY (EQ-i)

In 2006, Reuven Bar-On developed a mixed model named Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory Model which was a collection of non-cognitive competencies that induces individual's skills to turn out well in managing the organizational stress and pressure. (Stys & Brown, 2004) The EQ-i is a 133-item self-report measure that takes about 30 minutes to finish (Bar-On, R, 2000). This model generates an overall EQ score as well as scores for five amalgamated scales: (1) intrapersonal, (2) interpersonal, (3) adaptability, (4) general mood, and (5) stress management. (Stys & Brown, 2004) Bar-On assumed that a persons with higher than average E.Q.'s flourish more in meeting organizational needs and demands. He further clarified that lack of emotional intelligence indicates job failure as well as other emotional problems. Bar-On, is used particularly by researchers who do not have subscales of reality testing, problem solving, handling stress, and exercising control. Bar-on EQ has employed 133 items to get a Total EQ (Total Emotion Quotient) and to generate five combined scales equivalent to the 5 main components of the Bar-On model i.e. Intrapersonal EQ, Interpersonal EQ, Adaptability EQ, Stress Management EQ, and General Mood EQ. These Items are calculated on a 5 point scale varying from 1 (very seldom/not true for me) to 5 (very often/often true of me). Total basic scores are transformed into



standard scores with a mean of 100 and standard deviation of 15, parallel to that of IQ scores (Bar-On, 2002) (Stys & Brown, 2004)

Still, it is not apparent how each of these variables are related theoretically to EI. Matthews et.al (2002) observed that the concept behind this model is unclear. However, Bar-On (2000) stated that the internal consistency reliability of the overall EQ-i was 0.76. The EQ-i demonstrated sufficient test–retest reliability of 0.85 after 1 month and 0.75 after 4 months (Bar-On, R, 1997). In context of combined validity, Gowing (2001) observed that the average correlation among EQ-i subscales was 0.50, and also this average correlation is alike correlations among various components of conventional intelligence tests. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) found that the correlation between the EQ-i and the MEIS was 0.36. One more significant standard that could be predicted by EI is educational success, which is usually evaluated through student grade point average (GPA) (Conte, 2005). Since, GPA is completely based on rational intelligence (non-emotional) activity and therefore should not be linked to EI. However, Bar-On (2000) in the EQ-i Technical Manual, deduced that EI is a significant forecaster of academic achievements. Additionally, Goleman (1995) projected that EI would be a better predictor of achievements at work as well as job compared to any conventional measures of EI. Conversely, a research on 160 Canadian college students revealed that the EQ-i total score resulted in correlation of 0.01 with grade point average (Newsome, Catano, & Day, 2000). Likewise, none of the five composite EQ-I scores was considerably related with GPA. On the contrary, the noteworthy predictors of GPA were cognitive ability (i.e., the Wonderlic Personnel Test) and a few personality elements (e.g., self-control) (Conte, 2005). Derived from the results, Newsome et al. (2000) claimed that there is insufficient information to validate the use of the EQ-i as a selection tool. Overall, even though the EQ-i proves enough reliability and has a little validity proof, yet it requires distinguished validity confirmation, and a few researches have been done to check whether it provides any incremental validity above the conventional projectors such as cognitive ability and Big Five personality dimensions.

EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY (ECI)

ECI was developed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and colleagues, to assess emotional competencies and optimistic social conduct (Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. S., 2000) (Goleman, D., 1995) (Sala, F., 2002). ECI focused on the abilities, which include self control, zeal and



persistence and the ability to motivate oneself. This model has included 110 items and measures 20 competencies that are categorized into four clusters: (1) Self-Awareness, (2) Social Awareness, (3) Self-Management, and (4) Social Skills. It has 360-degree assessment techniques that embrace self-ratings, peer ratings, and supervisor ratings. The internal consistency reliability of self-assessment ECI scales extends from 0.61 to 0.85. And the peer and supervisor rating scales, internal consistency reliability scales from 0.80 to 0.95 (Gowing, 2001) (Sala, F., 2002). In a study involving college principals and students retention rate, it was found that the emotional intelligence involving self-awareness and social awareness of college principals was greatly correlated with college student retention rates (r 's = .20 and .18; Sala, F., 2002)) (Stys & Brown, 2004). Other studies have revealed that emotional intelligence calculated based on ECI was considerably correlated with salary (r = .40), job success (r = .33), and life success (r = .46; Sevinc, 2001). ECI model was discovered to correlate meaningfully with the sensing/intuiting and thinking/feeling dimensions of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and with the extroversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness factors of the NEO Personality Inventory. (Stys & Brown, 2004). However, an investigation of deviating validity reported no major relationship between the Emotional Competence Inventory and the level of analytical thinking (Sala, F., 2002). There were no tests for incremental validity performed for the Emotional Competence Inventory. Bradberry (Bradberry, 2002) in his report unearthed that the EIA very well forecasted job performance of middle and senior level managers (r = .36 for the Me Edition and r = .77 for the MR Edition) (Stys & Brown, 2004). Further validity was again confirmed for the Me Edition of the EIA when Bradberry et al., (2003) conducted a survey among 12,000 individuals representative of all industries, job classes, and job levels (r = .42) and the measure was a noteworthy forecaster of job work. But, Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (MR Edition) scale was not notably linked with the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, and when both were compared to assess managerial work performance, the EIA was a better interpreter of work performance than Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test i.e. the variance in job performance was accounted for 13% and 59% by the Me and MR version, whereas 6% for Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test. Nevertheless, incremental validity was accounted for the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (Bradberry, et al., 2003) (Stys & Brown, 2004).



However, researchers analyzed that variables in ECI competencies have similarities with four of the Big Five personality dimensions (Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, Extraversion, and Openness) and other psychological concepts in the motivation and leadership theories (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002) (Van Rooy ; Viswesvaran C., 2004); In general, the analytical validity for ECI has not been justified and the scale does not earn significant concern until peer-reviewed empirical studies using this measure are conducted (Conte, 2005).

**Big Five Personality Factors, Bar-On and Goleman's Components of Emotional Intelligence
(McCrae, 2000)**

The Big Five	Bar-On	Goleman
<u>Neuroticism:</u>	Happiness (R)	Ability to shake off
Anxiety	Self-Regard (R)	anxiety (R)
Angry Hostility	Impulse Control (R)	Stifling Impulsiveness (R)
Depression	Stress Tolerance (R)	
Self-Consciousness		
Impulsiveness		
Vulnerability		
<u>Extraversion:</u>		
Warmth		
Gregariousness		
Assertiveness		
Assertiveness		
Activity		
Excitement Seeking		
Positive Emotions		
Optimism		
<u>Openness to Experience:</u>	Emotional Self-Awareness	Monitoring Feelings
Fantasy	Flexibility	
Aesthetics	Reality Testing	
Feelings	Independence	
Actions		
Ideas		
Values		
<u>Agreeableness:</u>	Interpersonal Relationships	Attunement to Others
Trust	Empathy	Interacting Smoothly
Straightforwardness		with Others
Altruism		Empathic Awareness
Compliance		
Modesty		



Tender-Mindedness

Conscientiousness:

Competence

Order

Dutifulness

Achievement Striving

Self-Discipline

Deliberation

Problem Solving

Social Responsibility

Zeal and Persistence

Ability to Motivate

Oneself

Source: Stys & Brown, A Review of the Emotional Intelligence Literature and Implications for Corrections, Correctional Service of Canada, March 2004

COMPARING MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

Regardless of the three developed different models of emotional intelligence, there exist some theoretical and statistical connections between various concepts. Globally, all the models intend to identify and assess the elements involved in the detecting and controlling one's emotions and the emotions of others (Goleman, 2001). In all models there are some key elements to emotional intelligence, and that these components are approved and accepted. For instance, all three models of emotional intelligence encompass the awareness (or perception) factor of emotions and coping up of emotions which turns to be a crucial aspect in being an emotionally intelligent person.

The researchers of EI have used various distinct definitions of the EI concept, which led to a variety of types and numbers of dimensions for different measures (Gowing, 2001). These measures employ different answer formats, which comprise of self-report, ability, and informant approaches. The self-report EI measures (e.g., ECI and EQ-i) test a wide variety of individual disparity, but the majorities of self-report scales having reasonable reliabilities correlate to well-known personality magnitude (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2003) (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). Ability-based EI models (i.e., MEIS, MSCEIT V.2), which are quite different from the Big Five personality dimensions, are greatly associated with the general mental ability (GMA) compared to the self-report EI measures (Van Rooy ; Viswesvaran C., 2004), making incapable for ability-based EI measures to predict job performances and leadership aspects. Provided that the ability-based EI measures' is deficient of offering additional validity in predicting job measures, this model will eventually be considered as a traditional dimension of social intelligence. After performing quite a few investigations using social intelligence measures, R. L. Thorndike claimed that primitive measures of social intelligence



were just meager tests of GMA, which was described by him as 'abstract intelligence' (Thorndike, 1936) (Thorndike & Stein, 1937). To observe the degree of intersection, few researches have used both trait and ability-based EI measures. Mayer et al. (2000) in his study explored that the MSCEIT and Bar-On scales correlated 0.36, which accounted 13 percent share in their variance. Later, Brackett and Mayer (2003) found that the MSCEIT and Bar-On scales correlated 0.21, indicating that they share approximately 4 percent of their variance. A minimal correlation between different EI measures have caused important queries whether they are really considering the same paradigms (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). In contrast to ability-based EI measures, self-report measures would greet less consideration as they do not possess psychometric assistance (like the Big Five personality dimensions). On the other hand, ability-based EI measures are welcomed all around and it should be noted that further evaluation of the combined validity across EI measures are carried out.

A number of examiners bothered about the lack of scientific model for deciding the exactness of consensus and expert scores for the MEIS and the MSCEIT V.2. (Conte, 2005). Also, these ability-based tests may not present significant scores at the high end of the EI gamut because the consensus scoring only uses general responses in identifying the right answers (Matthews et al., 2002). Moreover, in the expert scoring approach, Matthews et al. (2002) questioned about how 'experts' were selected while deciding the correct answers for emotional intelligence questions and tasks. (Conte, 2005). There is a wide disparity between the two scales; and the research performed using MEIS cannot be used to sustain the validity of the MSCEIT V.2. Since, the later is too novel to be incorporated in most EI research or in the meta-analysis by Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (Van Rooy ; Viswesvaran C., 2004). It is expected that the MSCEIT V.2 will exhibit distinguishing validity from personality measures, but not increased validity in forecasting performance results. In reality, a research by Barchard (Barchard, 2003).found that out of the many EI measures she studied (including the MSCEIT) none of them demonstrated validity for forecasting educational success in addition to the cognitive ability and personality. Even though, Brackett and Mayer (2003) learnt that the MSCEIT and EQ-i exhibited some indication of incremental validity in foretelling social diverge and alcohol use, but it did not validate the academic performance.



CONCLUSION

While comparing to other (self report) measures of EI, studies show that the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test correlates modestly with the Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory (the EQ-I, $r = .21$) or the Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (the SREIT, $r = .18$), signifying that these three measures of emotional intelligence did not determine a general paradigm (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). The MSCEIT also has incremental validity. As the instigators support the reliability and validity of the MSCEIT, they also claim that EI measured through an ability models fulfills normal standards for an additional intelligence: (Mayer et al., 2003). For instance, in a sample of 207 college students the MSCEIT forecasted social deviance (physical fights and damage) apart from personality and intelligence tests (Brackett & Mayer, 2003) (Stys & Brown, 2004)

The present EI dimensions employ a four- or five-factor model, but no study is done on forecasting work and non-work results (Van Rooy ; Viswesvaran C., 2004). Also, investigation is required on the falsified self-report EI measures. Mayer et al. (2003) established that females achieved greater than men on the MSCEIT V.2, but no major disparity found in ethnicity (Stys & Brown, 2004). Emotional intelligence can be ethnically obliged; and therefore cross-cultural similarities and dissimilarities in EI have to be studied. Moreover, additional research on stability, and 'trainability' of EI, is desirable (Slaski & Cartwright, 2003). However, the training will really boost EI can only be judged when new suitable measures of EI are established (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). In general, it is a concerning issue for all EI measures, beginning from rating method of ability-based EI measures to the differentiated validity issues of self-report EI measures. There are also unsolved matters with ability-based EI measures even though they seem to be most capable. Gowing (2001) pointed that many EI measures have been used for recruitment purpose. Supervisors should be cautious of using it as a selection tool except it reveals a more précised discriminant incremental validity proof (Conte, 2005). Even though Mayer et al. (2003) have built an indicating EI measures, they assert that 'the applied use of EI tests must proceed with great caution' (p. 104). After reviewing various EI measures, it is expected that further scientific research should be executed on incremental validity of EI measures in forecasting job and other work performances apart from cognitive skill and Big Five personality dimensions.



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A Study on Factors Influencing Failure of Malls in Major Cities of Gujarat State

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ABSTRACT

Retail is India's largest industry and the most dynamic and rapidly developing industries with major players taking a pie in the market. The retail in India has very good growth and tremendous opportunities in organized sector. But still organized retail did not succeed in all formats of mall. New malls are opening but old malls are not achieving success. With the help of this research, it was surveyed the six factors which provide reasons of mall failure or shut down of malls. Likert scale was used in designing the questionnaire. There were 27 questions divided into six basic factors namely merchandise, store location, price, structure, culture and purpose. A sample of 250 respondents was taken from different major cities of Gujarat state for the reliability of the analysis. The statistical tests used are ANOVA and mean analysis. The major limitation of this survey was the restricted sample size and the diverged consumer perception which affected the results of the research.

Keywords

Retail industry, opportunities, challenges, scenario of Gujarat state, and demise of malls.

INTRODUCTION

Retail is India's largest industry, accounting for over 10% of the country's GDP and around 8% of the employment. It has emerged as one of the most dynamic and fast paced industries with several players entering the market. Western-style malls have started on appearing in metros and second-tier cities alike introducing the Indian consumer to a shopping experience like never before.

The business of retail in India has seen significant changes in the last few years. We have seen the emergence of new formats and application of global concepts and constructs in tune with modification to suit the Indian environment.

We are all witnessing the change happening in Indian retail market. The local Baniya has gradually transformed himself into a small supermarket. This change is not restricted to the metro cities but has rapidly spread to smaller cities and town as well. The vast middle class market demanded value for money products. The emergence of the modern Indian housewife, who managed

her home and work led to demand for more products, a better shopping ambience, more convenience and one stop shopping. This has fuelled the growth of Departmental stores, Supermarkets and other Specialty stores.

The concept of retail as entertainment came to India with the advent of malls. The development of malls is now visible not only in the major metros but also in the other part of the country. Now let us discuss the size, growth, opportunity and challenges of retail in India.

SIZE OF RETAIL IN INDIA

The size of retail industry in an economy depends on many factors and the level of consumer spending is the most important among these factors. The retail sector in India has grown by leaps and bounds in the last five years. The reason behind this growth has been the synergy of many propellants. However the growth is not always genuine as there are exaggerations as well. But these exaggerations also have benefits since they given a feel of growing competition all around. Secondly the present situation is just a depiction of nascent stage. The future of the trajectory may not be as steep as it is now or may be even slope downward. 'What will be the future size of the retail industry' is the mind boggling question. Another moot point that will gain importance in due time concerns the future.

The present value of the Indian retail market is estimated by the India Retail Report to be around Rs. 12, 00,000 crores (\$270 billion) and the annual growth rate is 5.7 percent. Retail market for food and grocery with a worth of Rs. 7, 43,900 crore is the largest of the different types of retail industries present in India. Furthermore around 15 million retail outlets help India win the crown of having the highest retail outlet density in the world. India retail industry is the largest industry in India, with an employment of around 8% and contributing to over 10% of the country's GDP. Retail industry in India is expected to rise 25% yearly being driven by strong income growth, changing lifestyles, and favorable demographic patterns. It is expected that by 2016 modern retail industry in India will be worth US\$ 175- 200 billion.

GROWTH OF RETAIL IN INDIA

Due to the untapped potential that exists in the Indian retailing market, it is a very fast growing sector. One

reason that can be attributed to this rapid entry of the foreign retail giants is that the Western Countries have reached a point of saturation in their retail sector. Another reason as already mentioned earlier is the change in the tastes and preferences or the psychographic of the consumers that is bent in their favor.

Although the retail sector in India contributes to about 10% in the GDP, it is the most underdeveloped sector in terms of investments that are made in this sector. The unorganized retail sector has recorded a growth of 5% per annum while the organized sector is growing at 25-30 % per annum. One should not be impressed by the figures of the organized retail markets since developed market in US, Taiwan; Malaysia is still a dream to the Indian retail market. They have registered a growth of 50% per annum. The retail stores have mushroomed in the Tier II and Tier III cities. The participants in the retail market hold the presence of market in the cities as a signal to their growth. The sudden growth of the organized retail sector can be attributed to the ushering of the domestic retail giants like Reliance, Pantaloons, ITC, RPG, and the Bharti Group. The foreign companies continue to wait in the sidelines. These prominent retail chains have adversely affected the farmers in some states. Another viewpoint is that the farmers have rather benefited since they were eager on the market intervention of the big retailers for the purpose of marketing and processing of their output. Since the big retailers reap the benefits of buying directly from the farmers, the consumers can purchase the products at minimal price rates. In places like Uttarakhand, the big retail chains are welcomed for the same purpose by the farmers. They have helped in putting finances in the right channels of processing and packaging.

OPPORTUNITIES IN INDIA

The retail industry in the western countries has reached a point of saturation and there is no way of expanding. In this environment the retail giants are trying to make their mark in the retail market of countries that still have unexploited prospects of expansion of which India turns out to be one of them. AT Kearney has developed the Global Retail Development Index which has helped the western retailers to identify the countries where investments could be made.

Opportunities in India have fascinated the western retailers like Wal-Mart, Euro set, Supervalu who had plans to foray as single branded retailers. In assessing whether to enter, the companies keep into account the timing factor that is whether the consumers are ready to accept the products that are offered by them. It is highly possible that there are potentials in the market but the consumer preferences are distorted by the products that are offered. Government also helped the Indian retail industries so it is also a good factor of opportunity.

CHALLENGES IN INDIA

With opportunities come challenges /threats. There are certain challenges for Indian retail which are to be conquered. There are two types of challenges, major and minor. Some of the major challenged faced by is the muddled Indian retail structure; dubious shopping habits of the consumers i.e. people not preferring to buy perishable goods from the mall; failure in advance technology implementation; price hike in real estate is also a major challenge for the retailers to set up a new mall. Apart from the major challenges, there lies few minor challenges like lack of skilled manpower; political disruption regarding location, structure etc leading to delays in decisions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The informal markets would, over time, become more formal and more permanent. So shops began. Other traders would prefer to travel around selling their goods. These became known as peddlers. Selling from a regular market, from a permanent shop or peddling goods are known collectively as retailing.

The story of great Indian mall boom started from the emergence of Gurgaon, an industrial suburb of Delhi. In a development that surprised many town planners, Gurgaon transformed itself overnight by first housing the headquarters of many multinational corporations and banks, and then calling itself the "shopping-mall capital of India". Then to join the bandwagon was Rajouri Garden with a number of world class malls coming up within a short duration of time. But this Mall Clutter led to a gradual & continuing downfall of some of the malls in Delhi which was accelerated by the economic recession affecting the world with India & specifically Delhi as no exception to this impact. But that is a broader picture; we will specifically talk about the failure of some shopping malls & big retail concepts in Delhi. In spite of big brand names existing in those malls & good location, why these malls failed? What can be the possible reasons?

A research was carried out in the region Shalimar Bagh in North-West Delhi, where a Mall called Shoppin' Park resulted in a complete failure because from survey it is established that the majority of the population prefer to spend more on food & they prefer to shop Apparel from local markets & approximately 30% of the population as found to be fashion conscious. The remaining population is not bothered about the brand name or the values associated with with the brand. They lacked motivation to buy Branded apparels.

Another example can be the failure of Spencer's store in Ring Road Mall in Rohini, where in spite of an excellent

store in terms of ambience & assortment mix, the store is failing to attract customers.

In a case study of subhiksha (2nd Feb., 2009) suggested, the few reason of the failure in subhiksha mall in Indian culture. The main reason behind the failure is its supply chain system. They couldn't cope-up with the demand of the every retail outlet in across the India. They used very less effective ERP tools to manage their inventory if they had more than 1500 retail store in India than they has to used big inventory management software like SAP.

On the basis of Market research & analysis, it can be inferred that the most important factor in the failure of these malls is the mismatch of the brand & the consumer. The brands selected for the mall should be consistent with the kind of demographic profile of that region or location. Now it is very difficult to attract the brands first before deciding or finalizing on the location of the mall & without proper specification & layout of the entire real estate. So, the better & most logical approach is to finalize the location first & then attract suitable brands very carefully. It is very important to keep the consumer or client profile of that region in mind. The brands should be in accordance with the type of customers in that region because they form the majority of the footfalls. So in order to understand the client profile, their psychology, decision making criteria, buying behavior, tastes & preferences & motivations or driving force behind purchase decision should be carefully examined & inferred. For example, if the consumers of that region are observed over time to have spent more on food than clothing, then a few good restaurants & fast food corners are a must for the success of that mall.

RESEARCH PLAN

There are statically proven data which shows that the retail in India has very good growth and tremendous opportunity for future in organized sector and as per Pantaloon Retail India Ltd, annual results analyst there are five factors, Emergence of organized retail business, Rising incomes and purchasing power, Changing consumer mindset, Brand consciousness, Easy consumer credit, Increase in consumer class which help to give positive growth of organized retail.

But still organized retail did not succeed in all formats of mall. New malls are opening but old malls are not achieving success. Some major malls have also shut down. With the help of this research, it was surveyed the six factors which provide reasons of mall failure or shut down of malls.

For this survey, likert scale was used in formatting the questionnaire. There were 27 questions divided into six basic factors namely merchandise, store location, price,

structure, culture and purpose. A sample of 250 respondents was taken from different major cities of Gujarat state for the reliability of the analysis. The demographics on which the tests were conducted include location, age, education, and income of the respondents. The statistical tests used are ANOVA and mean analysis.

ANOVA and mean analysis shows that there is a greater effect of location, age, education, and income on merchandise, store location, price, structure, culture and purpose which influence the failure of malls.

PROBLEM DEFINITION

- As per the study of Indian Retail Forum, India is largest developing country in organized retail but the true scenario of retail did not support this study.
- In India malls are mushrooming in every corner, but sustainability of that malls is a big question mark.
- So, I decided to study the reasons behind the failures of malls in major cities of Gujarat on the basis of the customer perception.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

- To study customer perceptions regarding the reasons behind failure of malls.
- To compare the results of different factors (Location, Age, Education and Income) among the major cities of Gujarat. (Ahmedabad, Surat, Rajkot, Baroda and Bhavnagar).
- To suggest how to improve the sustainability of malls over the period of time.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Type of Research

For this study, Descriptive Research Methodology was used. The major objective of the descriptive research is to describe the market characteristics or functions. Here the aim is to know the major reason for the failure of mall according to consumers.

Data Collection

For this research, a large amount of secondary data was taken which helped in better understanding of the topic and also regarding the various aspects of the research. Use of various publications, research papers, and journals from renowned authors, and magazines comprehended the purpose of study. Unforgettably, Internet has proven to be a great source of information.

Primary Data was collected for collecting primary data.

Type of Questionnaire

Structure Questionnaire (close-ended)

Contact Method

Personal interview

Sampling Technique:

Non Probability Quota Sampling

Sample Size:

A sample of 250 respondents from the five major cities of Gujarat state was interviewed.

DEMOGRAPHIC	GROUP	TOTAL OF GROUP	GRAND TOTAL
AGE	Below 25	62	
	25-35	64	
	35-45	64	
	Above 45	60	250
EDUCATION	Graduation	91	
	Post Graduation	133	
	Others	26	250
INCOME	<2 lakhs	110	
	2-5 lakhs year	80	
	> 5 lakhs	60	250

Statistical Test

Statistical Test used for this survey was ANOVA Test and Mean Analysis

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The ANOVA test was conducted to find out difference in importance and impact that the consumers have during purchasing encounters on the basis of various demographic variables.

1. ANOVA Analysis For Location

Table 1.1: ANOVA ANALYSIS FOR LOCATION

		Sum of Squares	Df.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
MERCHANDISE	Between Groups	2.562	4	.640	2.490	.044
	Within Groups	63.006	245	.257		
	Total	65.568	249			
STLOCATION	Between Groups	1.439	4	.360	1.259	.287
	Within Groups	69.983	245	.286		
	Total	71.422	249			
PRICE	Between Groups	2.641	4	.660	3.924	.004
	Within Groups	41.226	245	.168		
	Total	43.867	249			
STRUCTURE	Between Groups	1.506	4	.377	1.670	.157
	Within Groups	55.226	245	.225		
	Total	56.732	249			
CULTURE	Between Groups	2.358	4	.590	3.282	.012
	Within Groups	44.019	245	.180		
	Total	46.377	249			
PURPOSE	Between Groups	.088	4	.022	.210	.933
	Within Groups	25.708	245	.105		
	Total	25.796	249			

(* significant at 0.05 level of significance)

Table 1.2: MEAN ANALYSIS FOR LOCATION

Variable	No of Samples	Overall Mean	Merchandise	Site Location	Price	Structure	Culture	Purpose
Rajkot	50	3.67	F = 2.490 Sig.=0.044	F= 1.259 Sig.=0.287	F= 3.924 Sig.=0.004	F= 1.670 Sig.=0.157	F= 3.282 Sig.=0.012	F= 0.210 Sig.=0.933
Bhavnagar	50	3.54						
Surat	50	3.60						
Ahmadabad	50	3.59						
Baroda	50	3.55						
Total	250	3.59						

Interpretation: The ANOVA test has been conducted to find out the impact of location on Merchandise, Site location, Price, Structure, Culture and Purpose. The mean analysis showed that consumers from Rajkot (3.67) had direct impact on failures of mall attributes, followed by the consumers from Bhavnagar (3.54), consumers from Surat (3.60), consumers from Ahmedabad (3.59) and the consumers from Baroda (3.55).

Consumer’s perception regarding merchandise varies from city to city. Small city consumers like Bhavnagar were not influenced by the variety of products. While consumers of metropolitan cities like Ahmedabad and Surat were highly conscious for merchandise and they demanded varieties and assortments of products and brands. The cities like Rajkot and Baroda were on verge of becoming metropolitan cities which indirectly affected the consumption pattern of consumers, so they focused more on commodities in comparison to city like Bhavnagar where they still compromised with products. Considering the price factor, it was found that the consumers of Bhavnagar were price conscious. In small cities, consumers prefer kirana stores to malls as these local

kirana stores are nearby and the relationship with shopkeeper are much affected by the credit purchase. Whereas the metropolitan cities(Ahmedabad and Surat) or developing cities(Rajkot and Baroda) are less focused on price and more focused on variety and assortment of products, brands, ease of buying and quality of products.

Every culture has its own impact on consumer’s buying behavior. Culture includes consumer life style, social class, purchasing power, purchase behavior etc. Small cities have low purchasing power as major population is from lower and middle class and also their thought process is limited and they are unaware about the current changes in the world economy. As the city’s growth boost, its culture improves thus changing the consumer purchase behavior. That growth creates awareness among consumer regarding malls.

By ANOVA test, it was found that merchandise, price and culture value had significant involvement while other variable like site location, structure, and purpose did not have major impact on education and also doesn’t have significant impact on location.

2. ANOVA Analysis For Age

Table 2.1: ANOVA ANALYSIS FOR AGE

	Sum of Squares	Df.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
MER					
Between Groups	2.087	3	.696	2.695	.047
Within Groups	63.481	246	.258		
Total	65.568	249			
STLOC					
Between Groups	2.436	3	.812	2.896	.036
Within Groups	68.986	246	.280		
Total	71.422	249			
PRICE					
Between Groups	1.614	3	.538	3.133	.026
Within Groups	42.253	246	.172		
Total	43.867	249			
STRU					
Between Groups	1.903	3	.634	2.846	.038
Within Groups	54.829	246	.223		
Total	56.732	249			
CUL					
Between Groups	1.519	3	.506	2.777	.042
Within Groups	44.858	246	.182		
Total	46.377	249			
PUR					
Between Groups	.172	3	.057	.586	.625
Within Groups	24.054	246	.098		
Total	24.226	249			

(* significant at 0.05 level of significance)

Table 2.2: MEAN ANALYSIS FOR AGE

Variable	No of Samples	Overall Mean	Merchandise	Site Location	Price	Structure	Culture	Purpose
Age								
Below 25	62	3.64	F = 2.695 Sig.= 0.047	F= 2.896 Sig.=0.036	F= 3.133 Sig.=0.026	F= 2.846 Sig.=0.038	F=2.777 Sig.=0.042	F=0.586 Sig.=0.625
25-35	64	3.51						
35-45	64	3.62						
Above 45	60	3.59						
Total	250	3.59						

Interpretation: The ANOVA test was conducted to find out the impact of Age factor on Merchandise, Site location, Price, Structure, Culture and Purpose. The mean analysis shows that consumers below 25 age groups (3.64) have direct impact on failures of mall attributes, followed by the consumers among 25-35 years age groups (3.51) and the consumers among 35-45 years age group (3.62) and consumers of more than 45 ages (3.59). The result had shown that the Age has significant impact on merchandise, site location, price, structure and culture which is discussed below:

Age is an important demographic variable. This factor changes with the change of age group so it is the most critical factor. Consumers who were > 45 of age group are more focused on quality and habituated with the specific products; they were not fond of different products and brand. Whereas consumer of middle age (between 35 to 45 years) did not much focus on merchandise but were still willing to try new products and search for varieties. Young consumers of less than 35 years were highly influenced by merchandise.

Considering location factor, respondents <45 age had highest impact on site location of malls as they did not prefer far off places for purchasing and ending up buying from nearest shops. While, consumers between 25 to 45 ages preferred quality and change hence purchased regular need products from nearest shops but products like cloth, electric products, durable goods and etc. from faraway places, so these age group consumers were conscious regarding distance of shopping place. Consumers <25 of age group were least concerned about site location. They focused on merchandise, innovation, change, availability of offers and etc. so they prefer any location to fulfill their need.

The consumers who are above age group of 45 were more prices oriented. They gave priority to price rather than quality, brand, innovations etc. The consumers who were below age group of 35 were less price conscious. They liked to purchase innovative products at any given price. Consumers below 35 years did considered store ambiance (easily accept the innovative structure of mall) as contrast to the consumers above 35 years age for whom the store ambiance did not matter a lot (did not accept the innovative structure of mall readily).

3. ANOVA Analysis For Education

Table 3.1: ANOVA ANALYSIS FOR EDUCATION

		Sum of Squares	Df.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
MER	Between Groups	.955	2	.477	1.825	.163
	Within Groups	64.613	247	.262		
	Total	65.568	249			
STLOC	Between Groups	.291	2	.146	.506	.604
	Within Groups	71.131	247	.288		
	Total	71.422	249			
PRICE	Between Groups	.161	2	.080	.454	.636
	Within Groups	43.707	247	.177		
	Total	43.867	249			
STRU	Between Groups	.965	2	.483	2.137	.120
	Within Groups	55.767	247	.226		
	Total	56.732	249			
CUL	Between Groups	1.173	2	.587	3.205	.042
	Within Groups	45.204	247	.183		
	Total	46.377	249			
PUR	Between Groups	.170	2	.085	.875	.418
	Within Groups	24.056	247	.097		
	Total	24.226	249			

(*) significant at 0.05 level of significance)

Variable	No of Samples	Overall Mean	Merchandise	Site Location	Price	Structure	Culture	Purpose
Graduate	91	3.57	F = 1.825 Sig.=0.163	F= 0.506 Sig.=0.604	F= 0.454 Sig.=0.636	F= 2.137 Sig.=0.120	F= 3.205 Sig.=0.042	F= 0.875 Sig.=0.418
Post Graduate	133	3.62						
Others	26	3.48						
Total	250	3.56						

Table 3.2: MEAN ANALYSIS FOR EDUCATION

Interpretation: The ANOVA test was conducted to find out the impact of Education factor on Merchandise, Site location, Price, Structure, Culture and Purpose. The mean analysis showed that graduate consumers (3.57) have direct impact on failures of mall attributes, followed by the consumers who are post graduates (3.62) and the others (3.48).

Culture impacts education level. The culture beliefs and cultural values of educated people differ far-off from the people who are less educated. Under graduate consumers were not much aware about the global changes happening

in the retail industries and so they readily do not accept the change occurred in the retail format or retail structure in contrast of the people who are well educated. Education helps people change their culture and their attitude towards the mall. And that is the reason why culture has significant effect in education.

In this research, ANOVA test shows that culture value has significant impact while other variable like merchandise, site location, structure, price and purpose are not much influencing education so they don't have significant impact on education.

4. Anova Analysis For Income

Table 4.1: ANOVA ANALYSIS FOR INCOME

		Sum of Squares	Df.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
MER	Between Groups	1.584	2	.792	2.948	.054
	Within Groups	66.383	247	.269		
	Total	67.967	249			
STLOC	Between Groups	.118	2	.059	.204	.816
	Within Groups	71.305	247	.289		
	Total	71.422	249			
PRICE	Between Groups	1.584	2	.792	2.948	.054
	Within Groups	66.383	247	.269		
	Total	67.967	249			
STRU	Between Groups	1.441	2	.720	3.960	.020
	Within Groups	44.936	247	.182		
	Total	46.377	249			
CUL	Between Groups	1.441	2	.720	3.960	.020
	Within Groups	44.936	247	.182		
	Total	46.377	249			
PURPOSE	Between Groups	.224	2	.112	1.152	.318
	Within Groups	24.002	247	.097		
	Total	24.226	249			

(* significant at 0.05 level of significance)

Table 4.2: MEAN ANALYSIS FOR INCOME

Variable	No of Samples	Overall Mean	Merchandise	Site Location	Price	Structure	Culture	Purpose
Income								
Below 2 lakhs	110	3.68	F=2.948 Sig.=0.050	F=0.204 Sig.=0.816	F=2.956 Sig.=0.048	F=3.960 Sig.=0.020	F=3.968 Sig.=0.018	F=1.152 Sig.=0.318
2-5 lakhs	80	3.56						
Above 5 lakhs	60	3.67						
Total	250	3.64						

Interpretation: The ANOVA test was conducted to find out the customer's perception regarding various factors that are contributing in failure of malls and the impact of INCOME factor on Merchandise, Site location, Price, Structure, Culture and Purpose. The mean analysis showed that consumers among below 2 lakhs groups (3.68) have direct impact on failures of mall attributes, followed by the consumers among (2-5 lakhs) income groups (3.56) and the consumers above 5 lakhs income group (3.67). The result shows that the Income has significant impact on merchandise, price, and culture

Merchandise, Price, life style has direct influence on income since people having higher income level would prefer wide range of merchandise product and would not vary for the price compare to people who having low income (Purchasing capacity). Culture is also an important factor for income since person's income is responsible in raising their cultural beliefs and mostly their purchase decisions also change.

FINDINGS

From the study, it was found that location was the biggest factor resulting into failure of any mall. Apart from the location, factors like merchandise, price, income of consumers and culture also had some impact on the failure cause. However, it was shocking to know that level of education had reverse effect i.e. with the rise in education level, the negative beliefs towards mall location decreased. Additionally, it was observed that in general, people of India lacked awareness about mall structure and so they were reluctant in buying different products from mall. The presence of kirana (or local stores) and the bargaining advantage from them drove people to shop from these local stores. Moreover, the urban people refrained from buying vegetables and dairy products from mall because of the freshness perception. In malls usually, ethnic products are not available in range; hence people have to explore different shops to buy such. However, the discount season in mall increases the footfalls and product selling also escalates.

CONCLUSION

The research undertaken uncovered many loopholes in the mall culture of Gujarat state. It was identified that Indian mall structure is not as per the Indian ethics and culture. The mall structure is just replica western culture. Price hike in real estate is a major factor for failure of mall in India. Moreover, for Indian scenario, price and culture played a significant role on demographic factors like age, education and income. So, mall manager need to focus on price as well as culture of that particular area or city.

LIMITATIONS

Every research has certain limitations. Some of the limitations were: First, this survey was conducted considering the time constraint and so the sample size might not be adequate for the study. Second, due to subjectivity and beliefs of consumers, some answers of the questionnaire may differ from the reality. Only consumers' perceptions about purchase will not be providing actual idea about the failure of malls. Thirdly, the topic discussed in this study is still developing and it is hoped to be continually explored with an addition of other external as well as internal factors affecting failures of malls (organized sector) thus enriching the research contents. Therefore, it is hoped that succeeding studies can adopt a wider range of constructs to make the whole study share more benefits.

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