Emotional intelligence and its relationship with sales success

George C. Chipain
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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ITS RELATIONSHIP

WITH SALES SUCCESS

A Thesis in

Educational Leadership

by

George Constantine Chipain

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
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Emotional intelligence is a theoretical framework that organizes and integrates empirical research regarding emotions. Personal selling is the most effective marketing communication vehicle available to organizations because of its ability to adapt to specific customer needs. While two bodies of research have evolved regarding emotional intelligence theory and sales success predictors, little research has been carried out to link these two concepts together. This exploratory study tested a model of emotional intelligence and a measure of sales performance. The participants for the investigation were sales representatives in the personal home products industry. One hundred twenty-eight adult sales professionals completed a measure of emotional intelligence and sales performance data. Overall, the results supported the main hypothesis, which was that emotional intelligence positively related to sales performance. Moreover, the findings showed that the emotional intelligence of high performing sales professionals was significantly different from the emotional intelligence of low performing sales professionals. Age, formal education, professional experience, and ethnicity did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance. The findings suggest that emotional intelligence, when viewed from a global perspective, provides a valuable link with existing theories regarding sales success.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Emotional intelligence is a theoretical framework that organizes and integrates empirical research regarding emotions. Individual characteristics such as self-motivation, perseverance in the face of obstacles, impulse management, delaying the desire for instant gratification, interpersonal sensitivity, optimism, and openness to solve problems creatively are common manifestations of emotional intelligence. While research concerning emotions has existed for many years, emotional intelligence as a framework is a relatively new concept. Peter Salovey and John Mayer (1990) theorized the architecture of emotional intelligence. They posited that emotional intelligence denotes the nexus between two fundamental factors of personality: the cognitive and emotional systems (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Keenan, 2002; Lam & Kirby, 2002; LeDoux, 1998; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Pelliteri, 2002). While emotions are at the center of this theory, it also involves cognitive and social systems that relate to the appraisal, management, and employment of affect (Geher, Warner, & Brown, 2001; Lee & Wagner, 2002; Schutte et al., 1998; Tapia, 2001). Individuals with a high emotional intelligence use their reasoning skills to recognize, infuse meaning, and problem-solve their affective states to optimize overall life satisfaction (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Bajgar, 2001; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Schutte et al., 2001).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) categorize emotional intelligence into three basic areas: (1) self-awareness and expression of emotion-laden information,
(2) regulation of affect in the self and in others, and (3) utilization of emotion to guide one's thinking and actions. Goleman (1995a) considers these emotional aptitudes a meta-ability, which encompasses how well an individual can utilize and coordinate all of the skills he or she may already have, including raw intellect. Individuals who are emotionally adroit have advantages in many domains of life (Goleman, 1995a; Lam & Kirby, 2002; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Schutte et al., 2001; Swinkels & Giuliani, 1995; Verbeke, 1997).

**Emotional Intelligence and Achievement**

Little focus has related the influence of affect on the performance process (Sanna, Turley, & Mark, 1996). Empirical studies are emerging, however, that link the theory of emotional intelligence with achievement, leadership, interview outcomes, and personal contentment. Martinez-Pons (1997) tested the predictive power of emotional intelligence with three areas of personal functioning: (1) goal orientation, (2) life satisfaction, and (3) depression symptomatology. Using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale measure of emotional intelligence developed by Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, and Palfai (1995) on 108 participants, Martinez-Pons found a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and goal orientation, task mastery, and life satisfaction. Specifically, a greater emotional intelligence correlated with an individual's competence to carry out adaptive task-oriented behaviors. The results also indicated a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and depression symptomatology. These findings offer credibility to the global construct of emotional intelligence and its predictive power in relation to certain aspects of personal functioning.
Schutte et al. (1998) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. Schutte et al. hypothesized that emotional intelligence would predict academic achievement among undergraduate students. A sample of 64 entering college students completed a measure of emotional intelligence during their first month at a university in the southeastern United States. At the end of their first full year, cumulative grade point averages were obtained for the students. The results showed that the emotional intelligence scores significantly predicted grade point averages.

Emotional intelligence has been linked with organizational advancement. Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and individual advancement in an organizational setting. The researchers hypothesized that a positive relationship existed between emotional intelligence and managerial success in an organizational context. In addition, the researchers hypothesized that emotional intelligence, rational intelligence, and managerial competencies together would explain more variance in individual success in an organizational setting than any measure alone. A sample of 58 managers from General Motors Corporation was assessed in a longitudinal study over a seven-year time period. Emotional intelligence was triangulated through three measures: (a) a subset of the Job Competencies Survey (JCS) that measured aspects of emotional intelligence, (b) the 16PF personality questionnaire, and (c) the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ). Rational intelligence and managerial competency were assessed with selected
JCS questionnaire items. Organizational success was measured as advancement within the hierarchy of the organization over a seven-year period. This construct was operationalized as a change in organizational level expressed as a percentage of the level held at the outset. The managers completed the questionnaires and also provided information regarding their current organizational level and career history since working for General Motors Corporation.

Multiple regression analysis showed that emotional intelligence was positively associated with organizational advancement. In addition, the analysis revealed that emotional intelligence, when combined with rational intelligence and managerial competencies, explained a substantially greater proportion of the variance concerning individual advancement than any variable alone. Emotional intelligence explained 36 percent of the total variance, with rational intelligence and managerial competencies contributing an additional 27 percent and 16 percent of the total variance, respectively. These findings lend empirical support to Goleman's assertion that emotional intelligence and IQ work together in explaining "life success" (Goleman, 1995a; Lam & Kirby, 2002; Pellitteri, 2002).

Emotional intelligence and IQ, as distinct variables, are also important factors that work together in predicting job interview outcomes. Fox and Spector (2000) hypothesized that emotional intelligence, positive affectivity, general intelligence, and practical intelligence positively correlated with interviewer affect. In addition, the researchers hypothesized that interviewer affect positively correlated with interview outcomes. Interview outcomes were operationalized as
the interviewer's perception of candidate qualifications and the decision to hire. A sample of 116 undergraduate students participated in a structured interview simulation for an entry-level management position. Following the interview, the participants completed the Trait Meta-Mood Scale, the Interpersonal Reactivity Index, the Positive Affect-Negative Affect Schedule, the Wonderlic Personnel Test, and the Work Problems Survey. The findings substantiated the importance of emotional intelligence, in conjunction with general and practical intelligence, regarding interview outcomes. The results showed that measures of emotional intelligence, along with general and practical intelligence, positively correlated with both interviewer affect and interview outcomes (i.e., candidate qualifications and decision to hire).

Emotional intelligence has also been associated with transformational leadership behavior. Sosik and Magerian (1999) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership within an organizational setting. They hypothesized that emotional intelligence and transformational leadership were positively associated, with self-other agreement as a moderating variable. A sample of 63 managers, 192 subordinates, and 63 superiors of the managers at an information technology organization were surveyed. Managers were assessed regarding their emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behavior. Subordinates rated their supervisor's (i.e., the manager's) transformational leadership behavior and performance outcomes. Each manager's superior also rated the manager's performance.
The findings showed that emotional intelligence was positively associated with transformational leadership behavior. In addition, managers whose estimates of their leadership qualities were congruent with both their subordinates' and superior's estimates also had higher emotional intelligence scores than managers who either overestimated or underestimated their leadership qualities. Moreover, the findings showed that managers who were self-aware of their emotions also had higher levels of self-confidence and self-efficacy compared with managers who were not self-aware of their emotions. These results suggest that self-awareness is a foundation for other aspects of emotional intelligence. This conclusion is consistent with Mayer and Salovey's (1990) sequential process of emotional intelligence, which includes the appraisal, regulation, and utilization of emotion (Martinez-Pons, 1997; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995).

**Personal Selling**

The profession of selling occupies a central position in contemporary economics. It has been said that nothing happens in business unless a sale is made first. Selling is the engine that drives modern economies. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (2002) reported that 15,513,000 adults were employed in sales and marketing positions in the United States in 2000. The Bureau estimates that by 2010, sales and marketing positions will increase by 11%, which is considered a faster than average growth rate.

Personal selling is the most effective marketing communication vehicle available to organizations because of its ability to adapt to specific customer
needs (Spiro and Weitz, 1990). The cost of delivering a message through the personal selling channel, however, is much greater than through any other mass media outlet. Organizations in the United States spend over $140 billion annually on personal selling (Kotler, 2000). This figure is larger than for any other promotional method. Therefore, organizations are under great pressure to develop effective and cost efficient methods for screening and developing professional salespeople.

Finding and developing effective salespeople adds tremendous value to an organization. Salespeople contribute more revenue to American companies than employees in any other job category (Futrell, 2000). This added value, however, comes at a price. The cost of training alone for a single salesperson, on average, ranges from $5,000 to $10,000 (Hansen & Conrad, 1991). The average annual turnover rate for salespeople is approximately 18% per year (Nelson, 1987). Attrition can be much higher, depending upon the specific industry investigated. Seligman and Schulman (1986) noted that 78% of life insurance salespeople hired in the United States quit within the first three years of service. High turnover rates create increased cost pressures on the bottom line. When a salesperson quits due to poor performance, the estimated cost for replacing that employee, combined with the opportunity costs resulting from lost sales in the interim can be as high as $75,000 per sales position (Lucas, Parasuraman, Davis, & Enis, 1987). Moreover, American companies expend more than five billion dollars per year just to find and train replacements for the salespeople who quit or are terminated (Ford, Walker, Churchill, & Hartley, 1987).
A pragmatic need exists for understanding the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales achievement. A dearth of research has been conducted regarding emotions and sales achievement (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Verbeke, 1997). Moreover, comprehensive emotional inventories can add value in understanding how emotions can influence analytic processing in a sales environment (Babin, Boles, & Darden, 1995).

According to Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer, and Roth (1998) a broad array of predictors have been used to choose sales professionals. These predictors range from conventional tools (e.g., cognitive assessments, personality inventories, and biodata instruments) to unconventional strategies (e.g., handwriting analysis). Jolson and Comer (1997, p. 30) opined, “Little empirical work has examined the usefulness of personality traits and individual characteristics in evaluating marketing employees, especially those in selling jobs.” Moreover, sales predictor studies usually focus on a single predictor of sales success. As a result, much of the literature regarding sales success is fragmented and disjointed. Sternberg and Lubart (1996) affirmed the myopic perspectives that can hinder the advancement of knowledge in both general and research terms.

We often hear about the dangers of Type I and Type II errors in statistical analysis of data....We almost never hear, however, about a parallel set of errors that is equally important. These errors are the ones that people make when choosing a research topic, rather than analyzing the data from the ensuing research on that topic. Some narrow, detail-centered topics
with little potential importance for psychology or the world in general are the focus of many research studies. Other seemingly valuable topics with great potential for scientific and practical insights are barely studied (p. 677).

While two bodies of research have evolved regarding emotional intelligence theory and sales success predictors, little research has been carried out to link these two concepts together. A more holistic understanding of the personal qualities of effective selling is needed in order to construct valid, reliable, and pragmatically useful predictors of sales success. This study seeks to fill the void in the literature by relating these two concepts. The main research question is: "Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and sales success?"

The current study will build on the line of existing research by testing a model of emotional intelligence and a measure of sales performance. The goal of this study is to provide a logical bridge between these two concepts and help fill the dearth of supporting studies in the literature. By relating these two concepts, the following study seeks to add empirical value to both psychology and personal selling research by offering a theoretical foundation for integrating the significance of emotional intelligence and its influence on salesperson performance.
Hypotheses

H1: Emotional intelligence will be positively related to sales performance.

H2: The emotional intelligence of high performing sales professionals will be significantly different from the emotional intelligence of low performing sales professionals.

H3: Age will moderate emotional intelligence and sales performance.

H4: Education will moderate emotional intelligence and sales performance.

H5: Experience will moderate emotional intelligence and sales performance.

H6: Gender will have no influence on emotional intelligence and sales performance.

H7: Ethnicity will have no influence on emotional intelligence and sales performance.
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotional Intelligence Overview

Salovey and Mayer (1990, p. 185) define emotional intelligence as "a set of skills hypothesized to contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and in others, the effective regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of feelings to motivate, plan, and achieve in one's life."

Emotional intelligence is a framework for thinking about the relationship between the complex set of emotions and behavior. In addition to providing a set of guiding principles for organizing personality, emotional intelligence also offers a psychic map for personality researchers who study emotion. Albert Einstein quested for a Unified Field Theory, which sought to integrate strong forces, electromagnetism, weak forces, and gravity. In a similar manner, Salovey and Mayer have sought to develop a theory that organizes and integrates the different components and sub-fields of emotion-based research into a codified whole.

Mayer and Salovey (1993) discuss the nature of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is defined as a type of social intelligence, but it is also differentiated from social intelligence in that emotional intelligence "involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Mayer & Salovey, 1993, p. 433). The authors believe that intelligence is an apposite term for the theoretical construct of emotional intelligence. They chose the term intelligence in
order to link their framework to the historical literature on intelligence. Moreover, the authors believe that emotional intelligence shares a common ground with Howard Gardner's (1983) construct called intrapersonal intelligence. Mayer and Salovey suggest that emotional intelligence is similar to general intelligence as an aptitude, but it is different in the structures that underlie it and also in its expression. Regarding the underlying structures of emotional intelligence, Mayer and Salovey suggest emotionality, emotion management, and neurological substrates as core constructs. Concerning the expression of emotional intelligence, the authors give possible examples of greater verbal fluency in emotional domains and greater overall affect information transmission.

Mayer and Salovey (1993) theorize that just as general intelligence covers a broad range of abilities, so does emotional intelligence. Within this frequency distribution of abilities, different types of people will be more or less emotionally intelligent. Individuals with greater emotional intelligence will be more adept in identifying, managing, and communicating emotionally valenced internal experiences. Such emotional deftness will play an important role in overall happiness. Mayer and Salovey posit this paradigm as an attempt to create a new framework for thinking about emotions, integrate existing research concerning affect information management, and chart a new set of guiding principles for future research on the subject.

Mayer and Salovey (1995) define emotional intelligence within a rubric of a consistent model of emotional functioning. The researchers apply this model to indicate the ways that a person can intervene in both the construction and
regulation of mood. They hypothesize, "Emotional intelligence can be defined as the capacity to process emotional information accurately and efficiently, including that information relevant to the recognition, construction, and regulation of emotion in oneself and others" (Mayer & Salovey, 1995, p. 197). This theory is built upon a number of common assumptions. These assumptions include the following:

1. Other things being equal, pleasure is good for people; pain is bad.
2. People naturally seek pleasure and avoid pain.
3. People cannot always attain enough pleasure to offset pain.
4. Other things being equal, people find it easier to be happy when those around them are happy as well.
5. The optimal thing to feel in a given situation is context dependent.


These assumptions, as well as the following model proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1995) regarding emotionally intelligent regulation, have a number of limitations. First, the assumptions are highly simplified and difficult to operationally define. Second, both the assumptions and the model are only one of a variety of possible assumption sets and models that can be theorized to explain emotionally intelligent regulation. Finally, the heuristics for judging the appropriateness of an emotional response are based upon the context of a situation, and different people (e.g., divergent cultures) may offer different responses as to what is the optimal emotional choice for a specific situation. With
these caveats in mind, the following model is presented for the regulation of
emotion that has a consistent and high adaptational value:

1. People can optimize their pleasures by forgoing short-term
pleasures for larger or more sustained long-term pleasures.

2. People should strive towards emotions that are both
pro-individual and pro-social.

3. The best emotions to feel will depend upon the situation; there
are times when painful emotions are more appropriate than

Emotion construction and regulation can be broken down into three
groups based on the level of consciousness involved. These groups include
non-, low, and high conscious levels of regulation and involve the confluence of
the cognitive and affective systems (Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Pellitteri, 2002). At
the non-conscious level, a person experiences emotional orientation. Individuals
at this level exhibit a reactive orientation in the construction and regulation of
emotion. They have a basic adaptational knowledge of emotion that is learned
primarily through modeling and non-evaluative sources. Conscious planning of
pro-individual and pro-social activity usually does not occur at this level of
consciousness. Productive individuals at this stage have developed an adaptive
non-conscious construction and regulation of emotion, and have developed
socially acceptable ways to respond to various situations. In terms of emotion
regulation, people at this level are categorized as non-defensive or open in
socially acceptable situations. Maladaptive individuals at the non-conscious
stage have poorly developed emotional responses due to a lack of conscious awareness of their feelings. As a result, the maladaptive individual becomes more defensive in nebulous situations.

At the low level of conscious construction and regulation of affect, individuals experience emotional involvement. This level has more voluntary control than the first level. Mayer and Salovey posit, "Emotional involvement includes a person's openness and willingness to frame situations so as to encourage in themselves those emotions consistent with their outlook on emotional responding" (1995, p. 205). Individuals at this level may have enough conscious construction of emotion to develop pro-individual and pro-social activities for most situations. Productive individuals at this level of functioning are usually seen as healthy and empathic. Their primary emotional processing strategy is to skillfully frame situations in order for the appropriate emotions to emerge. They are able to discuss and communicate their feelings to a certain degree, and their decision-making model is based primarily upon prior experiences. Regulatory management at this level is receptive, adaptive, and attentive. Maladaptive individuals at this level do not reframe their situations, choose poor emotional models for managing affect, and have minimal skills to either feel or manage their emotions (e.g., alexithymia).

The highest level of conscious construction and regulation of affect is called emotional expertise. Individuals with emotional expertise have an expert knowledge of and consciously develop their emotions. They consciously devise techniques to optimize pleasure over their lifetime, utilizing both pro-individual
and pro-social strategies. Productive individuals at this level consciously cultivate their emotions through techniques such as introspection, reflection, inquiry, artistry, and spirituality. They are self-observing and circumspect. Individuals with low emotional intelligence at this level by and large have insufficient knowledge concerning emotional growth.

The proposed common assumption set, emotion regulation model, and conscious categories of intelligent emotion regulation posited by Mayer and Salovey (1995) define the matrix in which the framework for emotional intelligence is developed. The following framework is important for thinking about the integration of the literature regarding affective information, and also serves as a set of guidelines for future research in the field.

Appraisal and Expression of Emotion

The appraisal and expression of emotion is a central component of emotional intelligence. Salovey and Mayer (1990) suggest, "Those who are more accurate can more quickly perceive and respond to their own emotions and better express those emotions to others" (p. 193). Richard Lazarus (1991) posits the cognitive-motivational-relational theory to explain and predict emotions. Lazarus' model proposes that an emotion is an individual's response to a perceived environment that prepares and mobilizes the person to cope in an adaptive manner with whatever harm or benefit the individual has appraised as being there. Smith and Pope (1992) identify an emotional reaction as a response to a meaning interpretation where aspects of both the individual and the situation
are weighed to assess the impact of the situation on the individual's perceived best interests.

While there is, at base, a fixed and universal biological emotional system common to human beings that is designed to respond to stimuli from the environment, the choice of action from the array of available coping mechanisms will be contingent upon both the personal meaning of the stimulus and the perceived set of adaptational options available to the person. Within this model of emotional functioning, emotional reactions are context sensitive and are related to the perceived harm or benefit that accrues to the individual based upon the subjective meaning of the stimulus. Two individuals may experience the same stimulus, but the emotional response to the stimulus may be very different depending upon the idiosyncratic construction of the meaning of the stimulus. Lazarus (1991) categorizes these personal meanings as core relational themes (e.g., success, danger, optimism), and hypothesizes that these global themes are the matrix that determines the emotional reactions to various environmental stimuli. Accordingly, appraisal theorists have therefore developed an interactional approach whereby the properties of both the individual and the situation are given consideration in the appraisal process.

Lazarus (1991) separates the appraisal of emotion into two major components: primary and secondary appraisal. Primary appraisal is an evaluation process that assesses the circumstances for relevance to one's personal well-being. The mechanisms that underlie this process are determined by goal relevance, goal congruence, and goal content. Goal relevance is the
extent to which a situation has a personal impact upon one's goals or concerns. At this level of processing, the situation's saliency is assessed for the individual. A person's level of emotional involvement is positively related to the degree of goal relevance that the perceived situation elicits. The second component of primary appraisal is goal congruence, which identifies the extent to which a situation is congruent with an individual's personal objectives (i.e., desirability with one's aims). These two components of primary appraisal interact to identify if a situation is either stressful or benign. Situations perceived as benign are those that are goal relevant and goal congruent (i.e., significant and preferred). Situations appraised as stressful are goal relevant but goal incongruent (i.e., significant but not wanted). Goal content is essential to discriminate among several related emotions (e.g., anger, guilt, or shame). The focus relates to the type of goal at stake, and can facilitate decisions such as the defense or augmentation of an individual's ego identity, change in moral values, or identification of causal attribution.

Secondary appraisal occurs after primary appraisal and addresses an individual's resources available to cope with the environmental condition. Secondary appraisal has four components: (1) accountability, (2) problem-focused coping potential, (3) emotion-focused coping potential, and (4) future expectancy (Smith & Pope, 1992). Accountability assesses who will receive credit or blame for the situation, depending upon the goal congruence or incongruence with one's personal appraisal. Problem-focused coping potential identifies the process for resolving the incongruity between an individual's
assessed situation and his or her wishes. Emotion-focused coping potential is a process that reframes an individual’s wishes, interpretations, or beliefs concerning the situation. Finally, future expectancy assesses the perceived possibilities available for the individual to alter the encounter’s goal congruence.

In Self – Verbal

Emotionally intelligent individuals can verbally connect their cognitions with their affect. Individuals who are deft at connecting cognitions to emotions may be more aware of the consequences from their emotion-based decisions, as well as better interpret emotional communication from others by their verbal expressions (Mayer & Geher, 1996).

Mayer and Geher (1996) investigated how people recognized and reasoned about emotional content. They hypothesized that the ability to verbalize other people’s emotions was related to personal indices of emotional intelligence, such as empathy, openness, and general intelligence. A sample of 321 undergraduates read thought samples of target individuals and judged the emotion that the target was feeling at the time the thought sample was written. The participants’ responses were measured against what the target reported feeling at the time the thought sample was created and also against a group consensus as to what emotion was experienced. The resulting scale of emotion identification scores was called the Emotion Accuracy Research Scale (EARS). The EARS scores were then correlated against criterion measures of emotional intelligence. These criterion scales included the Present Reaction Scale (PRS), which is a self-report mood scale, the Mehrabian and Epstein Empathy Scale,
the Davis Empathy Scale, The Kohn Scale of Authoritarianism for psychological
defensiveness, and self-reported Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores as a
general measure of intellectual ability. The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability
Scale was administered to control for socially desirable answers and also to
assess psychological defensiveness.

The findings showed that individuals who had higher emotional agreement
scores with both the target and consensus group also exhibited greater empathy,
emotional openness, and intelligence as measured by the criterion measures.
Moreover, higher EARS scores negatively correlated with psychological
defensiveness. The researchers concluded that individuals who could verbalize
the emotions expressed by others had a greater personal emotional intelligence.

Emotions and moods have an influence on verbal expressiveness through
the cognitive and social processing of information (Forgas, 1999; Lee & Wagner,
2002). While emotions and moods are very similar terms, moods are different
from emotions in that moods tend to be feeling states that are unfocused,
ubiquitous, and have a propensity to exert a shorter intensity and longer duration
than emotions (Esses & Zanna, 1995; Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995). Mood has an
influence on cognition in terms of informational and processing effects (Forgas,
1999; Hertel & Parks, 2002; Neumann, Seibt, & Strack, 2001). Informational
effects comprise the content of cognition and impacts what people think.
Processing effects focus on how people think. Forgas (1999) advanced the affect
infusion model (AIM) regarding cognitive and social behavior. The model
proposes that cognitive and social functions are influenced by affect and occurs
along a processing continuum. As information processing becomes more complex and comprehensive, mood-primed associations are more likely to be integrated into the judgment process. As a result, the impact of mood will be greater when individuals consider the multifaceted, peripheral, and unusual characteristics of the situation, as opposed to simple, central, and expected aspects of the situation. In addition, the perceived difficulty of the situation will intensify the initial reactions.

Forgas (1999) investigated the effects of mood on verbal expressiveness and situation difficulty. Forgas hypothesized that a negative mood should increase and a positive mood should decrease request politeness. In addition, situation difficulty was hypothesized to magnify these mood effects. A 2 x 2 between-groups design was used to test the hypotheses with 120 undergraduate students. Participants were induced into either a positive or negative mood. Next, they were presented with a request situation through written scenarios that were perceived as either easy or difficult. Analysis of variance tests showed that mood had a significant main effect on requesting. Participants in a positive mood were more likely to prefer more direct and less polite requests, whereas participants in a negative mood were more likely to select indirect and more polite request alternatives.

Situation context also had a direct influence on the verbal expressiveness of requests. Participants in the easy request situation preferred more direct and less polite requests, while participants in the more difficult situation preferred more polite and indirect requests. In addition, an interaction was found between
mood and situation difficulty. Mood effects on request preferences were more
direct and less polite for participants in a positive mood, while being more polite
and indirect for participants in a negative mood. Forgas interpreted the results to
mean that positive moods produced greater optimism in expectancy, which
elicited more direct and less polite requests. Conversely, negative moods
produced greater pessimism in expectancy, which elicited more polite and less
direct request strategies.

Alexithymia is a condition where an individual has a general difficulty in
appraising and verbally expressing emotions. Alexithymia is a feature of
personality marked by a diminished capacity to appraise feelings, a scarcity of
affective articulation, redirected attention toward minutiae and the external world,
and a low level or lack of imagination (Roedema & Simons, 1999). Since an
alexithymic individual has difficulty in recognizing and sharing internal affective
states, he or she instead focuses on peripheral and physical concerns.
Symptoms of alexithymia include a rigid posture, an absence of facial
expressions, and a limited ability to accurately perceive facial expressions in
others (Troisi et al., 1996).

Roedema and Simons (1999) investigated the relationship between
affective self-report and selected physiological responses to a set of color slide
stimuli selected to manifest emotional reactions in alexithymic and control
subjects. The researchers hypothesized that alexithymic subjects would provide
diminished affective responses to the stimuli than would the control subjects. A
between-groups design was employed involving 65 college students who were
placed in either an alexithymic or control group based on their results to the Toronto Alexithymic Scale (TAS). Participants were presented standardized emotion-eliciting color slides for six-second intervals while their facial muscle, heart rate, and skin conductance activity were recorded. The same set of stimuli were then presented a second time while subjects were asked to provide emotion self-reports using a paper-and-pencil version of the Self-Assessment Manikin (SAM). They were also asked to generate a list of adjectives describing their emotional reactions to each slide.

The findings revealed that high alexithymic subjects provided less affect laden adjectives than did controls to express their reactions to the color slides. In addition, alexithymic subjects generated a greater number of non-responses for more slides than did the control subjects. The Self-Assessment Manikin inventory showed that alexithymics indicated less variation along the arousal subscale. Regarding the physiological metrics, alexithymics generated fewer specific skin conductance responses and showed less heart rate deceleration to the color slides. Electromyograph (EMG) patterns were not significantly different. The results suggest that alexithymic individuals display a reduced level of emotional awareness and expressiveness on both verbal and physiological dimensions.

Mood awareness consists of two dimensions: mood labeling and mood monitoring (Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995). Mood labeling involves the ability to appraise, categorize, and verbalize a mood state. Mood monitoring involves the inclination to dwell on one’s mood state for prolonged time periods, similar to the construct of private self-consciousness. Mood monitoring is different from mood
regulation in that mood regulation also incorporates a proactive effort at maintaining or repairing various mood states (Mayer & Stevens, 1994).

Swinkels and Giuliano (1995) investigated mood labeling and mood monitoring. They hypothesized that mood labeling was related to positive affective experiences, whereas mood monitoring was associated with negative affective experiences. A sample of 175 participants completed the Mood Awareness Scale (MAS), along with a number of other well-established psychometric measures (e.g., Eysenck Personality Inventory, Affect Intensity Measure, Toronto Alexithymic Scale, Affective Communication Test, Positive and Negative Affect Schedule, etc.). Multiple regression procedures were used to analyze the data. The results indicated that mood labeling positively correlated with nonverbal expressiveness, self-esteem, positive affect, social support seeking, and global life satisfaction. Mood monitoring, in contrast, positively correlated with feelings of negative affect, neurosis, rumination, and depression, while being negatively correlated with self-esteem and self-ratings of success at mood regulation. The findings suggested that mood labeling might be an important component of emotion regulation, while mood monitoring may hamper emotion regulation. Even though mood monitoring may be a neutral activity per se, the act of prolonged inspection and dwelling on a feeling state may inhibit the proactive aspects of emotion regulation to become manifest. Mood labeling, however, provides psychic value by attaching labels to feelings, which is an important evaluative component of emotion regulation.
In Self - Nonverbal

Salovey and Mayer (1990) posit that a substantial amount of emotional communication occurs through nonverbal channels. Nonverbal behaviors occupy a prominent role in the expression of emotion (Carton, Kessler, & Pape, 1999; Lee & Wagner, 2002). Nonverbal expression of emotion can have an impact upon others in the communication channel. Friedman and Riggio (1981) posit that an emotion can be transmitted from one person to another via emotional expression.

Friedman and Riggio (1981) tested the impact of emotional expressiveness upon others in the communication channel. The researchers hypothesized that unexpressive people would be influenced by the moods of expressive people. Expressive people, however, would not be influenced by the moods of unexpressive people. A quasi-experimental design was employed involving 81 undergraduate students. Expressive and unexpressive subjects were identified via the Affective Communication Test (ACT) and were sorted into their respective groups. They were then given a pre-test to assess their baseline moods. Each expressive subject was matched with two unexpressive subjects and the triad was allowed to interact silently. A total of 27 group interactions were observed. A post-test questionnaire was administered to assess all subjects’ post-treatment moods.

Multivariate analysis of variance was used to analyze the data. Results showed that the mood scores of the unexpressive subjects changed significantly more than the mood scores of the expressive subjects. Moreover, comparisons
were made between the initial scores of expressive subjects and the initial and final scores of the unexpressive subjects. Results indicated that the unexpressive subjects showed a tendency to have a mood shift to be more similar to the initial mood of the expressive subjects. Expressive subjects, however, had no significant movement towards the unexpressive subjects' initial moods. The results provided support to the theory that nonverbal expression of emotion can have an impact upon the mood of the receiver. Friedman and Riggio (1981) concluded that nonverbal expression is a personality variable that makes a strong contribution to social success.

Nonverbal behavior also shares a relationship with individuals who have a limited awareness of their emotions. Triosi et al. (1996) investigated the relationship between emotional awareness and nonverbal behavior during social interaction. Triosi et al. hypothesized that alexithymic traits in normal individuals were related to particular nonverbal behavior patterns. The study was based on an ethological analysis of nonverbal behavior during psychiatric interviews with normal individuals. Three psychiatrists interviewed 24 participants with the Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-III-R-Nonpatient version (SCID). The SCID made possible the exclusion of the presence of current or past psychiatric disorders and also allowed for standardized interviews. Simultaneously, participants were videotaped to identify nonverbal behavioral patterns of communication. Nonverbal behavior was measured according to a behavioral taxonomy that consisted of 37 behavior patterns. The behavior patterns included facial expressions, body postures, and hand movements. Three categories of
emotional expressiveness crystallized from the taxonomy: inexpressiveness, conflict, and flight. Depression and anxiety were controlled for by having participants complete the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) and the Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Index (STAI-S), respectively. Emotional awareness was assessed with the Toronto Alexithymic Scale (TAS). None of the participants scored in the alexithymic range of the TAS.

Multiple regression analysis revealed that nonverbal behavior during the interview was related to scores on the Toronto Alexithymic Scale (TAS). Specifically, participants who had trouble recognizing and articulating their emotions displayed poor nonverbal expressivity and habitual self-directed behavior patterns, which point toward tension and anxiety. A positive and significant correlation manifested between inexpressiveness and alexithymic traits. Moreover, participants with less awareness of their feelings, as measured by the TAS, displayed greater conflict and displacement activity. A significant correlation also occurred between low nonverbal expressivity and flight behavior. Individuals scoring lower on the TAS had a greater tendency toward externally focused thinking and avoidance behavior during social interaction. These results suggest that the inability to appraise and express emotions is related to nonverbal behavior.

Nonverbal expression can occur through multiple channels. In addition to channels such as voice tonality, physical gestures, and facial expressions, nonverbal expression can occur through other pathways. An example of this is clothing. A person in a suit can have as much as 95% of his or her body covered
in clothing. Attributes such as type of cloth, color, condition, and style of clothes can suggest a phenomenological perspective about the wearer and communicates a message to the observer. The field of study that investigates the communication effects of signs, symbols, or mental concepts is called semiotics (Stuart & Fuller, 1991). Hensley (1981) examined both the semiotic message and the similarity hypothesis of attire on aiding behavior.

The similarity hypothesis predicts that people are inclined to assist those who are perceived as being most similar to themselves. Hensley hypothesized that people will help others more if they perceive a similarity between themselves and the person in need. Clothing was the channel chosen to nonverbally communicate similarity. A 2 x 2 x 2 (gender of person approached x type of attire x location) between-groups field study was employed. The study consisted of female confederates who dressed in either a well-dressed or a poorly dressed manner. The confederates waited by phone booths in a busy airport and a bus station, asking 68 passersby for change to make a phone call. Both physical attractiveness and the personality of the confederates were controlled for in the study.

The data were analyzed using three-way analysis of variance. Results showed that the well-dressed people at the airport received more money, on average, than the poorly dressed people. Conversely, the poorly dressed people at the bus station received more money, on average, than the well-dressed people. Age and race yielded no significant differences. These results suggest two ideas. First, clothing is an expression of nonverbal behavior that
communicates a message about the wearer to others. In addition, people tend to
help other people more who are perceived as most similar to themselves.

**In Others - Nonverbal Perception**

Salovey and Mayer (1990) posit that the ability to perceive emotions in
others is important from an evolutionary standpoint because these perceptual
abilities of emotion allowed for the development of interpersonal cooperation. As
a result of interpersonal cooperation, civilizations were able to flourish. Mayer,
DiPaolo, and Salovey (1990) investigated the ability to perceive affective content
in ambiguous stimuli and correlated the results with important aspects of
emotional intelligence, including empathy, alexithymia, and neuroticism. One
hundred thirty-nine adult participants observed six facial images, six colors, and
six abstract designs and then completed an emotional perception questionnaire.
Next, participants completed criterion measures that assessed empathy,
alexithymia, neuroticism, and extraversion. The data were analyzed with Pearson
correlations and the results indicated that the ability to perceive affective content
in ambiguous stimuli was most strongly related to empathy and extraversion. The
theoretical hypothesis explaining this finding was that an individual must be able
to correctly recognize and relate to the affective content in others before empathy
can occur.

A limitation of this study was the assumption that consensual agreement
regarding the emotional content of the stimuli was a valid metric. Moreover, the
study neglected to incorporate the limiting effect of culture upon the emotional
associations regarding the stimuli. For example, in western culture, the color
white is commonly associated with the feelings of beauty, purity, innocence, etc. In China, however, the color white is associated with feelings of mourning and sadness. This phenomenon is particularly salient in the United States, which is arguably the most culturally diverse society in the world. This limitation, as important as it is, is still compatible with Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey’s (1990) findings. The reason for this is because even in China, the effects of ambiguous stimuli still elicit emotional reactions, albeit the reactions are different to the reactions agreed upon in the study.

Emotions are related to the accuracy of perceptual patterns in social relationships. Casciaro, Carley, and Krackhardt (1999) investigated how positive affectivity impacts people’s perceptions of the patterns of social relationships around them. The researchers hypothesized that positive affectivity was positively associated with global accuracy in work relationships in organizations. Global accuracy refers to the perception of the complete set of social relationships that link all members of a social network. Participants in a university research department completed a questionnaire that assessed positive affectivity, as a trait, and global accuracy in organizational work relationships. Formal social position, levels of participation in social engagement, and the perceiver effect were controlled for in the study. The results showed that positive affectivity increased the accuracy of people’s perceptions of their social web. These findings suggest that positive affectivity can increase a person’s accuracy of the fabric of social relationships in his or her environment.
Nonverbal perception also involves the ability to listen to signals communicated by a sender. Listening is similar to, yet very different from the process of hearing. Hearing is one of the five senses where vibration stimuli are received by the ear and decoded by the brain. Listening incorporates hearing as a first step, but also involves the process of constructing meaning to the sensory information. Castleberry and Shepherd (1993) propose a model of interpersonal listening as a goal-oriented process of actively sensing, interpreting, evaluating, and responding to both verbal and nonverbal messages transmitted by a sender. Castleberry and Shepherd also suggest four constructs that influence the listening process: (1) exposure, (2) noise, (3) motivation to listen, and (4) memory.

Sensing involves the process of being exposed to and perceiving incoming verbal and nonverbal stimuli transmitted by a sender. The listener must be motivated to listen in order to filter out both internal and external distracting noise and attend to the signals communicated by the sender. Interpreting involves learning information about the sender from the context of the situation. This involves understanding both nonverbal and verbal cues and requires that the receiver make no evaluation of the sender's message until it is complete. The message is stored in memory while the context of the message is assessed. Evaluating is the stage of the listening process where meaning is attached to the message and its importance is assessed. Finally, responding involves the sending of stimuli to validate the sender's message and is necessary to further the interaction process. Responding is conveyed through both verbal and
nonverbal channels and can be used to inform, control, share feelings, or ritualize the communication relationship (Ramsey and Sohi, 1997).

Listening can occur on four levels: (1) **marginal**, (2) **evaluative**, (3) **active**, and (4) **empathic** (Comer & Drollinger, 1999). Marginal listening occurs when a receiver physically hears the words, but is easily sidetracked and permits his or her attention to drift. Individuals at this level often refocus their attention to what they plan to say next rather than focusing on the communication signals of the sender. Evaluative listening occurs when the receiver concentrates on the literal meanings of the verbal responses from the sender, but misses the nonverbal communication cues and signals. Listeners at this level miss communication signals such as body language, tone of voice, and nonverbal facial expressions. Active listening occurs when the receiver receives, processes, and responds to both the verbal and nonverbal signals in order to communicate understanding and facilitate further interaction. Finally, empathic listening includes active listening, while incorporating empathy into the nonverbal perception process. Empathic listeners actively receive verbal and nonverbal messages and then construct meaning by placing themselves in the cognitive and affective situation of the sender. By perceiving the internal frame of sender's experience, the receiver seeks to understand the sender's paradigm and tailor responses to facilitate accurate communication.

Accuracy in decoding nonverbal behavior is related to relationship well-being in adults. Carton, Kessler, and Pape (1999) empirically examined the relationship between accuracy in nonverbal perception and relationship
well-being in adults. The researchers hypothesized that relationship well-being in adults was associated with accuracy in nonverbal decoding skills for facial expressions and tones of voice, after controlling for depression. In addition, the researchers hypothesized that ineffective skills in decoding nonverbal messages were associated with more severe symptoms of depression. Sixty participants completed three questionnaires. Nonverbal perception accuracy was assessed with the Adult Facial Expressions and Adult Paralanguage subtests of the Diagnostic Analysis of Nonverbal Accuracy inventory. Relationship well-being was assessed with the positive relation subscale of the Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale. Depression was controlled for with the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale.

Pearson product-moment correlations showed that participants who made more errors in perceiving the emotional meanings of facial expressions and tones of voice also reported significantly less relationship well-being and greater feelings of depression. Hierarchical regression of the data showed that after controlling for depressive symptomatology and demographic variables, accuracy in decoding the emotional meanings of facial expressions and tones of voice accounted for significant variance in relationship well-being beyond the variance accounted for by the controlled variables. These findings point to the importance of nonverbal perception in both emotional health and relationship well-being.

In Others - Empathy

Salovey and Mayer define empathy as "the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself" (1990, p. 194). They also
posit that empathy is an essential quality of emotionally intelligent behavior (Geher, Warner, & Brown, 2001). Empathy consists of both cognitive and affective components (Comer & Drollinger, 1999; Fox & Spector, 2000; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer & Stevens, 1994; Schutte et al., 2001). The cognitive components involve perspective taking and fantasy, which facilitate an intellectual understanding of another person's situation. The affective components involve empathic concern and personal distress, which promote an inner affective response that brings insight into the sender's feelings. At this level, receivers discern nonverbal and affective clues that are not verbally articulated (Comer & Drollinger, 1999; Verbeke, 1997). Both the cognitive and affective components work together to assess empathic understanding.

Comer and Drollinger (1999) identify three stages of empathic processing. The first stage is empathic resonation, which involves the sensitive reception of information from the sender. The second stage is received empathy, which involves an intuitive understanding and interpretation of the message. The third stage is expressed empathy, which involves communication signals that the empathic person transmits back to the sender confirming that the message was received and processed.

Two competing theories regarding the antecedents of empathy-based helping behavior have become manifest in the research literature. These two theories are the egoistic and altruistic interpretations of empathy motivation. Cialdini et al. (1987) propose the egoistic theory of empathy-based helping behavior, which posits that the motivation for helping another rests in the desire
to improve one’s own affective situation (i.e., relieve feelings of personal sadness). In this **negative state relief model**, empathy is generated in response to an arousal in the environment (e.g., another’s suffering) that causes personal distress (e.g., sadness). Empathic concerns and helping behaviors serve to minimize these personally distressing feelings and, therefore, improve the quality of the helper’s mood. Research from the negative state relief model has indicated that a negative emotional state produces a generalized desire to help (Dovidio, Allen, & Schroeder, 1990). Even help on an unrelated task would become manifest in the negative state relief model because this model posits that the main goal of helping is to reduce the egoistic feelings of sadness that the helper experiences, not the need to truly relieve the victim’s affective or situational state.

Batson et al. (1988) propose the **empathy-altruism hypothesis**, which proposes that the motivation to help a person in need is aimed towards the end goal of relieving the sufferer’s condition, not towards some indirect form of personal mood management.

Cialdini et al. (1987) examined whether the motivation for empathy-based helping behavior was egoistic or altruistic in nature. Cialdini conducted a 2 x 2 between-groups design where participants were induced into an empathy orientation (high vs. low) and were also provided an escape orientation from the responsibility to help (easy vs. difficult). The subjects in the high empathy condition indicated both high levels of empathic concern for the individual in need and high levels of personal sadness feelings regarding the sufferer’s condition. Half of the subjects in the high empathy condition were given a personally
gratifying event (e.g., money or praise) between the empathy manipulation and the chance to assist the person in need to alleviate the feelings of personal sadness. The other half was not given a personally gratifying event, thereby maintaining their feelings of personal sadness. Results showed that when the feelings of personal sadness and empathic concern were separated experimentally, helping behavior was predicted by subjects' relative levels of personal sadness, but not by their empathy scores. These results lend support for the egoistic theory of empathy-based helping behavior.

Batson et al. (1988) also investigated whether the motivation for empathy-based helping behavior was egoistic or altruistic in nature and found a different conclusion. Batson et al. hypothesized that empathy-based helping behavior evolved from the final goal of helping the sufferer, not to relieve feelings of personal sadness. The study involved 120 participants in a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ (empathy level x chance to help x notification of prior relief of victim's situation) factorial quasi-experimental design. Participants were introduced to a scenario about a person in need and were then directed to either imagine how the person in need felt or were directed to just observe the facts of the situation. This was done to induce a high or low empathy state. Participants were then randomly informed that half of them would be allowed the chance to help the person in need and the other half would not be allowed to help. In addition, half of the subjects were told that the sufferer was no longer in need, while the other half were informed that the sufferer was still in need of help. The results indicated that high empathy participants felt no better when the sufferer's need was relieved by their own
action than when it was relieved by other means. The results obtained supported
the empathy-altruism hypothesis.

Dovidio, Allen, and Schroeder (1990) also compared the altruistic and
egoistic theories of empathic concern in regard to helping behavior. They
hypothesized that subjects would help a person in need with only the specific
problem encountered with the altruistic theory of empathic concern. In contrast,
the egoistic theory of empathic concern predicted that subjects would help a
person in need with any problem encountered. In their study, two groups of
participants listened to an audiotape of someone in need. One group was asked
to imagine how the person in need felt. The other group of participants was
asked to just observe the situation described. The researchers rationalized that
the participants who were instructed to imagine how the person in need felt were
more likely to be in a high empathy-induced state, while the participants who
were asked to simply observe the situation were more likely to be in a low
empathy-induced state. Participants were later offered a chance to give
assistance to the person in need with the same problem or with a different
problem.

The results indicated that the participants in the imagine-set condition
(i.e., high empathy-induced state) helped more often than did subjects in the
observe-set condition (i.e., low empathy-induced state) in response to a request
for help on the same problem, but not for a different problem. These findings
were consistent with the empathy-altruism hypothesis, but not with the negative
state relief model. The researchers suggested that while feelings of personal
sadness may have had an influence on helping behavior, the need to relieve personal sadness did not mediate the relationship between empathic concern and helping someone in need.

Regulation of Emotion

In Self

The second of the three major components of emotional intelligence is the regulation of emotion. Walden and Smith (1997) mark a distinction between emotional arousability and regulatory processes. Arousability refers to the emotional intensity and reactivity an individual experiences in response to a perceived situation. Regulatory processes function by managing the experienced emotion regarding the perceived situation. The effective regulation of emotion necessitates that the person be able to accurately appraise the requirements of a situation and also be able to respond flexibly and adaptively to those needs (Pellitteri, 2002; Schutte et al., 2001; Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995; Walden & Smith, 1997). Critical to this process is the personal significance of the event stimuli. The regulation process is not an all-or-none event, but rather occurs across a continuum of adaptive or maladaptive choices. Moreover, it is contextually bound and transpires within a social context. In other words, an individual's social group or audience influences regulation, as opposed to it being an isolated process within the individual.

Emotional regulation can occur at three levels: (1) input regulation (i.e., sensory receptors), (2) central regulation (i.e., information processing) or
(3) **output regulation** (i.e., response selection). These features of regulation correspond with the sensory, cognitive, and behavioral levels of functioning, respectively. Moreover, Walden and Smith (1997) identify two features of emotional functioning through which regulation can occur: **emotional tone** and **emotional dynamics**. Emotional tone refers to the particular emotion experienced (e.g., fear, excitement). Emotional dynamics refers to the intensity, range, lability, latency, rise time, recovery, and persistence of the emotion.

An individual can regulate his or her mood at many conscious and unconscious levels (Lee & Wagner, 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Mayer & Stevens, 1994; Neumann, Seibt, & Strack, 2001; Pellitteri, 2002; Walden & Smith, 1997). A person who makes a conscious habit of reflecting upon emotional experiences and regulating them cultivates emotional management skills. This is called the **meta-experience** of mood (Mayer & Stevens, 1994). The meta-experience of mood has two domains: **evaluative** and **regulatory**. The evaluative domain has four dimensions: (1) Clarity, (2) Acceptance, (3) Typicality, and (4) Influence. The evaluative domain focuses on the ability to perceive, clarify, label, monitor, and assess the influential impact of mood states on the individual. The regulatory domain has three dimensions: (1) Mood Repair, (2) Mood Dampening, and (3) Mood Maintenance (Mayer & Stevens, 1994; Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995). The regulatory domain has an action component where the individual actively engages in overt behaviors to maintain positive moods and repair negative moods (e.g., thought stopping, catharsis, goal setting, or problem solving).
Mayer and Stevens (1994) empirically compared the meta-experience of mood with existing criterion scales. A sample of 226 undergraduate students completed a 66-item meta-experience scale that measured both the evaluative and regulatory domains of meta-experience. They also completed seven criterion scales that measured various aspects of psychological and emotional functioning. These scales included: (a) Brief Mood Introspection Scale, (b) Ways of Coping Scale, (c) General Causality Orientations Scale, (d) Self-Report Borderline Scale – Revised, (e) Emotional Empathy Index, (f) Life Orientation Test, and (g) Alexithymia Scale.

Regarding the evaluative domain, the findings revealed that the Clarity and Acceptance scales positively correlated with the ability to identify and describe emotional experiences (i.e., Alexithymia subscale). Also, both the Clarity and Acceptance of mood scales were positively associated with fewer borderline characteristics and negatively associated with wishful thinking and self-blame. The Typicality scale was positively associated with the frequency of pleasant moods and also with the maintenance of those moods from the regulation domain. The mood Influence scale was positively associated with diminished mood recognition, daydreaming, and borderline-related pathology. This finding implies that when a mood is too influential, the causality shifts to an external locus of control and may lead to daydreaming thoughts to distract one's attention from the emotional experience.

Regarding the regulatory domain, the Repair scale was positively associated with positive thinking, whereas the Dampening scale was positively
associated with negative thinking. In sum, mood repair and mood dampening were two tools used by an individual to actively change his or her mood state, but in opposite directions. The Maintenance scale was positively associated with the meta-evaluation scales of Acceptance and Typicality, but was not strongly associated with any of the criterion variables. These results suggest that the evaluative and regulatory domains of meta-experience work in a sequential fashion to appraise, attach personal meaning to, and actively manage mood states to optimize long-term happiness and minimize long-term pain in an emotionally intelligent individual.

The ability to self-regulate desires and delay immediate gratification for future benefits is an important component of personal success and achievement (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Shoda, Mischel, and Peake (1990) investigated the relationship between children's delay of gratification decisions and coping skills in later life. The researchers hypothesized that a relationship existed among preschool children's delay time regarding desired objects and later life achievement and coping skills. A longitudinal study was conducted in three waves with preschool children at Stanford University. Delay of gratification behavior was measured among children with a mean age of four years, four months. Children were seated at a table with a bell and were presented with appropriate reward objects that varied in desirability (e.g., one marshmallow vs. two). After asking the child which object was preferred, the experimenter told the child that she or he had to leave the room for a short while and presented the child with a contingency. The experimenter stated that if the child waited until the
experimenter returned to the room, the child could have the preferred object. If the child could not wait until the experimenter returned, the child could ring the bell and have the less preferred object. Wait times were assessed for each child.

A follow up assessment was distributed to the parents of the children about 10 years later, when the children had a mean age of 15 years and 9 months. The parents completed a short questionnaire regarding their child's cognitive and emotional coping skills, along with the California Child Q-set (CCQ). A third wave of assessments was conducted approximately three years later, when the children completed high school with a mean age of 18 years, 3 months. The parents completed an expanded questionnaire concerning the competencies and coping skills of their child, along with a biographical information sheet. The verbal and quantitative Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores were also obtained for the participants who took the exam. Usable data from all three waves was available for 185 children.

The findings showed that the parents' ratings of their child's cognitive, self-regulatory, and emotional coping skills were all significantly predicted by the preschool delay time. Moreover, both the verbal and quantitative scores of the SAT were also significantly predicted by the child's delay time. These results add empirical value to the theory that an individual's ability to self-regulate his or her behavior correlates with later achievement and coping skills.

The ability to self-regulate one's emotional desires is important when navigating towards an important goal. Deliberate practice is a framework for understanding expert performance in terms of improving personal mastery that
results from long-term and focused practice, while controlling for the influence of
talent (Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Romer, 1993). Deliberate practice involves
engaging with maximum concentration in an individualized learning activity for an
extended period of time with the end goal of performance improvement
(Sonnentag & Kleine, 2000). Implicit within this theory is the assumption that
deliberate practice is not an inherently enjoyable task. Rather, it is seen as a
means to the goal of improved performance in a domain of interest to the
individual. Within this structure, emotionality plays a strong role in terms of an
individual’s capacity to self-regulate his or her desires for immediate gratification
in order to engage in long periods of sustained practice. This framework aligns
with Mayer and Salovey’s (1995) first component in their model of emotion
regulation. The component proposes that people can optimize their happiness by
sacrificing short-term desires for larger or more sustained long-term pleasures.
Deliberate practice, therefore, becomes a mechanism to manifest the desired
long-term result.

Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Romer (1993) empirically assessed the
theory of deliberate practice with musicians. They hypothesized that the amount
of time devoted to deliberate practice was positively associated with a musician’s
level of expertise. Current and accumulated amounts of deliberate practice were
measured at a prestigious music school for 40 musicians that were classified into
four levels of expertise: professional, excellent, very good, and amateur
musicians. Professional musicians were middle-age members of an international
level symphony, while the three other groups were students at the prestigious
music academy. The excellent musicians were identified by the instructors at the music academy as students who had the most promise of becoming a member of an international quality symphony. The very good and amateur students were technically proficient as violinists, but performed at lower levels of expertise, respectively. The student groups were matched for age and gender. Also, participants were interviewed for biographic information regarding the estimated amount of time devoted for deliberate practice since childhood. In addition, participants kept daily diaries of their actual deliberate practice for one week. Estimated accumulated practice since childhood correlated highly with the daily diaries kept by all of the groups.

The findings revealed that the current amount of deliberate practice between the professional and excellent musicians was indistinguishable. This finding makes sense since the excellent students were expected to attain professional status in time. Of particular importance was the amount of current deliberate practice among the other groups. The excellent students practiced considerably more than the good students, and almost three times more than the amateurs. Also, the professional musicians and the excellent students spent less time in leisure activities than the very good or amateur musicians. The reason for this may be that both the professional musicians and the excellent students shifted more of their available time for leisure to deliberate practice sessions than the very good or amateur students.

Similar results occurred regarding the amount of deliberate practice time accumulated throughout childhood. The amount of accumulated deliberate
practice in childhood, from four years of age through age 18, between the middle-aged professionals and the excellent music school students was not significant. The excellent music school students accumulated an average of 7,410 hours of deliberate practice by age 18. This compares with 5,301 hours of deliberate practice for the good group and 3,420 hours of deliberate practice for the amateur group. While poor controls for talent limited the robustness of this study, the results indicate that the self-regulation of emotions and behavior through deliberate practice has a significant influence on performance level.

In Others

Salovey and Mayer (1990) propose that emotional intelligence includes the ability to regulate and alter the affective reactions of others. Hatfield, Cacioppo, and Rapson (1994) identify the emotional contagion hypothesis. Hatfield et al. promulgate that emotional contagion "is best conceptualized as a multiply [italics added] determined family of psychophysiological, behavioral, and social phenomena" (p. 4). This theory means that an individual can catch another person's emotions through a complex interplay of factors that create an afferent feedback system through the unconscious motor mimicry of the sender's expressive behavior. Emotional contagion is a bi-directional phenomenon. Individuals can both transmit and be influenced by each other's emotional expressiveness (Verbeke, 1997). Doherty (1998) distinguishes between empathy and emotional contagion. Empathy is a more complex process that involves imagining oneself in the cognitive, affective, and behavioral states of another person. Emotional contagion, in contrast, is a more primitive process where one
unconsciously imitates the motor movements and affective expressions of the sender in a synchronized manner, thereby developing a confluence of emotionally congruent behavior.

Doherty (1998) investigated the emotional contagion hypothesis to assess whether a person will unconsciously mimic a sender’s emotional expressions. Doherty hypothesized that a sender’s emotional expressiveness will have an influence on the receiver’s selective exposure, attention, evaluation, and memory of emotionally charged pictures. The sender made three videotapes with the same verbal message, except for the emotional expressiveness of the sender (i.e., happy, neutral, and sad emotional expressiveness). Seventy-one undergraduate students viewed the neutral tape and rated ten pictures containing positive, negative, and ambiguous emotional expressions. The amount of time subjects took to make the ratings was measured as well. Subjects came back three weeks later and were randomly assigned to either the happy or sad video condition. After viewing the video, subjects again rated the same ten photographs and the elapsed time in making the judgments was also recorded. Finally, subjects’ recall of the photos was assessed by having them write brief descriptions of the photos in the text fields of the computer.

Findings from the experiment showed that the attention, ratings, and recall of the photographs confirmed an emotional preference of the receiver that was synchronized with the sender’s mood. A $2 \times 2 \times 2$ (Gender x Video Condition x Cue Responsiveness) between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated that participants spent more time viewing happy and sad
pictures following exposure to the happy and sad mood states of the sender, respectively. Negative affect picture viewing time was longer than positive affect picture viewing time for subjects in a sad mood. Conversely, positive affect picture viewing time was longer than negative picture viewing time for subjects in a happy mood.

Intensity ratings by participants exposed to the happy and sad sender were more positive and negative, respectively. Participants in the sad video condition rated the negative affect pictures more negatively than participants in the happy video condition. Negative affect picture ratings were more intense for subjects in a sad mood than for those subjects in a happy mood. Positive affect picture ratings were more intense for subjects in a happy mood than for those in a sad mood. Participants also recalled more pictures that were congruent with the sender's mood. Subjects in the happy video condition recalled 22% more happy than sad pictures. Subjects in the sad video condition recalled 3% more sad than happy pictures. The results support the impact of a sender's emotional expressiveness on the receiver's emotional state through unconscious mimicry and afferent feedback and suggest that exposure to even mild emotional expressions can influence affect, cognition, and behavior.

In social interactions, interpersonal sensitivity occurs through both expressive and perceptive behaviors. The expressivity hypothesis contends that interpersonal sensitivity is more dependent upon the expressive thoughts and feelings communicated in the social interaction. In contrast, the perceptivity hypothesis proposes that interpersonal sensitivity is more dependent upon a
person's accurate perception of another person's thoughts and feelings. In addition, perceived status roles can influence the interpersonal sensitivity process (Snodgrass, Hecht, & Ploutz-Snyder, 1998). Leaders tend to exhibit more expressive behavior, whereas subordinates tend to exhibit more perceptive behavior. Snodgrass, Hecht, and Ploutz-Snyder (1998) investigated the relative influence of both constructs on social interaction. In addition, tacit leadership roles were also examined to assess their impact on expressive and perceptive behavior.

The researchers hypothesized that expressive behavior would have a greater influence on social interaction than perceptive behavior, with perceived status as a moderating variable. A between-groups design was employed where 188 participants were randomly paired into dyads. Prior to the experiment, participants completed a bogus leadership potential questionnaire and were given artificial results regarding their leadership potential. One partner in the dyad was told that he or she had high leadership potential (treatment group), while the other partner was told that he or she had average leadership potential (control group). Participants did not discuss the results of their leadership potential questionnaire results with each other. Participants were then asked to interact and rank order their preferences among 10 choices of how a large amount of money donated to the university should be spent. Participants' behavior was videotaped and later analyzed and rated by trained observers. In addition, each participant completed a questionnaire that measured how he or she felt about the other person in the dyad, how he or she felt about himself or
herself, and also how each person thought that the other person felt about him or her.

An ANOVA analysis showed that expressivity had a significantly greater influence on the social interaction than did perceptivity. In addition, perceived leadership roles influenced interpersonal behavior. People who perceived themselves as having greater leadership potential tended to be more expressive in their feelings and thoughts about the other person and less expressive concerning themselves. People who perceived themselves with average leadership potential, in contrast, tended to be more expressive in what they felt and thought about themselves and less expressive about the perceived leader.

The findings were especially interesting because both the treatment and control group participants did not discuss their leadership potential results with each other before the ranking activity. Apparently, through complementarity, the treatment and control group participants communicated to each other through expressive and perceptive signals their perceived expectations regarding leadership and subordinate roles in relation to the task at hand. Complementarity means that each person's behavior in the interpersonal interaction restricted or educed each other's behavior until an unconscious match occurred. As a result, perceived leadership and subordinate roles became reified. Moreover, the pattern of affective sensitivities regarding the roles occurred even when the participants were unaware of any status roles at all, which illustrates the power of expressivity and perceptivity on an unconscious level.
Emotion also plays an important role in the regulation of others through charisma. Verbeke (1997) defines charisma as a high ability to transmit emotions to others while also having a high capability to be sensitive to the emotions given off by others. Wasielewski (1985) hypothesizes that charisma is the result of an emotional exchange between leaders and followers and posits a model of charismatic leadership involving the evoking, revoking, and reframing of emotion to establish social change. Charismatic leaders evoke emotion when they accurately perceive what the group is collectively feeling and thinking. They articulate these feelings and thoughts in order to gain legitimacy as a leader and also to develop cohesiveness among the group members. The charismatic leader in effect becomes an exemplar of the emotions felt by the group members. Charismatic leaders next revoke the existing feelings among the group members to create an affective dissidence within the existing social order. An example of this occurred when Martin Luther King, Jr. channeled the existing feelings of frustration and anger among African Americans into a united nonviolent desire to change inequities in the existing social order in the United States during the 1960s, rather than turning to violence to express the group’s feelings of rage and frustration.

The last stage in charismatic leadership is to reframe the emotion of the group in order to achieve social change. In this stage, the charismatic leader introduces new meaning structures and paradigms to reframe existing emotions to achieve a shared vision. Reframing emotions can give followers a heuristic to direct their emotional energy for positive growth and change. Martin Luther King,
Jr. accomplished this when he reframed his group’s feelings of rage into feelings of righteousness because they were seeking social justice. In order for a charismatic leader to be effective, he or she must balance both emotion and logic in achieving social change. For the charismatic, power results from first articulating and emphasizing the felt emotion among the group members, then logic to define a new social order paradigm. In addition, the charismatic leader must convincingly display or model the emotional behavior needed to effect the changes desired by the group.

Utilization of Emotion

Flexible Planning

Individuals with a high degree of emotional intelligence are able to manage their emotions to have flexibility in the way that they construct their life plans. Salovey and Mayer (1990) put forward that the valence of emotions one experiences has a direct influence on the estimation of future event occurrences. In addition, Salovey and Mayer assert, “People in good moods perceive positive events as more likely and negative events as less likely to occur and that the reverse holds true for people in unpleasant moods” (1990, p. 199).

Schwarz (2000) proposes that an individual’s emotional state has an influence concerning the choice of information processing strategy employed. Individuals have a higher probability of accessing information from memory that matches rather than conflicts with their present feelings. Moreover, people who are in a happy affective state are more likely to utilize a top-down method to process information and problem solving, where heuristics and pre-existing
knowledge structures are accessed in order to process information. Relatively little attention is given to the discrete facts of the current situation. In contrast, individuals in sad moods are more likely to employ a bottom-up processing strategy that depends little on pre-existing knowledge structures and attention is mostly directed to the discrete facts of the current situation. People in negative moods, therefore, base their decision making by focusing more extensively on one detail at a time. Schwarz also states that individuals use their current feelings as an informational context in which judgments are constructed.

Two approaches predominate the literature in the study of affect and judgment. These two approaches are the valence and appraisal-tendency theories (Lerner & Keltner, 2000). According to valence theory, negative feelings lead to negative judgments. This theory predicts that two negatively valenced emotions, such as fear and anger, will determine similar negative judgments concerning a situation. In contrast, the appraisal-tendency theory posits that an emotion's underlying appraisal theme will determine its impact on ensuing judgments. In the preceding example, the appraisal theme defining fear is uncertainty and situational control. The appraisal-tendency theory predicts that people experiencing fear will make pessimistic risk judgments concerning the outcome of a situation. In contrast, the appraisal theme defining anger is certainty and situational control. As a result, appraisal-tendency theory predicts that angry people instead will make relatively optimistic risk judgments concerning the outcome of a situation.
Lerner and Keltner (2000) empirically compared the valence and appraisal-tendency approaches. The researchers hypothesized that a valence approach would produce judgments that were congruent with the particular emotional valence (e.g., positive or negative emotion sets). In contrast, the appraisal-tendency approach was hypothesized to produce differential judgments based on the appraisal theme underlying the specific emotion. A sample of 97 participants completed a Self-Evaluation Questionnaire (SEQ), which measured baseline state and dispositional emotions in relation to fear and anger. After completing the SEQ, participants completed a second questionnaire, the Perception Risk Questionnaire (PRQ), which assessed the perceived risk to 12 events that lead to a certain number of deaths each year in the United States (e.g., brain cancer, strokes, floods). Participants were asked to estimate the number of annual deaths as a result of each event. Multiple regression analysis revealed that fear was positively related to perceived risk. Conversely, anger was negatively related to perceived risk. These findings were consistent for both dispositional and state emotions. Similarly, the findings were also consistent across gender. These findings supported the appraisal-tendency approach over the valence approach.

Other researchers prefer the valence approach. Wegener, Petty, and Klein (1994) examined the effect of mood on attitude change when the likelihood of the message elaboration was relatively high using a valence approach. The researchers hypothesized that mood had a direct effect on likelihood judgments, and likelihood judgments, in turn, had a direct impact on attitude change.
(i.e., likelihood was a mediating variable). People in positive moods were predicted to perceive positively framed arguments with a greater likelihood of occurrence and therefore have a more favorable attitude towards the positively framed message than people in negative moods. Conversely, people in negative moods were predicted to perceive negatively framed arguments with a greater likelihood of occurrence and therefore have a more favorable attitude towards the negatively framed message than people in positive moods.

Participants were randomly assigned to a $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$ (Mood: positive, negative x Need for Cognition: high, low x Argument Frame: positive, negative x Message Order: exam/service, service/exam x Question Order: likelihood first, desirability first x Message Topic: comprehensive exams, university service) mixed design with the first five factors as between-subjects factors and the message topic as a within-subjects factor. Participants viewed a ten-minute videotape designed to induce either a positive or negative mood. Participants then read either a persuasive message regarding the need for implementing a university service program or a message regarding the need for implementing a comprehensive exam. The messages were framed either positively or negatively. Participants then responded to attitude, likelihood, and desirability questions regarding the message. Subjects next read a short article to bolster their originally induced positive or negative mood. Subjects then received the message that was not given to them in the first treatment, but the emotional framing of this message was the same frame as the first message.
Again, participants answered attitude, likelihood, and desirability questions regarding the message.

An ANOVA analysis indicated that when the Need for Cognition (NC) was high, a significant three-way interaction occurred. A Mood x Frame x NC interaction occurred. When the arguments were framed positively, positive moods led to more favorable attitudes towards the message than negative moods. When the arguments were framed negatively, negative moods led to more favorable attitudes towards the message than positive moods. No significant findings were found for subjects with a low NC. Moreover, there was no direct effect of mood on attitudes. A path analysis using LISREL VII showed that mood had a significant effect on likelihood judgments, and likelihood judgments in turn influenced attitudes. Wegener, Petty, and Klein (1994) concluded that the perceived likelihood judgment of a result was a mediating variable between mood and attitude formation. Schwarz (2000) suggested that all decisions involve the prediction of future feelings and proposed that emotions and decision making share a bi-directional relationship. While emotions can influence the decision that is made, the outcome of the decision itself can significantly affect one's feelings.

**Creative Thinking**

Salovey and Mayer (1990) posit that mood aids problem solving in terms of its influence on the arrangement and utilization of information in memory. They claim, "Individuals may find it easier to categorize features of problems as being related or unrelated while they experience positive mood" (Salovey & Mayer,
1990, p. 199). Isen, Daubman, and Nowicki (1987) investigated the theory that positive affect can promote creative problem solving. In an investigation of 116 participants, the researchers hypothesized that positive affect had a facilitative effect on the ability to solve a problem creatively. Alternatively, the researchers hypothesized that the conditions of negative affect, neutral affect, no manipulation, and arousal with no affective content had no significant effect on creative problem solving. Participants were induced into one of the following conditions: (a) positive mood, (b) negative mood, (c) neutral mood, (d) arousal condition, or (e) control condition. The creative problem-solving task involved identifying a book of matches, a box of tacks, and a candle on a table. Above the table on the wall was a corkboard. Participants were instructed to attach the candle to the corkboard in such a way so that the candle would burn without wax dripping onto the table or the floor beneath it. Participants were given a maximum of ten minutes to solve the problem.

The results showed that participants in the positive affective state performed significantly better at finding a creative solution to the candle task than participants in all of the other comparison conditions combined. Isen, Daubman, and Nowicki (1987) concluded that positive affect should be thought of as influencing the way in which information is processed, rather than increasing the amount of capacity present. The findings suggest that creativity can be assisted by a pleasant affective state because accessing positive feelings may facilitate the ability to bring together information in new paradigms and assist the construction of new connections between disparate stimuli. This occurs because
the experience of positive feelings manifests a nonspecific attention and thereby generates a matrix in which a larger range of possibilities and understandings are facilitated. The larger range of possibilities and understandings generates attentiveness to more characteristics of the information and increases the likelihood of joining these idiosyncratic elements in new ways.

Adaman and Blaney (1995) partially support Isen et al. (1987) findings. Similar to Isen et al., Adaman and Blaney hypothesized that people in positive moods would display greater levels of creativity than individuals in either a negative or neutral mood. A total of 71 participants were induced into positive, negative, or control moods by listening to appropriate musical selections. Creativity was measured with the Torrence Tests of Creative Thinking (TTCT), which has well-established construct and concurrent validity for assessing divergent thinking. Creative responses were scored for creative fluency (i.e., total number of relevant responses), originality (i.e., how unusual the response is compared to established norms), and flexibility (i.e., the number of different categories represented).

Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) and Pearson correlation coefficients were used to analyze the data. The results showed that both the positive and negative mood groups had significantly higher creativity scores than the control group, partially confirming the researchers' hypothesis. No significant differences occurred between the positive and negative mood groups. Pearson correlation coefficients were also calculated between absolute mood change scores and the creativity scores. Pearson rs for fluency and flexibility in creativity

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were statistically significant, while originality approached significance at the 0.05 level. These results suggest that it may not be either positive or negative moods per se that facilitate creativity, but rather strong emotions in either direction. While Adaman and Blaney (1995) and Isen et al. (1987) studies may have produced different results, both identify a relationship between emotions and creativity.

Averill (1999) theoretically and empirically identified a relationship between emotions and creative thinking, which was named emotional creativity. Averill hypothesized that the appraisal, regulation, and utilization of emotion was related to creative thinking. Using the Emotional Creativity Inventory (ECI) on a sample of 489 participants, Averill identified a number of components concerning emotional creativity. These components include preparedness, novelty, effectiveness, and authenticity. Preparedness involves the wisdom gained from the appraisals of one's own and other people's emotional experiences. Novelty involves the capacity to come into contact with irregular emotional experiences. Authenticity involves the ability to be congruent regarding the experience and expression of an emotion, while effectiveness refers to the ability to communicate emotions deftly. These emotional components work in concert to facilitate creative thinking. In addition, Averill also found positive associations between emotional creativity and important aspects of emotional intelligence, including emotional awareness, self-control, coping, and problem-solving strategies.
Redirected Attention

Emotions play an important role in redirecting an individual’s attention towards a personally meaningful purpose or goal. Salovey and Mayer posit, “Individuals learn to capitalize on the capacity of emotional processes to refocus attention on the most important stimuli in their environment” (1990, p. 199). Emotions, if appraised, regulated, and utilized in a positive manner, can serve to marshal an individual’s resources and attention towards the attainment of a personally meaningful goal.

Bagozzi, Baumgartner, and Pieters (1998) investigated the significance of emotions in goal-directed behavior. The researchers developed an emotional goal system model and empirically tested it in a longitudinal panel study. The model proposed that a goal situation gives rise to an appraisal of the possibility of either achieving or not achieving a goal. This appraisal manifests anticipatory emotions that influence an individual’s volitions to pursue the goal. Volitions consist of intentions, plans, and the decision to expend energy. Instrumental behaviors flow from one’s volitions to actively achieve the goal. Success or failure in achieving the goal facilitates goal-outcome emotions. These emotions serve as a reference point for the future appraisal of the possibility of achieving or failing at a future goal, especially in regards to constructed anticipatory emotions.

Bagozzi, Baumgartner, and Pieters (1998) empirically assessed the model of goal-directed emotions in a longitudinal study concerning losing or maintaining body weight in adult men and women. The panel study was conducted with 406
adults (243 women and 163 men) in the Netherlands and was carried out in two waves of questions spaced four weeks apart. Respondents who answered in the first wave of questions that they intended to lose or maintain their current weight over the following four weeks were included in the analysis. Questions were asked to assess bodyweight goals, anticipatory emotions, frequency of emotions, volitions, behavior, goal attainment, and goal-outcome emotions.

A path analysis using LISREL 8 was developed that estimated the structural parameters regarding the role of emotions in goal-directed behavior. The findings showed that when a goal was contemplated to lose or maintain a certain amount of bodyweight, participants reacted to this achievement possibility with well-defined positive or negative anticipatory emotions. The anticipatory emotions had a direct influence on subsequent volitions to achieve the weight management goals. These volitions consisted of intentions, plans, and the decision to expend energy in pursuit of the goal. The paths from positive anticipatory emotions to dieting volitions and exercising volitions were positive and significant. The path from negative anticipatory emotions to dieting volitions was negative and very significant, while the path from negative anticipatory emotions to exercising volitions was also negative but only marginally significant. These results indicated that the more intense a person's positive (or negative) emotional response was to a goal success (or failure), the greater (or less) the effort was to develop intentions, plans, and energy expenditure to achieve the goal.
Volitions contributed to the instrumental behaviors of exercising or dieting. Dieting volitions were significantly related to dieting behaviors and exercising volitions were significantly related to exercising behaviors. The intensity of the instrumental behaviors strongly influenced the degree of goal attainment. Surprisingly, the results were even more enlightening if broken down by gender. Women who dieted more were more likely to lose weight while men who exercised more were more likely to lose weight. These gender-based discrepancies for dieting and exercise behavior may be influenced by social norms and expectations, although no evidence supporting this explanation was found in the data.

Goal attainment facilitated the development of goal-outcome emotions. The relationship between goal attainment and positive-outcome emotions was stronger for participants who wanted to lose weight than for participants who desired to maintain their current weight. One other interesting finding was the relationship between anticipatory emotions and goal-outcome emotions. Positive anticipatory emotions were directly related to positive goal-outcome emotions. Likewise, negative anticipatory emotions were directly related to negative goal-outcome emotions. It appears that one's emotional estimation (i.e., positive or negative) of the success or failure of a goal is directly related to the emotional state following the actual achievement or failure of the goal.

A significant limitation of the methodology used included the use of self-report items, whereby no objective assessment of the respondents' actions or outcomes was possible. The researchers, however, do not claim a causal
relationship, but rather a correlational relationship among the data. The results,
moreover, contribute prima facie evidence to the role that emotions play in the
formation, execution, and evaluation of goal-directed behaviors.

Carver and Scheier (1990) proposed a model that relates affect and goals.
Within this model, goals serve to redirect an individual's attention from his or her
actual situation to a desired situation. When individuals assess that they are
satisfactorily achieving or already have achieved their goal, they tend to
experience positive feelings (e.g., hope, joy, enthusiasm, elation). When
individuals assess that they have either failed at or have not made satisfactory
progress towards their goal, they tend to experience negative feelings
(e.g., anxiety, fear, disconsolate behavior). These manifested feelings, whether
positive or negative, are context sensitive and related to the personal meaning of
the achievement process. Affect, therefore, serves as a metamonitoring process,
which provides information in reference to how well the discrepancy in goal
attainment is minimized. Social comparison and personal memories of past
results in comparable circumstances also become factored into the
metamonitoring process when evaluating goal attainment expectancies. The
emotional valence of the expectancies serve as a guiding force as to whether an
individual continues to expend energy in the pursuit of the goal or disengages
from it. External information may be selectively processed in the direction of the
metamonitoring emotions. Behavioral adjustments will result based on the
selective processing of emotional information provided in the metamonitoring
process.
The manner in which a goal is framed can have an important influence on the goal's outcome. Self-discrepancy theory suggests that a discrepancy between an individual's actual self and ideal self (e.g., ambitions, dreams, desires, or expectations) produces feelings of dissatisfaction that culminates in dejection-related emotions. Alternatively, a discrepancy between an individual's actual self and ought self (e.g., onus, fealty, or obedience) produces feelings of nervousness and tenseness, which culminates in a classification of agitation-related emotions (Carver & Scheier, 1990; Roney, Higgins, & Shah, 1995). This theory flows from the hypothesis that ideal goals imply the presence or absence of a positive outcome focus and ought goals imply the presence or absence of a negative outcome focus. Ideal-directed people function out of a desire to succeed in a task that produces a feeling of pride in accomplishment and helps shape a sense of personal meaning. As a result, their focus is to move toward the benefits of the goal from an approach orientation (Elliot & Church, 1997; Roney et al., 1995). In contrast, ought-directed individuals function out of a fear of failure orientation with a resulting feeling of shame. Therefore, they move away from the negative costs from not achieving the goal in an avoidance orientation (Elliot & Church, 1997; Roney et al., 1995).

Roney, Higgins, and Shah (1995) investigated the influence of goal framing on emotional outcomes. They hypothesized that individuals who completed a task framed in a positive outcome perspective would experience greater changes in dejection-related emotions than agitation-related emotions.
Conversely, it was hypothesized that individuals who completed a task framed in a negative outcome perspective would experience greater changes in agitation-related emotions than dejection-related emotions. A sample of 42 participants was randomly divided into either a positive or negative outcome focus condition. Next, all participants completed the exact same set of anagrams, with only the framing focus being different in a between-groups design. Participants' emotions were assessed both during and after the task. The results indicated that participants in the positively framed situation showed greater changes in dejection-related emotions, while participants in the negatively framed situation experienced greater changes in agitation-related emotions. The findings suggest that the framing orientation of a goal can influence the concurrent emotions one experiences in the pursuit of the goal, thereby impacting whether one behaves by moving toward a desire to succeed or acts out of a fear of failure.

In addition to framing, affective motive dispositions interact with goals to influence emotional outcomes. Motive dispositions are emotionally charged motivational proclivities, inherent and unique to each individual, which instinctively respond to stimuli that are linked to feelings of enjoyment and fulfillment. Goals serve to redirect an individual's attention towards the fulfillment of the preferred motive by linking the internal desire to an individual's perception of environmental opportunities available to reduce the discrepancy between an individual's actual and ideal life situation. Motive dispositions are shaped by early life experiences and are generally unconscious to most people, but are enduring
preferences. Four classes of motive dispositions include power, achievement, affiliation, and intimacy. Brunstein, Schultheiss, and Grassmann (1998) investigated the interactive role that goals and motive dispositions play in relation to emotional well-being. In their goal-achievement-motive-satisfaction hypothesis, they predicted that goals congruent with an individual's underlying motive disposition preferences would result in higher levels of emotional well-being than individuals with motive incongruent-goals. A sample of 98 undergraduate students was assessed for their underlying motive dispositions and baseline emotional well-being. In addition, they also completed two subscales of the NEO Five-Factor Inventory to control for neuroticism and extraversion. Next, they identified two agentic and two communal goals that they planned to achieve or were currently achieving. Finally, the participants completed a mood-adjective checklist twice per day, every two days, over a 12-day period.

Hierarchical regression was used to analyze the data. The results indicated that the goals aligned with the individual’s underlying motive disposition preference (e.g., agentic or communal) were positively associated with emotional well-being. Moreover, goals that were incongruent with an individual’s underlying motive disposition preference were negatively associated with emotional well-being. These findings point to the relationship between emotional well-being and motive-congruent goals. In a subsequent longitudinal study involving 127 undergraduate students over a semester time period, Brunstein et al. (1998) also found that an interaction between the level of goal commitment and goal attainability mediated the relationship between progress on motive-congruent
goals and changes in students' perceptions of emotional well-being over the length of a semester term. Emotional well-being, therefore, appears strongly related to the type of goal chosen, which has important implications for sustained motivation to achieve those goals.

**Motivation**

Salovey and Mayer (1990) contend that moods play an important role in motivating an individual to persist and persevere through challenges and setbacks. Affect occupies a central position in motivation. Elliot & Church (1997, p. 228) assert, "Achievement goals are construed as ‘focused needs,’ the ‘concretized’ channels through which achievement motivation and fear of failure exert their influence on achievement-relevant behavior.” The desire to succeed and the fear of not succeeding are elements of emotion that bear a strong influence on motivation.

Weiner (1985) connects emotion and achievement motivation through causal attributions. The *attributinal theory of motivation and emotion* posits that emotional reactions and expectancy estimates mediate causal attributions and motivation. According to the theory, when an individual experiences a goal outcome, a motivational sequence is set in motion. A corresponding affect accompanies the outcome and has a considerable effect on consequent motivation. If the outcome is successful, the individual experiences positive emotions (e.g., happiness, pride). If the outcome is unsuccessful, the individual experiences corresponding negative emotions (e.g., sadness, frustration). As a
result of the outcome and emotional reaction, the individual seeks to ascribe causal antecedents for the outcome.

Causes can include dynamics such as effort or ability and are framed within three causal dimensions. These dimensions are: (1) **locus of causality**, (2) **stability**, and (3) **controllability**. Locus of causality refers to an individual ascribing the reason for the success or failure to attain a goal to internal or external causes, which in turn exerts an influence on mood, self-efficacy, and self-esteem. Stability determines whether an individual believes that the cause for the success or the failure to attain a goal is changeable or unchangeable and this attribution shapes subsequent feelings of hope or despair, respectively. Finally, controllability refers to the perceived power the individual has in effecting change, which has an impact on feelings of pride, guilt, or shame. The causal dimensions attributed to the goal outcome influence expectancy estimates of future achievements. These expectancy estimates directly influence future decisions of whether or not to expend energy to attain a new goal. Weiner concludes, “Although causal ascriptions do not influence the objective properties of goal objects, they do determine or guide emotional reactions, or the subjective consequences of goal attainment” (1985, p. 559).

Elliot and Church (1997) integrated classical and contemporary approaches to achievement motivation and empirically tested the model in a college setting. Achievement motivation orients an individual towards the possibility of success. The **hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation** has three types of achievement goals: (1) **mastery goals**,
(2) **performance-approach goals**, and (3) **performance-avoidance goals**. Mastery goals focus on the attainment of competence and task mastery. Performance-approach goals are undergirded by both approach (i.e., achievement motivation) and avoidance (i.e., fear of failure) motive dispositions. Performance-avoidance goals are undergirded by a fear of failure motive disposition. The focus of performance-avoidance goals is the avoidance of negative outcomes.

Achievement goals have two antecedents and two consequences. The two antecedents include motive dispositions (i.e., achievement motivation and fear of failure) and competence expectancies. Competence expectancies are an independent antecedent of achievement goals. The two consequences of achievement goals are intrinsic motivation and graded performance.

The hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation was applied in a college environment. The sample consisted of 204 (82 male and 122 female) undergraduate students who participated in the investigation, with a mean age of 20.01 years. The study assessed the hypothesized antecedents (i.e., motive dispositions and competence expectancies) and consequences (i.e., intrinsic motivation and graded performance) of mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goal adoption. Path analyses were conducted on both the antecedents and consequences of achievement goals. Results were combined into a general path model.

Each of the three achievement goals was independently regressed on the antecedent model. Participants high in achievement motivation as well those with
high competence expectancies were most likely to adopt a mastery goal orientation. Participants with a high fear of failure and low competence expectancies were most likely to adopt a performance-avoidance orientation. Finally, participants with a high achievement motivation, high fear of failure, and high competence expectancies were most likely to adopt a performance-approach orientation. Both intrinsic motivation and graded performance were regressed on the consequences model. Mastery goal adoption led to enhanced intrinsic motivation but had no statistically significant effect on graded performance. Adoption of a performance-avoidance goal orientation had deleterious consequences for both intrinsic motivation and graded performance. Adoption of performance-approach goals led to better graded performance but had no statistically significant effect on intrinsic motivation. These results identify a relationship between motivation and performance.

Emotions interact with goals to have an impact on motivation (Bagozzi, Baumgartner, & Pieters, 1998; Carver & Scheier, 1990; Roney, Higgins, & Shah, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Weiner, 1985). In addition, the nature of the evaluation of goal attainment may also influence motivation. Individuals who know that they cannot be individually evaluated often put forth less effort than those who know that they will be evaluated, which is known as social loafing (Sanna, Turley, & Mark, 1996).

Sanna, Turley, and Mark (1996) examined how emotions interact with goals under circumstances of evaluation to produce relative levels of motivation, persistence, and effort. They hypothesized that when individuals were asked to
produce as many uses as they could for an object, those in a negative mood would exert more energy and persevere longer than those in a positive mood. When asked to continue producing uses for an object as long as they still enjoyed it, individuals in a positive mood were hypothesized to exert more effort and persevere longer than those in a negative mood. Finally, it was hypothesized that participants in an evaluation condition would produce more uses for an object than participants in a non-evaluation condition.

A 3 x 2 x 2 (Mood: positive, negative, control) x (Goal: many as can, feel like continuing) x 2 (Evaluation: yes, no) between-subjects factorial design was employed with 197 college students. Participants were induced into positive, negative, or control moods. Next, they were given an object (e.g., knife) and asked to produce possible uses for the object. Participants in the as many as can condition were instructed to continue to produce possible uses until they no longer were able to complete the task. Participants in the feel like continuing condition were instructed to continue to produce uses for the object until they no longer felt like continuing with the task. Finally, one group of participants was told that they would be individually evaluated on the number of uses produced for the object. The other group was informed that individual performance would not be evaluated.

The results showed that when asked to produce as many uses as possible, participants in a negative mood exerted more energy and persevered longer than those in either a positive or control mood. Conversely, when asked to continue with the goal until it was no longer enjoyable, participants in a positive
mood exerted more energy and persevered longer than those in either a negative or control mood. The evaluation conditions per se showed no significant differences in persistence. However, when the participants in the positive mood who were asked to produce as many uses as possible were compared to those in a negative mood who were asked to carry on until they no longer received pleasure from the assignment, participants in the non-evaluated situation accomplished significantly less than the participants in the evaluated situation, which partially supported the social loafing hypothesis. Taken together, these findings suggest that emotions interact with goals and evaluation circumstances to serve as input into motivation and persistence levels.

In a follow-up study to their examination concerning goals and framing, Roney, Higgins, and Shah (1995) examined the influence of framing the feedback concerning the attainment or non-attainment of a goal on motivation and persistence. They hypothesized that individuals who received task accomplishment or failure feedback in a positive outcome frame would be more successful and persist longer than individuals who experienced negative outcome framing feedback for the same task. A sample of 59 participants completed a brief emotion questionnaire to control for baseline emotional states. Next, they were randomly assigned to one of two conditions: a positive or negative emotional feedback condition. Participants in both conditions then completed the exact same anagrams with the only difference being in the positive or negative framing of the feedback received from either accomplishing or not accomplishing the task. Participants then completed another emotion
questionnaire and a second set of anagrams with no feedback, this time to assess the residual motivational effects from the first task set. The results showed that participants receiving feedback in the positively framed feedback condition solved more anagrams and persisted longer in task behavior than the group that received the feedback in a negatively framed perspective.

Optimism and pessimism are two motivational constructs that are related to mood (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995; Schutte et al., 1998). Optimism involves the proclivity to anticipate and move toward positive life outcomes. Pessimism involves the tendency to exhibit helplessness deficits or quit when anticipating or confronting negative life experiences (Marshall et al., 1992, Peterson, 2000). An optimistic explanatory style accrues to individuals who explain the nature of negative events with external, changeable, and precise causes (Peterson, 2000). Conversely, a pessimistic explanatory style attributes negative life events to internal, stable, and global causes (Peterson, 2000; Seligman & Schulman, 1986). Optimism and pessimism involve both cognitive and emotional components and are highly related to motivation (Peterson, 2000). Moreover, optimism has been linked with good mood, perseverance, problem solving, achievement, and physical health. In contrast, pessimism has been linked with depression, passivity, failure, social estrangement, morbidity, and mortality (Peterson, 2000).

Marshall, Wortman, Kusulas, Hervig, and Vickers (1992) investigated the structure of optimism and pessimism and their relationships with dimensions of emotional states and personality. They hypothesized that optimism and
pessimism were two separate, but interrelated constructs. In addition, they hypothesized that optimism was positively associated with positive emotional states and extraversion, while pessimism was positively associated with negative emotional states and neuroticism. Two samples of navy recruits (N = 289 and 489) who went through basic military training were assessed. Subjects completed the Life Orientation Test (LOT) and the Hopelessness Scale (HS) to measure levels of optimism or pessimism. Neuroticism and extraversion were measured with the NEO Personality Inventory. Positive and negative affect were measured through the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule. Covariance structure modeling and chi-square difference tests revealed that optimism and pessimism were two separate, but interrelated constructs. Further analysis of the data showed that optimism was positively associated with positive affect and extraversion, while pessimism was positively associated with negative affect and neuroticism.

Emotional Intelligence and Other Variables

Gender

Research concerning emotional intelligence and gender has produced mixed conclusions. Schutte (1998) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and gender. The researchers hypothesized that women would have a higher emotional intelligence than men. A sample of 329 participants completed the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, which consisted of 218 women and 111 men. Results showed that the women scored significantly higher on the emotional intelligence measure than did the men. Averill (1999) underscored
these findings. A sample of 331 women and 153 men completed the Emotional Creativity Inventory (ECI). The findings showed that, compared to men, women put more effort into attending to their emotions, were more sensitive to the emotions of others, and were more accurate in their expression of emotion. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) uncovered comparable outcomes. They administered the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) to 503 adults, consisting of 333 women and 164 men. The findings revealed that women had, on average, higher emotional intelligence scores than did the men. Ciarrochi, Chan, and Caputi (2000) confirmed these results. They administered the MEIS to 134 undergraduate psychology students, consisting of 103 women and 31 men, and found that women performed higher than men on the overall emotional intelligence scale.

McConathia, Leone, and Armstrong (1997) examined the relationship between gender and emotional control. They hypothesized that women had greater emotional appraisal, expressiveness, and control than men. A sample of 198 women and 129 men completed the Emotion Control Questionnaire (ECQ), which measured the tendency to express or inhibit emotions and the EAS Temperament Survey for Adults (EAS), which measured general temperamental predispositions to experience certain emotions. The findings partially supported the hypotheses. Controlling for education, income, and marital status, analysis of variance techniques found that women scored better on the Aggression Control, Emotional Inhibition, and Sociability scales than did the men, but worse on the Fearfulness and Distress scales. These results suggested that women and men
might score differentially on emotional intelligence measures based on the aspects that are assessed.

Dawda and Hart (2000) obtained different results. They hypothesized that no differences in emotional intelligence would result between women and men. Using a much larger and more balanced sample of 125 women and 118 men, the 243 participants completed the Bar-On measure of emotional intelligence. The findings revealed no significant differences for either the emotional intelligence total score or the emotional intelligence composite scales between women and men.

Petrides and Furnham's (2000) investigation of emotional intelligence and gender confirmed Dawda and Hart's findings. The investigators hypothesized that women would have a higher emotional intelligence than men. A sample of 175 female and 85 male participants completed the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ). The hypothesis was not supported. The results showed no significant differences between females and males concerning overall emotional intelligence.

Ethnicity and Culture

Cultural experiences have an influence on emotions. Salacuse (1998, p.222) defines culture as “the socially transmitted behavior patterns, norms, beliefs, and values of a given community.” McConatha, Lightner, and Deaner (1994) discuss primary and secondary emotions in relation to culture. A primary emotion is primarily physiological in nature and common to the human experience. Fear and anger are two examples of primary emotions. Secondary
emotions evolve in relation to the sociocultural environment and can vary across cultures. Examples of secondary emotions include pride, guilt, and shame. McConatha, Leone, and Armstrong (1997) posit that cultural values and norms influence the manifestation and continuance of definite emotions. Cultural feeling rules shape a person's internal interpretation of the self, others, and the environment while display rules influence which emotions become expressed. Moreover, both display and feeling rules are influenced by social roles and norms.

McConatha, Lightner, and Deaner (1994) examined the impact of both culture and race on the expression and regulation of emotions. They hypothesized that both cultural background and race would vary in relation to the expression and regulation of emotions. A sample of 130 American and 244 British college students completed the Emotional Control Questionnaire (ECQ2). Caucasian, African, and Asian races were also assessed in the study. The data, analyzed with ANOVA techniques, did not support the hypothesis regarding race. The results showed no significant differences among the races concerning the expression and regulation of emotion. Regarding the hypothesis on culture, the results were mixed. Both the Americans and British showed similarities in their overall expression and regulation of emotion. On a molecular level, the American sample tended to inhibit emotional expression more than the British, except for the expression of feelings of aggression or hostility. These findings are consistent with the theory of primary and secondary emotions. While particular to various cultures, these differential displays and experiences of emotions still fall under
the general rubric of emotional intelligence, which is common to the human condition. Cialdini (2001b) advances, "The citizens of the world are human, after all, and susceptible to the fundamental tendencies that characterize all members of our species. Cultural norms, traditions and experiences can, however, modify the weight brought to bear by each factor" (p. 81).

McConatha, et al. (1994) findings of no significant differences regarding race and the expression and regulation of emotion adds an important contribution to the study of emotional intelligence. An important set of findings, however, concerning emotions and race comes not from the racial background of the individual, but rather from people of different races who make stereotypical judgments about that individual. Park and Banaji (2000) investigated the influence of positive moods on stereotypic judgments. They hypothesized that people in a positive mood would produce more false stereotypic associations than people in a neutral mood. A 2 x 2 x 2 (Mood: positive, negative; Target Race: African American, European; Task: criminal judgment, politician) factorial design was employed with 58 undergraduate students. Participants were induced into either a positive or neutral mood and then were presented with two different name lists (i.e., African American and European). They were instructed to judge whether each name was more likely to be associated with being a criminal or politician.

ANOVA techniques found positive mood strongly influenced stereotyping. Specifically, participants in the positive mood condition associated twice as many African American names with being criminals than European names. The
converse was true for the occupation of politician. A possible reason for this phenomenon may be that positive mood produces a defocused attention, which facilitates the use of heuristics rather than metacognitive thought when accessing information from memory (Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Esses and Zanna (1995) also discovered a relationship between mood and stereotypes, but it involved negative mood instead of positive mood. They hypothesized that mood would influence both the accessibility of stereotypes from memory and the interpretative categories attached to those stereotypes. In a series of four experiments, participants were induced into either a positive, negative, or neutral mood state. Participants were then asked to provide descriptions for six ethnic groups and also assign an emotional valence to those descriptions through an open-ended procedure designed to secure spontaneous and authentic responses. Participants’ own cultural background and demographic information was controlled for in the experiment. The results showed that people in a negative mood produced the most negative stereotypes and attached more valence to those stereotypes than subjects in either the positive or neutral mood. These findings suggest that individuals may be more influenced to make judgments that are congruent with their current emotional state.

Both Esses and Zanna’s (1995) and Park and Banaji’s (2000) findings highlight the influence of mood on ethnic stereotypes, but from the vantage point of the judge. McConatha et al. (1994) findings, however, reveal that the ethnicity
of the individual does not have an impact regarding the expression and regulation of emotion.

**Age**

McConatha et al. (1997) suggest that people gain an increased understanding of the context of their emotional situations as they age and have also learned to better regulate their emotional experiences. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) examined this theory. They hypothesized that emotional intelligence increases with age. The hypothesis was tested by having similar samples of adults \((N = 503)\) and adolescents \((N = 229)\) complete the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). The findings showed that adults performed at higher levels than adolescents in terms of emotion perception, assimilation, understanding, and management.

McConatha et al. (1997) examined the relationship between age and emotional control. They hypothesized that emotional control increases throughout adulthood. A sample of 327 adults, ranging from 19 to 92 years in age, completed two emotion measures. The Emotion Control Questionnaire (ECQ) measured the tendency to express or inhibit emotions. The EAS Temperament Survey for Adults (EAS) measured general temperamental predispositions to experience certain emotions. During analysis, participants were divided into three age groups: (1) 19 – 35 years, (2) 36 – 55 years, and (3) 56 – 92 years. Analysis of variance procedures showed that the oldest group of adults scored higher on the scales of Emotional Inhibition and Aggression Control on the ECQ. The EAS results found that older adults scored lower on the
Fearfulness and Distress scales. Older adults also reported ruminating less about upsetting events than younger adults. Younger adults, conversely, scored higher on the Rehearsal scale (i.e., rumination about upsetting events) of the ECQ and higher on the Anger scale of the EAS. Based on these findings, the researchers concluded that age increases emotional selectivity and regulation. Over time, older adults tend to develop an inward versus outward orientation, thereby developing a matrix in which they can better acknowledge and understand their inner subjective experiences. As a result, older adults develop an increased ability to regulate their emotions by clarifying them, maintaining positive affective experiences and repairing negative affective experiences (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995; Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995).

Validity and Reliability of Emotional Intelligence Measures

Emotional intelligence has become a popular topic in modern culture within the last five years (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; “Emotional Intelligence Testing,” 2001; Goleman, 1995a; Goleman, 1998; Lam & Kirby, 2002; Sojka & Deeter-Schmelz, 2002). As a result, numerous scales have been developed purporting to assess emotional intelligence. For example, Goleman (1995b) developed an Internet version of an emotional intelligence scale, while Cooper and Sawaf used the EQ MAP to assess emotional intelligence for executive development. As popular as these measures may be, they have no scientifically established validity or reliability statistics. Emotional intelligence measures do exist, however, that have been subjected to scientific rigor regarding validity and reliability metrics.
Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, and Palfai (1995) developed a scale to measure meta-mood experiences. This assessment was called the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS) and was the first measurement scale developed to measure emotional intelligence. The TMMS was developed to assess consistent differences in people's propensities to appraise to their feelings, distinguish perceptibly among them, and manage them in order to adapt effectively to environmental demands.

The Trait Meta-Mood Scale was a self-report, 48-item assessment comprised of three scales: (1) attention to feelings, (2) clarity of feelings, and (3) mood repair (Salovey et al., 1995). The theoretical structure of the TMMS was examined through a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL VI. The chi-square significance test of global fit found that the three scales of TMMS fit the data from a 148 participant sample. The goodness-of-fit index generated by the LISREL program was 0.94, suggesting that the three-factor structure of the TMMS accounted for a substantial proportion of the total covariation (Salovey et al., 1995). Convergent and discriminant validity was established on a group of 86 participants, who completed other measures in addition to the TMMS. These measures included the Ambivalence Over Emotional Expressiveness Questionnaire (AEQ), the Expectancies for Negative Mood Regulation (NMR), the Life Orientation Test (LOT), the Self-Consciousness Scale (SCS), and the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-D). Subsequent analysis showed significant findings for both convergent and discriminant validity. While valuable as the first measure of emotional intelligence, the TMMS did have
a significant limitation; it did not directly measure the awareness and
management of emotions in others, which is an important component of
emotional intelligence.

Martinez-Pons (1997) used path analysis to investigate the construct
validity of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Salovey et al., 1995). A sample of 108
participants yielded a sequential structure, using path analysis techniques, which
provided evidence for emotional intelligence as a valid global construct beyond
Salovey et al. confirmatory factor analysis of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS).
According to Martinez-Pons, construct validity increases when the adjacent
structures in a model have significant correlations, while non-adjacent structures
have low or insignificant correlations. Martinez-Pons found high correlations
among the adjacent structures in Salovey et al. model, while finding non-significant
correlations among the non-adjacent structures. These results
suggested a valid sequential structure among the attention, clarity, and repair
constructs, thereby adding support to Salovey et al. findings.

Not all researchers agree that the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS) is a
valid and reliable measure of emotional intelligence, or even if emotional
intelligence can be effectively measured. Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998)
examined the measurement properties of TMMS. They compared the three
TMMS scales with a large number of well-established measures of intelligence,
emotion perception, and personality. In three separate studies, a total sample of
530 participants completed the TMMS measure of emotional intelligence, while
also completing well-established cognitive intelligence, emotion perception, and
personality measures. Each of the criterion measures assessed narrow ranges of the emotional intelligence spectrum (e.g., the Questionnaire Measure of Emotional Empathy, the Affective Communication Test, the NEO Personality Inventory, the Toronto Alexithymia Scale, etc.).

The findings suggested that emotional intelligence, as operationalized, did not appear to measure anything new. Instead, emotional intelligence appeared to identify characteristics that were delineated by existing psychometric inventories, which had already been exhaustively researched and validated. Davies, Stankov, and Roberts suggested, however, that the Emotional Awareness and Emotional Clarity scales of the TMMS might have been possible exceptions to their findings. In addition, they found that the emotional perception measures were different from the cognitive ability measures. Their conclusion was that emotional intelligence had little to offer that was psychometrically sound after the well-established personality traits were partialled out.

Salovey and Mayer (1990), however, do not suggest that the purpose of emotional intelligence theory is to define an undiscovered factor of personality or intelligence. Rather, the purpose is to integrate an existing body of fragmented literature and define a framework for the thinking about emotions from a global perspective. In the words of Salovey and Mayer (1990):

There is an exciting body of research that, for lack of a theoretical concept, is dismembered and scattered over a diversity of journals, books, and subfields of psychology.... As long as this research remains scattered without a guiding framework, its contribution to psychology will be minimal.
But by integrating this research conceptually, its contribution to psychology will be readily grasped. (p. 189)

The value added in emotional intelligence theory has been to provide a new paradigm in the thinking about emotions from a global perspective and relate this new knowledge base with other areas of theoretical and pragmatic importance, such as sales achievement.

In the quest to find a more complete assessment of emotional intelligence, Schutte et al. (1998) developed a measure of emotional intelligence based on Mayer and Salovey’s (1990) theory of emotional intelligence. The Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ) was composed of three scales (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). Appraisal and expression of emotion consisted of 13 items, regulation of emotion contained 10 items, and utilization of emotion also contained 10 items. The self-report questionnaire contained a total of 33 items and was tested on 346 participants. In addition to completing the EIQ, participants also completed other theoretically related instruments to measure validity. Twenty-five of the participants also completed the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS), while 36 completed the Affective Communications Test (ACT), 27 completed the Life Orientation Test (LOT), 49 completed the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), 38 completed the Zung Self-Rating Scale, and 56 completed the Barratt Impulsivity Scale.

The results showed that higher scores on the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ) correlated with a decrease in alexithymia as measured by the Toronto Alexithymia Scale, higher awareness of affect as gauged by the
Attention subscale of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale, and increased mood repair as assessed by the Mood Repair subscale of the Trait Meta-Mood scale. In addition, the EIQ correlated with higher levels of optimism as measured by the Optimism scale of the Life Orientation Test, decreased pessimism as assessed by the Pessimism scale of the Life Orientation Test, decreased depression as measured by the Zung Self-Rating depression subscale, and lower impulsivity as assessed by the Barratt Impusivity Scale. Nonverbal expressiveness of emotion, as measured by the Affective Communication Test, was not significantly related to scores on the emotional intelligence scale. Also, an internal consistency analysis of the emotional intelligence measure exhibited a Cronbach alpha of 0.90 and a test-retest reliability of 0.78. These results offered hope that a comprehensive metric of emotional intelligence could be developed. Indeed, Carriochi, Chan, and Bajgar (2001) used the self-report measure of emotional intelligence developed by Schutte et al. (1998) on a sample of one hundred thirty one adolescents and found that the emotional intelligence measure was reliable and valid. In addition, Carriochi, Chan, and Bajgar found that emotional intelligence held as a unique measure even after controlling for related personality constructs, such as self-esteem and trait anxiety.

Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) created an updated and more thorough measure of emotional intelligence called the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). The MEIS was specifically designed to measure the components of emotional intelligence (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Lam & Kirby, 2002; Pellitteri, 2002). These components included the appraisal,
understanding, regulation, and utilization of emotion. Mayer et al. examined whether emotional intelligence met the criteria necessary to be considered an intelligence. They hypothesized that in order to be considered an intelligence, the construct must be capable of being operationalized as a set of abilities, it must manifest specific correlational patterns within itself and also in relation to other intelligences, and it should develop with age and experience. They also hypothesized that emotional intelligence should be moderately related to other measures of intelligence. The correlations should be large enough to show a relationship with other measures of intelligence, but low enough to offer new knowledge about human abilities.

The MEIS was administered to 503 adults and 229 adolescents, along with seven criterion measures. These measures included intelligence, empathy, life satisfaction, artistic skills, parental warmth, psychotherapy, and life space leisure. The findings revealed that the components of the MEIS all loaded on a single factor, which the researchers called emotional \( q \). Moreover, the results provided strong empirical support for a three-factor model of emotional intelligence (i.e., Perception, Understanding, and Management). In addition, adults scored higher on the MEIS than adolescents, which suggested that emotional intelligence develops with age and experience. Finally, the MEIS showed significant relationships with the criterion measures. Emotional intelligence moderately correlated with verbal intelligence, which indicated that it was related to, but was also conceptually distinct from verbal intelligence. Furthermore, emotional intelligence positively correlated with empathy, parental
warmth, and life satisfaction, while being unrelated to psychotherapy, artistic skills, or life space leisure. The findings provided empirical support to the theory of emotional intelligence as meeting the criteria necessary to be considered an intelligence and also for the MEIS as being a valid and useful measure of general emotional functioning.

Ciarrochi, Chan, and Caputi (2000) critically evaluated the emotional intelligence construct and the psychometric properties of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). The researchers made a number of hypotheses. Regarding the emotional intelligence construct, people high in emotional intelligence should score higher in their ability to appraise, regulate, and utilize their feelings. Moreover, they should have higher self-esteem and lower neuroticism than people with low emotional intelligence. In addition, the researchers hypothesized that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between experimentally induced mood and mood-based judgmental biases and mood management. Regarding the MEIS, the researchers hypothesized that the subscales of the MEIS should load onto a single factor, which they called emotional g. Moreover, to establish discriminant validity, the MEIS should correlate with a number of criterion variables, even after controlling for other well-established tests. Selected criterion variables included IQ, empathy, extraversion, neuroticism, openness to feelings, self-esteem, parental warmth, life satisfaction, and relationship quality.

A sample of 134 subjects participated in the study in four phases, each occurring on a different day in a different week. In phase one, participants
completed the MEIS. Phase two consisted of participants being induced into positive, negative, or neutral affective states and then completing a questionnaire regarding evaluative judgments about three hypothetical couples. While in the induced mood state, participants also recalled three memories from high school. In phase three, participants completed a battery of personality and criterion measures theoretically related to emotional intelligence. Finally, in phase four participants completed an IQ test, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices.

The results showed that the subscales of the MEIS all loaded onto a single factor, which the researchers confirmed as emotional g. The coefficient alpha reliability of the MEIS was 0.61. The MEIS correlated with a number of criterion variables even after controlling for IQ and extensively researched personality variables, which supported its discriminant validity. The overall emotional intelligence factor significantly correlated with empathy, extraversion, openness to feelings, self-esteem, life satisfaction, and relationship quality. It was not significantly related to intelligence, neuroticism, parental warmth, and openness to aesthetics.

Regarding mood, emotional intelligence was related to mood management but, surprisingly, not related to mood-based judgmental biases. In terms of mood management, participants who scored high on the MEIS were more likely than others to retrieve positive memories while in a positive mood (i.e., mood maintenance) and also more likely to retrieve positive memories while in a negative mood (i.e., mood repair). Concerning mood-based decisions, IQ showed a stronger relationship than emotional intelligence in predicting
mood-based judgmental biases. Low IQ participants, but not high IQ, permitted extraneous moods to bias their judgments. Taken together, these findings suggest that IQ and emotional intelligence may work together in predicting affective responses to various situations (Pellitteri, 2002). In conclusion, the researchers' findings added empirical legitimacy concerning the construct of emotional intelligence and also supported the validity and reliability of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale.

Taccarino and Leonard (1999) developed a measure of emotional intelligence based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) theory of emotional intelligence called the Success Tendencies Indicator (STI). The STI is useful "to assess how effectively the individual will utilize his/her emotional potential for performance" (Taccarino & Leonard, 1999, p.3). The STI is composed of 50 self-report items that assess emotional intelligence in three areas: (1) affective effectiveness, (2) interpersonal effectiveness, and (3) emotional success drive. The STI can be administered individually or in a group setting in approximately 15 to 20 minutes for the average adult reader. The instrument contains two scales: (1) a success tendencies scale, and (2) a positive impression scale.

The success tendencies scale was designed to assess emotional intelligence characteristics and tendencies that predict performance effectiveness. The positive impression scale is an honesty scale that has been designed to identify deceptively positive response patterns from the respondent regarding his or her success tendencies. The scores for the STI are categorized into six criteria ranging from dormant to dominant success tendencies. The
Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) was used in a validity study on achievement, where a sample of graduate students (N=64) completed the STI and the California Psychological Inventory (CPI). The findings showed positive and statistically significant correlations between the STI and the achievement related scales of the CPI (Taccarino & Leonard, 1999). The STI is different from other emotional intelligence inventories because it measures emotional intelligence from a performance perspective.

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory is a 133-item self-report measure that comprises five composite scales and 15 distinct subscales. The composite scales assess Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Adaptation, Stress Management, and General Mood measures (Dawda and Hart, 2000). The subscales assess emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, independence, empathy, interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, problem solving, reality testing, flexibility, stress tolerance, impulse control, happiness, and optimism (Schutte et al., 1998).

Dawda and Hart (2000) investigated the validity and reliability of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). They hypothesized that individuals high in emotional intelligence would display higher positive affectivity and less psychosomatic symptoms than individuals with a low emotional intelligence. Moreover, they hypothesized a negative relationship between alexithymia and intrapersonal EQ. A sample of 243 participants completed the EQ-i and two interviews for assessing alexithymia (the Beth Israel Hospital Questionnaire and the Semistructured Interview for Alexithymia). In addition, participants completed
an array of self-report measures that assessed alexithymia (Toronto Alexithymia Scale), personality (NEO-Five Factor Inventory), affect intensity (Affect Intensity Scale), depression (Beck Depression Inventory) and psychosomatic complaints (SCL-90-R Somatization Scale).

Regarding the psychometric properties of the EQ-i, the results indicated that all of the composite scales correlated highly with the EQ-i total score. In addition, the EQ-i showed high levels of both convergent and discriminant validity. In terms of reliability, the EQ-i had a Cronbach alpha of 0.96, which indicated a very high internal consistency. The results also showed that individuals with high emotional intelligence scores had high levels of positive affectivity and low levels of negative affectivity. The Intrapersonal subscale positively correlated with positive affectivity and conscientiousness, while it negatively correlated with neuroticism and depression. Moreover, the Emotional Self-Awareness component of the Intrapersonal subscale negatively correlated with alexithymia. The Interpersonal subscale had positive correlations with extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and intensity of affective experience. It also had negative correlations with alexithymia, neuroticism, and depression. In sum, the findings revealed that the EQ-i had strong validity and reliability metrics, and also that it was also able to accurately assess a wide range of emotional constructs. From these findings, Dawda and Hart (2000) concluded that the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory was a good overall index of emotional intelligence.
Sales Overview

The personal selling process is a well-known and generally acknowledged succession of stages that salespeople must advance through to create sales. These seven stages include: (1) prospecting, (2) pre-approach, (3) approach, (4) sales presentation, (5) handling objections and overcoming resistance, (6) closing, and (7) post-sale follow up (Dwyer, Hill, & Martin, 2000). While critically important in defining the what to follow to achieve sales, the personal selling process offers little insight into how to best practice those stages. Moreover, the personal selling process is a poor predictor of determining who will succeed and fail in selling, since presumably all salespeople with adequate training will practice the same series of steps to accomplish their aims. As a result, a number of studies have been endeavored to identify predictors of sales success.

Churchill, Ford, Hartley, and Walker (1985) conducted a meta-analysis of the literature to identify predictors of sales success. They examined 116 studies that produced 1,653 putative associations between the determinants of performance and sales effectiveness. Their results revealed two important findings. First, no single variable, by itself, predicted sales achievement. The greatest single predictor accounted for less than 10% of the total variance, on average, of sales performance. Second, of the predictors identified, personal factors accounted for the most variance in outcome-based sales performance. Churchill et al. identified personal factors as intra-individual factors related to a salesperson’s performance. Churchill et al. concluded, “The fact that so little of
the variation in performance is associated with any single predictor supports the notion that models of the determinants of any salesperson performance must incorporate multiple causes" (1985, p. 104). Emotional intelligence is a global model that incorporates and integrates multiple determinants of sales success.

Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer, and Roth (1998) conducted a meta-analysis of 98 independent studies that were conducted from 1918 through 1996 and covered a wide range of sales jobs. The meta-analysis examined the validity of separate predictor categories for both subjective (i.e., supervisor ratings) and objective sales measures (i.e., output) of successful sales performance. Subjective ratings of sales performance focused more on the controllable aspects of an incumbent's job, such as organizational citizenship behaviors. Objective measures of sales performance focused more on outcome-based effectiveness.

Results from the meta-analysis indicated that two components of the Big Five personality dimensions were useful predictors of sales performance. Both the Extraversion and Conscientiousness dimensions significantly predicted subjective ratings and objective sales performance. Two subdimensions of the Big Five components of personality also proved valuable in predicting sales performance. Potency is a subdimension of the Extraversion component and significantly predicted subjective ratings and objective sales performance. Achievement is a subdimension of the Conscientiousness component and also significantly predicted subjective ratings and objective sales performance.
Potency is classified as a subdimension of Extraversion because it includes the behavioral qualities of assertiveness, influence, energy, and the intensity of interpersonal interactions. The data suggest that Potency is the most important element of Extraversion that is associated with sales-based outcomes. Achievement is classified as a subdimension of Conscientiousness because it includes the behavioral qualities of competence striving and motivation. The data also suggest that Achievement is the most important element of Conscientiousness that is associated with sales performance.

Measures of a general factor of cognitive ability (g) were also examined as a possible predictor of sales success. General cognitive ability predicted the subjective ratings reasonably well, but predicted objective sales productivity poorly. A possible explanation for this finding may be that general cognitive ability communicates to the sales manager that the salesperson is competent, but other factors are also involved in sales success. For example, the ability to overcome communication apprehension and persist in the face of numerous rejections is necessary to succeed in sales. These abilities, however, are components of the emotional realm, not the cognitive realm. The findings from the meta-analysis conducted by Vinchur et al. (1998) align with the components of emotional intelligence, but they are only a small part of the broad spectrum of emotional intelligence.

Other studies have also added to predicting sales success that fall under the rubric of the emotional intelligence framework. Ramsey and Sohi (1997) affirm, "A customer's satisfaction with the salesperson reflects an emotional state
that occurs in response to an evaluation of the interaction experience that the
customer has with the salesperson" (p. 129). Specifically, the emotional state
results from "the feeling of being included in the communication process,
perceiving a sense of authority and control in decision making, and the need to
be liked and treated with respect" (Ramsey & Sohi, 1997, p. 129). In addition to
cognitive abilities such as job knowledge and skills, noncognitive abilities strongly
contribute to successful sales performance (Merenda & Jacob, 1987). Sullivan
(1991) identified the following qualities important to both inside and outside sales
success: (1) oral communication skills, (2) persuasiveness, (3) sociability,
(4) social skills, (5) confidence, and (6) personal relation abilities. All of these
characteristics coordinate with the framework of emotional intelligence.

Verbeke (1994) empirically examined the personality characteristics of
effective salespeople. He hypothesized that effective salespeople would score
higher in terms of self-monitoring, interpersonal control, adaptation, personal
efficiency, and the ability to elicit information from prospects (i.e., openers) than
ineffective people. Moreover, effective salespeople were hypothesized to be less
rigid than ineffective salespeople. A sample of 70 salespeople was divided into
effective and ineffective groups based on multiple sales performance measures.
Participants then completed a questionnaire with measurement scales designed
to assess the hypothesized constructs. The findings revealed that the most
effective salespeople were better self-monitors, adaptors, and openers than the
ineffective salespeople. All of these characteristics are consistent with the
components of emotional intelligence.
Existing Measures of Sales Success

Despite the central importance of sales in modern economies, selling is a profession that continually experiences high levels of attrition and employee turnover. In order to mitigate the high costs incurred by organizations from sales turnover, a myriad of attempts have been made to predict successful sales professionals. Nelson (1987) found from a meta-analysis that paper-and-pencil assessments had the greatest validity of any predictor for entry-level positions that required training after hiring. Paper-and-pencil assessments, however, tend to be more expensive than other screening tools. Nelson therefore proposed a strategy called the successive hurdles approach where paper-and-pencil assessments should be used as part of a total package to assess applicant potential. This approach proceeds in a particular order, from least to most expensive. The order includes: (1) resume, (2) application form, (3) reference check, (4) personal interview, and (5) tests. The most widely used test batteries include personality traits, mental ability, interests, and sales aptitude. Tests are usually used last for cost reasons. According to Nelson, tests are often the most costly tool, but they also have the greatest predictive validity. Moreover, tests should never be used alone, but rather as an important part of an assessment package (Nelson, 1987; Verbeke, 1994).

For example, a biodata employment inventory is a tool often used by sales managers and human resource personnel to predict the future success of a prospective salesperson (Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer & Roth, 1998). A biodata employment inventory is a structured technique for bringing together and utilizing
life-history data through a standardized, self-report instrument where the responses to questions are close-ended. Applicants select among several multiple-choice alternatives they believe best represents their recall of past employment experiences (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997; Whitney & Schmitt, 1997). Conventional types of biodata questions include highest level of education, employment experiences, and special work-related skills (e.g., bilingualism). Two advantages of biodata measures are: (1) the data can be collected in a simple manner, and (2) the employer can verify many of the responses.

Biodata measures have shortcomings as well as advantages. Whitney and Schmitt (1997) investigated the relationship between cultural values and responses to biodata employment items. The researchers hypothesized that responses to biodata employment items were related to the cultural values of the respondent. A sample of 207 African American and Caucasian participants were assessed regarding their perceptions of cultural values involving basic human nature, the relationship between the individual and nature, temporal focus, and interpersonal relations. Participants then answered a set of biodata questions relating to a law enforcement position. The findings showed that 27% of the biodata items exhibited differential item functioning between the racial groups. This means that while the answers to over a quarter of the biodata items were different, the responses highly correlated with the cultural values espoused by each racial group. The results suggest a possible cultural bias in the use of biodata instruments as a valid predictor of job success. Additional shortcomings of biodata measures include low validity, possible false information provided by
the applicant, and legal restraints that limit the types of questions that can be asked of the applicant (Hansen & Conrad, 1991).

Sales knowledge tests are another type of candidate assessment tool designed to identify the applicant's knowledge of the principles of selling. A shortcoming of this assessment tool is that it neglects to assess the internal qualities needed for sales success by the applicant, such as motivation, persistence, and the ability to overcome rejection on a daily basis. Personal interviews are the most ubiquitous form of candidate assessment tool used in the application process. Over 90% of sales organizations use employment interviews in the recruitment, evaluation, and selection of salespeople (Marshall, Stamps, & Moore, 1998). Interviews, however, are limited for two reasons. First, applicants have a strong desire to secure the position and therefore are motivated to showcase their best behavior, while tending to cover up personal shortcomings (Sullivan, 1991). Second, interviews can vary depending upon the idiosyncrasies of the person conducting the interview, even when structured and specific.

Marshall, Stamps, and Moore (1998) define the concept of preinterview bias, which consists of the opinions, attitudes, and beliefs formed about applicants before the employment interview is conducted. Marshall et al. examined the impact of race on preinterview impressions of sales position candidates. They hypothesized that the race of the interviewer would show a preference for the race of the applicant in the direction of the interviewer's race. A 2 x 2 x 2 (Race: African American, White; Attractiveness, less, more; Sales Job Type: inside, outside) mixed factorial experiment was conducted with 281
participants. The participants read a scenario for two equally qualified sales position candidates and observed a picture of the candidates. Physical attractiveness, sales job type, and social desirability was controlled for in the experiment. Participants then chose the candidate they thought was best qualified for the position.

The findings revealed that African American evaluators showed a marked preference for the African American candidates, even though their qualifications were identical to the White sales candidates. White evaluators, however, did not display the same bias. While limited by the lack of a naturalistic setting, the use of scenarios instead of real sales applicants, and an absence of interviewers who were human resource professionals, these findings still lend empirical support for the existence of possible preinterview biases in the selection process for sales applicants. Since both the sales applicant and the interviewer can influence the interview setting in nonproductive ways, interviews can be limited through personal bias from both sides of the interview table (Hansen & Conrad, 1991).

Simulations have become an increasingly popular tool used to assess sales potential. Simulations have applicants simulate an actual selling situation to demonstrate their selling potential. When properly designed, simulations can be predictive of sales success. Limitations include that they are time consuming, costly, situation specific, and are very difficult to administer with consistency (Hansen & Conrad, 1991). Moreover, simulations offer no scientific insight into the internal qualities that facilitate sales success. Assessment center evaluations are a popular tool that some employers use to assess candidate potential.
through simulations. In a meta-analysis of the sales literature, researchers found that assessment centers displayed considerable variance in predicting sales performance (Ford, Walker, Churchill, & Hartley, 1987). A possible explanation for the large variance may be due to a lack of consistency in developing assessment evaluation centers.

Merenda and Jacob (1987) examined the value of self-concept measures for sales personnel selection. The researchers hypothesized that self-concept inventories were related to sales achievement. A sample of 245 salespeople from a nationwide firm was assessed for self-concept perceptions and sales achievement. Salespersons who were currently working for the company (N = 125) and former employees (N = 120) who had been terminated prior to the end of the calendar year were assessed for self-concept, length of service, and income generation. All employees completed the AVA Placement Analysis, a self-concept inventory, when they were job applicants. Sales achievement was measured as yearly income generation and length of service was measured in years. The results indicated that currently employed salespeople showed the strongest correlation between self-concept perception and income generation, while terminated salespersons showed the strongest correlation between self-concept perception and length of service. The study was limited, however, because self-concept was not connected with specific skills or abilities needed to succeed in sales. The findings suggest that while self-concept inventories can predict a relationship with sales success, they are limited in the sense that they do not identify the skill sets necessary to succeed in sales.
Comparison modeling is a popular tool used by organizations to assess sales potential in applicants. This type of assessment is a self-report questionnaire that has the applicant self-assess job relevant skills and abilities, career expectations, motivating goals, concerns about career, satisfaction with present job, and potential clients. The applicant's responses are translated into a profile, which is then compared to profiles of successful salespeople in the industry in which the applicant desires to sell. Seligman and Schulman (1986) empirically examined the Aptitude Index Battery (AIB), a popular commercial modeling tool, to determine its predictive power. A cross-sectional survey of 94 life insurance salespeople compared preservice AIB scores with sales performance for the first two years following the start of employment. The salesperson's quarterly commissions, measured in dollars for the first eight quarters of their employment, measured productivity. The results showed that the AIB poorly correlated with the first two years of sales production. This is particularly important because 78% of life insurance salespeople hired in the United States quit within the first three years of employment (Seligman & Schulman, 1986).

Another tool employed in the pursuit of predicting successful sales professionals is personality testing. Lewis, Tobacyk, Dawson, Jurkus, and Means (1996) ascertained the psychological types of 223 male multi-line insurance sales professionals using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). The results showed that the most popular personality type for the insurance salespeople was Extroversion, Sensing, Thinking, and Judging (ESTJ), comprising over 27% of
the sample. While the MBTI did identify the most popular personality type regarding insurance salespeople, it also identified 15 of the 16 possible MBTI personality types in the sample. While valuable, personality tests, such as the MBTI, do not explicitly identify the components that are necessary for sales success. In sum, all of the sales selection tools examined show various levels of validity and reliability in predicting selling success, but have limitations as well. Measures of emotional intelligence, therefore, can serve to buttress many of the limitations of currently used sales selection tools.

Appraisal and Expression of Emotion

In Self – Verbal

The ability to become aware of and express one’s emotions is important to the selling process. The most common understanding of selling involves instrumental selling behaviors, which are primarily the overt actions sales professionals make to prospect, qualify, present, and close the sale (Jolson & Comer, 1997). Examples of these types of behaviors include prospecting, cold calling, delivering authoritative sales presentations, and employing assertive closing techniques. While important to the overall selling cycle, they are only partially responsible for sales success. Also important to successful selling are the emotional skill sets that communicate warmth, likeability, and trust. Customers prefer to buy from people that they generally like and trust. The behaviors that warm customers up to the salesperson and allow for the customer to be less defensive are called expressive selling behaviors. Expressive selling behaviors serve to develop and maintain long-term interpersonal relationships.
Characteristic of these traits is the ability to establish rapport and communicate empathy, warmth, and friendliness. In addition, sales professionals with expressive selling behaviors stress identifying needs, problem solving, trust-building, and maintaining cordial relationships throughout the selling cycle. In effect, these behaviors are nurturing in nature and are components of emotional intelligence.

Successful sales professionals need to be able to appraise these affective abilities and verbally communicate them in order to secure and build successful business partnerships with customers. Jolson and Comer (1997) investigated how well salespeople appraised their instrumental and expressive behaviors by correlating salespeople's self-reported assessments with supervisor assessments of how well the salespeople exhibited the same dimensions. The researchers hypothesized that salespeople's self-appraisals of their expressive and instrumental behaviors was related to the sales managers' ratings. Sales managers in the telephone equipment and supply industry were asked to randomly choose a salesperson to rate. A total of 98 dyads of sales managers and salespeople agreed to respond to a questionnaire.

The results showed a significant positive correlation between salespeople's self-appraised expressive and instrumental scores and their managers' ratings. Instrumental scores indicated a moderate correlation with the ratings, while a higher correlation occurred with the expressive scores. This means that there was significant agreement between salespeople's appraisals of their expressive and instrumental selling behaviors and the frequency with which
their managers felt they demonstrated the corresponding set of selling behaviors in the field. The set of expressive behaviors appraised and expressed by sales professionals falls within the rubric of emotional intelligence theory proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990).

The appraisal of emotion exhibits a mediating relationship between sales performance and work satisfaction. Brown, Cron, and Leigh (1993) advance the psychological success model, which posits that an employee's feelings of success are an intervening variable between sales performance and work-related attitudes. The construct of feelings of success is operationalized as an overall self-assessment of the degree that an employee feels successful in achieving his or her work. Brown et al. propose that people develop feelings of success when they accomplish goals that are: (1) vital to their self-concept, (2) self-selected, (3) accomplished by themselves, and (4) demanding but within reach.

Brown, Cron, and Leigh (1993) tested the psychological success model with 466 salespeople from six national industrial equipment and supply manufacturers. The researchers hypothesized that a salesperson's feelings of success mediated sales performance and work satisfaction, with indirect effects on job involvement and organizational commitment. They also hypothesized that this relationship would hold across the four career stages: (1) exploration, (2) establishment, (3) maintenance, and (4) disengagement. Respondents completed a questionnaire that measured job performance, feelings of success, job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, and career stages.
The data were analyzed through LISREL. Standardized path coefficients supported the hypotheses that appraised feelings of success mediated sales performance and job satisfaction. Underscoring this relationship was the finding that the sales performance to work satisfaction path was not statistically significant when the effects of feelings of success were removed. The findings also revealed that work satisfaction was positively related to both job involvement and organizational commitment. Moreover, job involvement was positively related to organizational commitment. Thus, feelings of success appeared to have an indirect positive relationship to both job involvement and organizational commitment. In addition, the mediating effects of feelings of success held constant across all four stages of career progression. These findings supported the psychological success model and demonstrated the value of emotional appraisal in the sales cycle.

Affect is involved in the use of verbal bargaining strategies. Anselmi and Zemanek (1997) identified verbal skill in the sales process as the capacity to perceive and process information regarding interpersonal communication and translate that information into a conceptual meaning. Galinat and Muller (1988) investigated verbal appraisals and responses of salespeople to buyers employing various bargaining strategies. Confederate buyers negotiated price discounts with 48 new car salespeople regarding the purchase of a new car. Eight bargaining strategy classifications were randomly used to secure a price discount, along with a control strategy of simply asking for the standard discount.
The findings revealed that the antagonistic bargaining strategy used by the buyers was not reciprocated with a similar strategy by the salesperson. Instead, a counter-intuitive cooperative response was generated by the salesperson. The reason for this could have been that salespeople may have felt that an antagonistic strategy would have been counterproductive in closing the sale because it would have made the buyer feel even more antagonistic. Therefore, the salesperson actively searched for an alternative that extended the selling cycle. In order to allow the buyer to feel more relaxed in the bargaining situation, the salesperson reciprocated the cooperative communication strategy advanced by the buyer. Also, salespeople employed self-disclosure statements to capitalize on the similarity hypothesis and generate a feeling of similarity between the buyer and seller. Finally, concessions were made mostly at the beginning of the bargaining situation to make the buyer feel as if he or she were getting a deal. These findings suggest that in order to facilitate a sale, the salesperson needs to identify the feelings that the buyer feels and then manage his or her own emotions in order to adapt the verbal responses necessary to advance the selling process.

**In Self – Nonverbal**

Salespeople communicate messages to customers through both verbal and nonverbal channels. Customers' perceptions of the salesperson's expression of behaviors such as positive and negative affect, professionalism, trust, and credibility often occur on a nonverbal level. A customer wants to feel that the salesperson is genuine, trustworthy, and generally has his or her best interests at
heart in any sales interaction. Perceptions of these communication elements are assessed more by how well the salesperson nonverbally expresses himself or herself rather than the particular words used in the persuasion message. Sharma (1999) notes that during sales presentations, potential buyers process two types of thoughts: message thoughts and own-thoughts. Message thoughts refer to the overt message in the presentation. These thoughts assess the value of the structure, logic, and personal benefits of the persuasive message. Own-thoughts are object-attribution associations about the message and the presenter. It is at the own-thoughts level that inferences concerning a presenter's nonverbal expressiveness such as professionalism, credibility, and trustworthiness are established and influence the validity of message thoughts.

Sharma (1999) investigated the role of customers' perceptions of salespeople's affect towards potential buyers regarding persuasion. Sharma hypothesized that a customer's persuasion level would be enhanced more when interacting with a source that demonstrated a positive affect than when interacting with a source that demonstrated a negative affect under high credibility conditions. A 2 x 2 x 2 between-subjects design was employed involving 80 undergraduate students and 61 employees of an information management organization. The factors included salesperson's affect (positive versus negative), salesperson's credibility (high versus low), and buying experience (students versus computer professionals). Participants were exposed to a role-playing scenario. Each participant was asked to put himself or herself in the position of having recently joined a company and was asked to purchase a
laptop computer for his or her boss. Next, a salesperson was to meet with the respondent to give a presentation. The respondent was instructed to assume that the computers of the salesperson's firm met the needs of the buyer. A description of the salesperson was given (i.e., positive vs. negative affect, high vs. low credibility) followed by a sales message that was the same across all respondents. The sales message was followed by the collection of the dependent measures, which included product evaluation and buying intention.

The results showed that under high source credibility, positive affect led to a higher product evaluation than a negative affect. No significant differences occurred between the groups. In addition, under high source credibility, positive affect led to a greater likelihood of buying intention than negative affect. In this instance, there was a significant group difference, with the student group having higher means than the expert group. Moreover, concerning the cognitive response measures, salespeople elicited more favorable thoughts from the positive affect sales presentation group than from the negative affect sales presentation group. Also, students tended to list more thoughts than the experts.

The findings suggested that if salespeople nonverbally communicated a positive affect toward potential customers, message processing and persuasion were enhanced. A limitation of this study was that respondents took part in a role-playing scenario rather than an actual sales context. The research results need to be validated in actual sales interactions and buying situations to increase robustness. The results, however, give credence to the importance of nonverbal
communication of positive or negative affect by the salesperson to the prospect in a sales situation.

Nonverbal behavior has a strong impact on persuasion and is of particular importance to sales professionals. According to Peterson, Cannito, and Brown (1995, p. 1) “voice characteristics determine the ‘complexion’ of an individual’s voice and convey direct, subtle, or implied meanings and feelings along with the language message.” Hall (1980) examined the effects of persuasion through nonverbal voice tones while participants read a prepared persuasion script. Hall hypothesized that the outcome of a persuasive attempt can be influenced by nonverbal communication. The nonverbal sending and decoding skills of 54 participants were pretested six months to a year before the actual experiment. A field experiment was conducted where one group of subjects (callers) performed a telephone survey in which they called another group of subjects (respondents) to persuade them to indicate their readiness to volunteer time for psychological research. The respondents were not aware that they would be called to volunteer hours. They simply thought that they were responding to a survey conducted by their university. The callers all read the same prepared script and were asked to persuade respondents to give more or less time by varying only their nonverbal vocal cues. Callers were not allowed to deviate from the prepared script.

The callers’ voices were audiotaped and evaluated for nonverbal voice tones on seven dimensions. The results indicated that participants who were categorized as accurate senders of nonverbal cues on the pretest were more emotionally expressive, spoke quicker, and exhibited more confidence than the
inaccurate senders. Hall (1980) concluded that a person’s rate of speech was related to attitude change, primarily because the rapid speakers were perceived as being more credible and confident than the slower speakers. In addition, the most positive nonverbal social influence occurred between the best senders and the best decoders of nonverbal information. These findings suggest that both the sending and decoding of nonverbal information is important in the persuasion process.

A limitation of Hall’s (1980) study on voice tone and persuasion was that it did not assess nonverbal communication skills with sales professionals. Peterson, Cannito, and Brown (1995) investigated the relationship between selected nonverbal voice characteristics and selling effectiveness. In the study, each male salesperson provided an identical three-paragraph presentation regarding his product. Voice recordings were made and analyzed on a CRT screen as a time-varying waveform. Analyses of voice characteristics were conducted regarding speaking rate, fundamental frequency contours, and loudness variability. Voice recordings were next correlated with actual sales performance. Sales performance was measured as product units for a specific selling period and was obtained from company records.

The results showed that sales performance was significantly related to speaking rate. As total speaking time decreased, sales output increased. Also, fundamental frequency contour was significantly related to sales output performance. Salespeople with falling contours at the end of sentences had higher outputs than those with rising contours. The researchers suggested the
reason for this phenomenon was the nonverbal connotation of authority, credibility, and dominance associated with falling contours. While limited by its relatively small sample size, $N = 21$, and exclusively male participants, the findings of this study nevertheless provide support to the relationship between the verbal expression of a message and sales output. The researchers conclude that the manner in which a sales idea is nonverbally expressed is as influential as the content of what is communicated with respect to sales performance.

Nonverbal communication can occur through multiple channels. In addition to the influence of voice tone on selling effectiveness, attire also communicates powerful nonverbal messages to the prospect (Hensley, 1981; Stuart & Fuller, 1991). Semiotics is the study of the communication effects of messages. With attire, semiotics suggests that clothing communicates a symbolic message that is strongly shaped by cultural norms and experiences.

Stuart and Fuller (1991) investigated the semiotics of clothing on the selling process. The investigators hypothesized that a salesperson in a more formally dressed manner would generally be perceived better than a salesperson dressed in a more informal manner. A sample of 205 hospital purchasing agents participated in a mail field study where each agent observed a picture of a salesperson dressed in one of seven outfits, each one differing only in the level of formality of dress. A second study utilized the same protocol, but assessed 176 purchasing agents from convenience store chains to provide cross-industry generalizability. A male model took pictures in the same pose for each of the seven outfits. The outfits ranged in formality from a three-piece suit to a tourist
look. Respondents then completed a 21-item questionnaire that assessed perceived salesperson characteristics, attitudes, and competencies.

ANOVA and discriminant analysis were used to analyze the data. Both studies yielded similar results. The salesperson dressed in the more formal attire was perceived as: (1) a better salesman, (2) more ambitious, (3) better educated, (4) more ethical, (5) more optimistic, (6) having better product knowledge, and (7) providing greater customer service than the same salesperson dressed in the less formal attire. These results were consistent across both industries, which added to the external validity of the findings. In addition, more important than any individual item of clothing was the gestalt communicated by the total outfit. The farther away from the expected norms and cultural experiences the outfit fell, the more negative that salesperson was evaluated by the prospect. These findings support the assertions that clothing is a nonverbal communication channel and that attire has a noteworthy effect on nonverbal perceptions in a business environment. In addition, the findings illustrate the importance of attire in the selling process.

In Others - Nonverbal Perception

Emotional intelligence includes a type of interpersonal sensitivity that allows professionals in the workplace to comprehend tacit signals. The ability to perceive communication signals from a customer is a key component of effective selling. An important nonverbal perceptual component of active listening in the sales context is the ability to detect and appropriately respond to buying cues from the prospect. Signal Detection Theory (SDT) is a framework for accurately
sensing and perceiving stimuli from the environment (Knowles, Grove, & Keck, 1994; Park & Banaji, 2000). A salesperson's probability of closing a sale is related to his or her ability to sense the presence or absence of buying signals and to respond appropriately to those signals.

Knowles, Grove, and Keck (1994) propose a structure for applying SDT in a sales environment. In selling, signal detection and response interactions are categorized into a four-part taxonomy. A hit takes place when a closing signal is expressed and the salesperson correctly makes a decision that it occurred. A miss happens when a closing signal is expressed and the salesperson inaccurately decides that it did not occur. A false alarm transpires when a closing signal is not expressed and the salesperson incorrectly determines that it did happen. Finally, a correct rejection occurs when a closing signal is not expressed and the salesperson accurately determines that it did not occur. Two of the four responses are important to measure salesperson effectiveness – hits and false alarms. According to Knowles et al. successful salespeople have a higher hit to false alarm ratio than less successful salespeople in the selling cycle. Therefore, correctly perceiving and responding to nonverbal cues expressed by a potential client can lead to increased sales.

Salespeople use cues to evaluate potential clients throughout the selling process. Szymanski and Churchill (1990) examined client evaluation cues used in the prospecting stage of the selling cycle. They hypothesized that client evaluation cues differed in the quantity of cues used and the weights assigned to those specific cues. A national sample of 54 salespeople from a financial
services firm were divided into successful and unsuccessful categories based on a median split of the average number of financial plans sold by each salesperson per quarter since joining the organization. The sample was limited to salespeople who had a minimum of three years of experience with the organization, worked in urban areas, and had no prior sales experience. Data was obtained regarding six classes of evaluation cues and the importance placed on each cue.

Multiple regression analysis disproved the hypothesis that successful and unsuccessful salespeople used different cues when evaluating prospects. Instead, the results showed that no significant differences occurred regarding the quantity or type of cues used to evaluate potential clients. A significant difference was found, however, in the importance placed on the various cues. In general, successful salespeople placed less importance on surface cues (e.g., age, marital status) than unsuccessful salespeople. Szymanski and Churchill (1990) suggested that successful salespeople place more value on the subjective in-depth features of client needs. The researchers also proposed that, when evaluating clients, successful salespeople have a greater lower-limit threshold for evaluation cues when more of a quality is desirable for a sale, a lower upper-limit threshold when less of the quality is preferable, and different minimum and maximum cutoff points when a specific range of those values is considered best to close a sale. While limited by its relatively small sample size and limited classes of client evaluation cues, the results give impetus to the importance of perceptual cues in the client evaluation process.
Successful salespeople continually assess for buying signals from their prospects by sensing, decoding, and interpreting verbal and nonverbal cues. They then use this information to develop persuasive communication strategies (Comer & Drollinger, 1999; Goolsby, Lagace, & Boorom, 1992). Sensing, decoding, and interpreting nonverbal signals is essential while probing for buyer needs in order to create strategies to acquire better insight regarding the customer's desires. Sales presentations are then adapted to meet the prospect's real needs. Listening is an important tool for perceiving both nonverbal and verbal information from a sender and is critical for building trusting and open communication relationships with customers. Castleberry and Shepherd (1993, p. 43) affirm, "Sales performance is related to the salesperson's ability to form an accurate impression of the customer's beliefs and values. Further, it has been proposed that this perceptual ability is an important skill that underlies [sales] adaptability."

Castleberry and Shepherd (1993) propose a model of listening that involves a process of actively sensing, interpreting, evaluating, and responding to the nonverbal and verbal messages of senders. Ramsey and Sohi (1997) applied Castleberry and Shepherd's model of active listening within a personal sales context and also investigated the impact of salesperson listening behaviors on relationship outcomes. The researchers hypothesized positive associations between: (1) customers' perceptions of salesperson listening behavior and their trust in the salesperson, (2) customers' trust and satisfaction with the salesperson, and (3) customers' satisfaction and anticipation of future
interactions with the salesperson. A mail survey was distributed to 500 recent new car buyers. The list of buyers was randomly generated by a car dealership whose customers who had purchased their automobile within the previous six months. Of the questionnaires returned, 173 were usable for analysis.

Structural equation modeling was used to analyze the data. Results succored in validating Castleberry and Shepherd's model (1993) of the components of active listening behavior within a sales context. The results showed that perceived listening behavior was composed of sensing, interpreting, evaluating, and responding constructs. Additional findings showed that: (1) a customer's perception of listening behavior was positively related to trust in the salesperson, (2) a customer's trust in the salesperson was positively related to satisfaction with the salesperson, and (3), a customer's satisfaction with the salesperson was positively related to the anticipation of future interactions with the salesperson. The results indicated a progressive relationship from nonverbal and verbal perception, through effective listening, to the anticipation of conducting future interactions with the salesperson. These findings are especially important for relationship selling, where cultivating long-term relationships is a necessary component of the selling process. Perceiving and responding to buyer signals is important for five areas of the selling process: (1) making a good impression, (2) identifying and restating buyer needs, (3) relating features to benefits, (4) assessing buyer reactions, and (5) securing a purchase commitment (Knowles, Grove, & Keck, 1994).
Nonverbal perception occurs on both sides of the sales table. In addition to salespeople, customers also use nonverbal perception skills in order to assess the credibility of the salesperson. Credibility is an important part of the sales process that contains both nonverbal and verbal components. Jones, Moore, Stanaland, and Wyatt (1998) investigated the relationship between perceived salesperson credibility and customer purchase intentions. The researchers hypothesized a positive relationship between perceived salesperson credibility and purchase intentions. A written scenario design was used involving 268 subjects. The participants were asked react to a simulated purchase scenario involving a long distance phone service sales presentation. Credibility was operationalized as consisting of four components: (a) trustworthiness, (b) likeability, (c) attractiveness, and (d) expertise. Participants then answered questions concerning the perceived credibility of the salesperson and purchase intentions.

The data were analyzed with regression techniques. The hypothesis was partially supported. Three of the four dimensions of salesperson credibility (i.e., expertise, likeability, and attractiveness) had a significant influence on customers' purchase intentions. Of these dimensions, perceived expertise had the greatest impact. Trustworthiness did not show a significant impact on customer purchase intentions. This counterintuitive finding may be related to design concerns. The design employed written scenarios, not actual selling situations. Trustworthiness is a belief that develops over time through actual behaviors. This design did not allow time for the facilitation of trustworthiness to
occur. Nevertheless, these findings support the importance of perceived credibility of the salesperson and customer purchase intentions. Therefore, effective salespeople should look for ways to increase the nonverbal perceptions of their credibility by customers.

Stereotypes are another type of nonverbal perception that customers develop towards salespeople. Emotions felt by the customer mediate the impact of salesperson stereotypes on customer thoughts. Babin, Boles, & Darden (1995) hypothesized that emotions associated with particular salesperson stereotypes mediated the relationship between stereotype activation and consumer cognitions. A sample of 163 undergraduate marketing students was randomly assigned to one of three salesperson stereotype conditions: (a) typical, (b) pushy, and (c) atypical. Participants each read a scenario involving an automobile sales encounter with one of the three salesperson stereotypes. Afterward, participants completed a questionnaire that assessed the variables in the hypothesis.

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and path analysis were used to analyze the data. The findings revealed that both the pushy and typical salesperson stereotypes were associated with greater feelings of skepticism and helplessness than the atypical salesperson. The atypical salesperson condition produced greater levels of interest and arousal than the other conditions. These emotional states mediated stereotype activation mechanisms and subsequent consumer cognitions regarding the potential transaction. The researchers concluded that each type of salesperson condition a produced nonverbal stereotype perception
in the customer that created an emotional environment where information processing varied based upon the nonverbal perceptions constructed by the customer towards the salesperson. Therefore, effective salespeople should seek to express themselves as atypical from the common salesperson stereotypes as possible. This will, in effect, produce an emotional environment where trust and interest increase, and therefore allow the desired information processing to occur.

**In Others – Empathy**

Empathy is a factor of emotional intelligence that is related to sales success. Spiro and Weitz (1990) examined the relationship between empathy and adaptive selling. Empathy was operationalized as comprising three components: (1) perspective taking, (2) empathic concern, and (3) social self-confidence. The researchers hypothesized empathy to be positively related to adaptive selling. A sample of 268 salespeople completed a questionnaire that measured both empathy and adaptive selling behaviors. Spiro and Weitz found that perspective taking, empathic concern, and social self-confidence positively correlated with adaptive selling behaviors.

McBane (1995) partially agreed with Spiro and Weitz (1990). McBane assessed the relationship between empathy and sales performance with 154 salespeople from an office equipment and supplies firm. McBane hypothesized that a multidimensional operationalization of empathy would have greater explanatory power than a unidimensional operationalization of empathy. Empathy was disaggregated from a unidimensional construct to a
multidimensional construct comprising three scales that measured perspective taking, empathic concern, and emotional contagion. Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that emotional contagion was inversely related to sales performance and also that empathic concern was not statistically related to sales performance. Different results were found, however, regarding perspective taking. Perspective taking, when combined with controlling behaviors, interacted to have a positive relationship with sales performance. The results suggested that the most successful salespeople were adept at bringing together the customer's point of view with appropriate assertiveness behavior to guide the buyer towards a decision that met their requirements. This study, however, was limited by relatively low reliability measures of the three scales of the multidimensional empathy construct.

Pilling and Eroglu (1994) conducted an empirical examination of the impact of salesperson empathy on the likelihood of a buyer to listen to future presentations and also the likelihood to place an order. The researchers sampled 484 retail buyers from a mailing list obtained from a national apparel sales organization. Written scenarios were used to manipulate empathy into high and low levels. Following the scenario, two dependent measures were taken from the buyer: (1) the likelihood of listening to future presentations by the hypothetical salesperson, and (2) the likelihood of placing an order with the salesperson. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the data. The results showed that empathic behavior had a significant positive impact on both the likelihood of
the buyer to listen to future presentations from the salesperson and the likelihood of the buyer to place an order with the salesperson.

An important concern with this study was the ability to simulate reality by using a written scenario. The primary concern in using this technique is its realism. The intention of a buyer to buy from a hypothetical salesperson is not the same as actually purchasing a product. This study could have been more robust if it linked empathy with actual sales results. Scenarios, however, are advantageous mainly because they permit the investigation of situations that are not easily duplicated in an experimental setting. Moreover, the use of written scenarios to operationalize independent variables is considered a credible approach in the marketing literature (Pilling & Eroglu, 1994). Despite their limitations, these findings give impetus to the importance of empathy in developing selling relationships.

**Regulation of Emotion**

**In Self**

Self-regulation is an important element of emotional intelligence with valuable applications for sales professionals. The ability to regulate subjective levels of emotional stress is related to sales productivity. Yeh, Lester, and Tauber (1986) empirically assessed the relationship between subjective stress levels and sales productivity. They hypothesized that the ability to manage stress levels was related to sales performance. A sample of 62 real estate salespeople completed a self-report stress level questionnaire. The number of housing units sold in the previous year was the primary performance measure used to assess sales
productivity. An additional measure of the net value of housing sold was also included because housing units fluctuate in dollar amounts. The results showed that a higher level of emotional stress inversely correlated with sales productivity. These results were consistent for both the absolute number of housing units sold and the net value, in dollar amounts, obtained from the sale of those housing units.

Yang, Lester, and Wachter (1990) replicated Yeh et al. (1986) investigation of subjective stress levels and sales productivity. A sample of 82 real estate salespeople completed the same stress level questionnaire. In this study, however, sales productivity was measured as a self-reported level of net income from the sale of real estate in the previous year. The results corroborated Yeh et al. earlier findings. This study adds value not only in its confirmation of Yeh et al. earlier findings, but also supports the use of self-report sales performance measures as a proxy to objective sales performance data measures. Together, the findings from these two empirical investigations indicate that the ability to monitor and regulate subjective levels of emotional stress has an impact on sales performance.

The relationship between self-monitoring behavior and adaptive selling techniques was investigated by Spiro and Weitz (1990). Self-monitoring was operationalized as comprising three components: (1) ability to modify self-presentation, (2) sensitivity to emotionally expressive behavior in others, and (3) cross-situational variability. Self-monitoring was hypothesized to be positively related to adaptive selling. A sample of 268 salespeople completed a
questionnaire that measured self-monitoring behavior and adaptive selling techniques. The results confirmed the hypothesis that self-monitoring behavior positively correlated with adaptive selling techniques.

**Deliberate practice** is a self-regulation activity designed to achieve long-term goals by sacrificing short-term gratification. Deliberate practice encompasses the engagement in sustained practice with a learning activity at regular intervals for the specific purpose of competence improvement in a particular domain and assumes that the activity is not inherently enjoyable. Research has indicated that deliberate practice positively relates to performance level (Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Romer, 1993; Frayne & Geringer, 2000; Sonntag & Kleine, 2000). Performance-enhancing deliberate practice learning activities differ regarding the specific requirements needed for expertise in a particular domain. As such, the specific activities chosen are highly individualized and are employed as a mechanism to achieve a more important long-term outcome.

Sonnentag and Kleine (2000) investigated whether salespeople performed deliberate practice activities and whether or not those actions were related to improved sales performance. Deliberate practice was operationalized as individualized and self-regulated learning activities undertaken with the specific goal of improving one's competence in a particular area of sales performance. In addition, the activities must have been performed on a regular basis. Supporting activities carried out as part of a salesperson's regular role expectations, such as paperwork, new client development, or increased presentations for the specific
purpose of increasing current sales were not considered deliberate practice activities. The reason for this is because while these actions may increase performance, they do not need to be performed on a regular basis and are not necessarily designed to increase competence at a specific aspect of selling. The investigators hypothesized that the amount of both current and cumulative time spent on deliberate practice activities was positively related to sales performance.

A sample of 100 sales agents from ten insurance organizations participated in the study. The cross-sectional design controlled for years of sales experience, quantity of supporting activities, and number of cases handled per day. Participants engaged in a structured interview that assessed the salesperson's general workload, as well as current and cumulative deliberate practice activities. In addition, participants completed, in real time, diary sheets for an entire week that assessed current work and deliberate practice activities. Ratings of salesperson performance were obtained through the sales managers of each organization.

The data were examined through hierarchical regression analysis. The findings revealed that salespeople did indeed engage in deliberate practice activities. Specifically, after controlling for experience, sales load, and supporting activities, current time spent on deliberate practice activities positively correlated with sales performance. Since current deliberate practice activities, by definition, occur over and above time spent on daily general work activities, the results infer that salespeople who engaged in these extra activities had to limit or at least
better manage their current time available for leisure activities. The hypothesis regarding cumulative time spent on deliberate practice activities being related to sales performance was not supported. Reasons for this result may include the reliance on memory for cumulative deliberate practice measurement or from the nature of the job itself. Relying on retrospective accounts of cumulative deliberate practice may not be a measure that is scientifically valid and reliable. Another reason could be because changes in the insurance industry occur rapidly. New products are continually introduced to the market as well as augmented current products. Moreover, new procedures for the marketing and servicing of insurance products may render cumulative expertise in a certain area obsolete over time. The findings of this study illustrate the value of developing self-regulating personal learning strategies in the field of sales through deliberate practice, while negotiating workloads, leisure time, and delayed gratification.

Incorporating self-regulating behavior strategies in sales training programs improves job performance. Frayne and Geringer (2000) investigated the relationship of a theory-based self-management training program and sustained performance improvement in salespeople. Self-management was operationalized as an effort by an individual to exert control over certain aspects of his or her decision-making and behavior. The researchers hypothesized that developing skills in self-management training was positively related to sales performance. A second hypothesis proposed that feelings of self-efficacy and outcome expectancies mediated this relationship. A control-group field experiment using a reversal design assessed 60 salespeople from a life insurance organization who
received training in self-management skills. Each week for four weeks, salespeople received training in self-management principles for two hours. The sessions focused on the following: (a) self-management principles, (b) self-assessment of one's own behavior, (c) establishment of self-set goals, (d) self-monitoring of the target behavior, (e) self-evaluation strategies, (f) writing of behavioral contracts, (g) maintenance strategies for relapse prevention, and (h) an overall review. In addition to objective and subjective job performance measures, the investigation used reaction, learning, cognitive, and behavioral measures as criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of the self-management training program. Self-efficacy and outcome expectations were assessed as possible mediating variables. Measures were taken before training and also after training at three-month intervals over a twelve-month period.

The findings showed that training in self-management behavior had significant effects on all of the measures recorded in the study. The treatment group showed significant increases in learning, reaction, self-efficacy, and outcome expectancies compared to the control group. Self-efficacy and outcome expectancies were found to mediate the relationship between self-management training and performance. Measures taken over the twelve-month period showed that training in self-management techniques produced lasting changes in both the cognitive and emotional realms. Regarding performance, the treatment group not only displayed an immediate increase in performance, but also produced a sustained, gradual increase in performance over time. These findings suggest
that teaching salespeople how to self-regulate and manage their behavior succors in increasing sales performance.

**In Others**

Emotional regulation plays a key role with sales professionals in their interpersonal relationships with prospects and clients. The *emotional contagion hypothesis* involves the transmission of emotion by the sender through various communication channels that creates an unconscious motor mimicry by the receiver of the sender's expressive behavior (Doherty, 1998; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). In selling, emotional contagion occurs when the prospect matches, synchronizes, and reciprocates the salesperson's transmission of emotions. Verbeke (1997) investigated the impact of emotional contagion on sales performance. He hypothesized that salespeople who could better transmit their emotions to prospects would be more effective salespeople than those who poorly transmitted their emotions. A sample of 198 industrial salespeople was classified as emotionally contagious or non-contagious by an emotional contagion scale. Sales performance was assessed by three scales: (1) sales volume, (2) the ability to interact with customers, and (3) the ability to engage in relationships with customers. Analysis of variance procedures showed that emotionally contagious salespeople were more effective performers on all three measures of sales performance. These findings indicate that emotionally expressive salespeople are more effective than less expressive salespeople.
George (1991) investigated the effect of positive mood on the prosocial behaviors of sales professionals. George hypothesized that a positive mood state at work was positively related to the performance of both extrarole and role-prescribed prosocial organizational behaviors beyond fairness cognitions. George also hypothesized that role-prescribed customer service behavior was positively related with actual sales performance. George defined extrarole prosocial behavior as helping behavior the salesperson is not formally required to perform (i.e., altruistic) and is not rewarded by the organization's reward system. For example, a salesperson is not formally required to help another salesperson if that worker is having difficulty in closing sales. Role-prescribed behavior, in contrast, is behavior that is mandated in order to succeed in one's job role. For example, going out of one's way to ensure complete customer satisfaction is a helping behavior that is necessary to be an effective salesperson. Fairness cognitions are the thoughts and feelings perceived by the salesperson that he or she is being treated fairly by the organization.

George (1991) sampled 221 sales professionals by distributing a questionnaire that assessed positive mood state, fairness cognitions, and prosocial behavior. Supervisors were also asked to assess their sales staff and 26 of them completed questionnaires. Positive mood state was operationalized as a temporary state within the past week and was defined as high or low. Fairness cognitions were defined by four components: (1) supervisor fairness, (2) store management fairness, (3) distributive justice, and (4) pay cognitions. Prosocial behavior was measured from two perspectives: extrarole altruistic
behavior and role-prescribed behaviors designed to improve service to the
customer. Sales performance data was collected for the month following
collection of the questionnaires and rating forms. Sales performance was
measured in average sales per hour and was standardized within departments.
Sales per hour were standardized within departments because the various
departments differed in the overall volume and prices of goods sold.

The results supported all of the hypotheses. The correlation between
positive mood and altruism, and the correlation between positive mood and
customer service were both positive and statistically significant. Positive mood at
work, as an affective state, accounted for significant proportions of the variance
in both extrarole and role-prescribed prosocial behaviors beyond that accounted
for by fairness cognitions. Fairness cognitions, as a set, accounted for significant
variance for both altruism and customer service.

Hierarchical regression techniques showed that positive mood accounted
for additional variance beyond the effect of fairness cognitions on altruism.
Positive mood also accounted for additional variance beyond the effect of
fairness cognitions on customer service. Role-prescribed prosocial behavior (i.e.,
customer service behavior) was positively associated with sales performance.
These findings denote that positive moods have an influence on salespeople's
helping behavior with others, whether the goal is improved service to customers
or the involvement in non-required altruistic behaviors. Moreover, the findings
show that improved service to customers is positively related to increased sales
performance. Further research is needed to determine if improved helping
behavior is a mediating or moderating variable, but positive moods clearly have an influence regarding salespeople's behavior in relation to customers.

In the selling process, interpersonal communication has been identified as a self-organizing system (Verbeke, 1994). Within this framework, a conversation begins as a loose interaction of expressive and perceptive behaviors between two individuals, which develops into a positive conversational spiral (Snodgrass, Hecht, & Ploutz-Snyder, 1998; Verbeke, 1994). This spiral leads to a patterned system of communication that is self-organizing, based on both the cognitive and emotional interactions of the customer and the salesperson. It is through the cognitive domain that attitudes can be changed, prices and terms can be negotiated, and outcomes can be evaluated. The emotional domain establishes desires and also facilitates essential intangible components of the interaction, such as liking, trust, commitment, and satisfaction (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990; Jolson & Comer, 1997; Pilling and Eroglu, 1994; Ramsey & Sohi, 1997; Sharma, 1999).

When the positive spiral actualizes, a behavioral meshing dynamic becomes manifest where patterned exchanges occur and the behaviors of both the customer and salesperson become synchronized, resulting in a common interest (e.g., similarity) appreciation (Doherty, 1998; Dwyer, Richard, & Shepherd, 1998; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994; Sharma, 1999; Verbeke, 1994; Verbeke, 1997). This level of communication is referred to as the comfort zone and it is at this higher-order level of trust-based interpersonal communication where relationship selling and buyer satisfaction occurs (Anselmi
In addition, the interpersonal relationship between the salesperson and the customer will continue to expand as long as the perceived benefits are greater than the perceived costs (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990).

Interpersonal skills have an influence on buyer satisfaction feelings. Anselmi and Zemanek (1997) operationalized interpersonal skills as consisting of communication skills, punctuality, and manners. They hypothesized that a salesperson's interpersonal skills were positively related to feelings of buyer satisfaction. A sample of 265 industrial purchasing agents provided interpersonal skill estimates for salespeople that they dealt with on a regular basis. In addition, they also offered their own feelings of satisfaction that they had toward the salespeople. Hierarchical regression was used to analyze the data, with controls set for gender bias, physical characteristics, emotional intensity, and prior history in the relationship. The findings showed that the interpersonal skills of the salespeople were positively related to feelings of buyer satisfaction.

Crosby, Evans, and Cowles (1990) investigated interpersonal influence in services selling through relationship quality. The researchers hypothesized a model of relationship quality called the relationship quality sales model. In this model, similarity, service domain expertise, and relational selling behaviors were antecedents of relationship quality. Sales effectiveness and anticipation of future interactions were hypothesized as consequences of relationship quality. The study was approached from the customer's perspective rather than from the salesperson's perspective. Relationship quality was operationalized as a
two-dimensional construct that consisted of: (1) customer satisfaction, and (2) trust in the salesperson. Customer satisfaction was defined as an emotional state that occurred within the customer as a result of a positive exchange experience with the salesperson. Trust in the salesperson was defined as a conviction by the customer that the salesperson could be depended upon to act in such a way that the long-term concerns of the customer would prevail (Crosby et al., 1990). A sample of 151 life insurance policyholders completed a mail survey that assessed the various components of the relationship quality sales model.

The data were analyzed through analysis of covariance and the model parameters were estimated through LISREL VI. The results indicated that the customer's perception of salesperson similarity and expertise significantly correlated with increased sales. Similarity (e.g., appearance, attitude, lifestyle, and socioeconomic status) had a positive short-term impact on sales effectiveness, whereas perceived expertise had both a short and long-term impact on sales effectiveness. Concerning relational selling behaviors on relationship quality, salespeople who continually focused on long-term relationship nurturing had a strong, positive correlation with the customer's assessment of relationship quality. Examples of long-term relationship nurturing selling behaviors included high contact intensity (i.e., frequent communication), mutual disclosure, periodic needs reassessment, purchase reinforcement, cooperative intentions, personal expressions of emotion, and care to stay in touch. In sum, the salesperson's capacity to influence the customer's commitment to future sales opportunities was decided largely by the quality of
the interpersonal relationship developed with the client, which was facilitated through relationship nurturing behaviors. In addition, the ability to win over those opportunities into closed sales was strongly related to interpersonal influence skills, such as similarity and expertise.

Charisma may be indirectly related to sales effectiveness. Crant and Bateman (2000) investigated the relationship between perceptions of charismatic behavior and the proactive personality. They hypothesized that a proactive personality was positively associated with charismatic behavior. In addition, Crant and Bateman hypothesized that a proactive personality would explain a significant amount of variance regarding charismatic behavior after measures of other personality variables, in-role behavior, social desirability, and demographics were controlled. A sample of 156 managers at a financial services organization completed the Proactive Personality Scale (PPS), the NEO Five-Factor Inventory, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, and demographic information. Their superiors then completed measures of the managers' charismatic leadership behavior and in-role behavior. The data were analyzed using correlation analysis and hierarchical regression techniques. The results indicated a positive relationship between charismatic behavior and a proactive personality. The proactive personality also accounted for a significant amount of variance after the other variables were entered into the regression equation. These findings were limited, however, because managers were assessed and not salespeople.
Crant (1995) also investigated the relationship between a proactive personality and sales performance. Crant hypothesized that a proactive personality and sales performance were positively associated. In addition, Crant hypothesized that a proactive personality would explain a significant amount of variance for sales performance after personality variables, general mental ability, experience, and social desirability were controlled. A sample of 131 real estate agents in a medium-sized midwestern city completed the Proactive Personality Scale (PPS), the NEO Five-Factor Inventory, the Wonderlic Personnel Test, and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Job performance data were collected over a 9-month performance period prior to the administration of the measurement scales. Three objective measures of sales performance were collected: (1) the number of houses sold, (2) the number of listings generated for the organization, and (3) commission income.

Correlation analysis and hierarchical regression techniques were used to analyze the data. The findings revealed that a proactive personality accounted for an additional 8% of the variance for sales performance after experience, social desirability, general mental ability, conscientiousness, and extraversion were entered into the regression equation. In addition, the main effect supported the hypothesis. Salespeople with higher scores on the Proactive Personality Scale had higher objective job performance measures than their less proactive contemporaries. Taken together, these two empirical studies show an indirect but positive relationship between charismatic behavior and sales performance. Verbeke (1997) added empirical support to the relationship between a
charismatic personality and sales performance. In an investigation of 198
industrial salespeople, Verbeke found that emotionally charismatic salespeople
were higher sales performers, in terms of both sales volume and client
development skills, than noncharismatic salespeople.

Utilization of Emotion

Flexible Planning

Emotional intelligence includes the ability of an individual to have the
emotional flexibility to adapt to the situation at hand to meet one's needs.
Successful sales professionals excel at adaptive selling. Tanner (1994, p. 15)
defines adaptive selling as, "That process involves understanding the buyers'
worsts and needs, then altering the sales message to appropriately meet those
needs, including needs associated with the buyer's social and communication
styles." Two categories moderate the effectiveness of practicing adaptive selling.
These categories are the characteristics of the salesperson and the
characteristics of the selling environment (Tanner, 1994). Salespeople can adapt
in several ways. They can change the pace, content, or communication style of
the presentation to emphasize points that best meet their customers'
idiosyncratic needs.

The ability to be flexible in one's planning and thinking involves the ability
to psychologically adapt one's self to meet environmental needs. Goolsby,
Lagace, and Boorom (1992) theorized three psychological traits that reflect
psychological adaptiveness within the selling context: (1) self-monitoring,
androgyny, and intrinsic reward orientation. Self-monitoring is an individual's predisposition to control the images and impressions that others form of him or her in social interactions (Schutte et al., 2001). The salesperson monitors his own thoughts, feelings, and actions while simultaneously observing the same in the prospect. The salesperson then modifies his behavior so that the desired self-image is presented. Self-monitoring was operationalized as consisting of two constructs. The first construct involves the salesperson's sensitivity to the emotionally expressive behavior of others. The second construct measures the salesperson's ability to modify his or her self-presentation strategies. Androgyny is the degree to which an individual can switch between emotionally expressive and instrumental traits during the sales interaction. Intrinsic reward orientation proposes that salespeople will continuously search for a variety of techniques to master their job environment and succeed.

Goolsby, Lagace, and Boorom (1992) hypothesized that psychological adaptiveness was positively related to sales performance. A sample of 177 salespeople from a professional sales organization completed a mail survey that assessed psychological adaptiveness and sales performance. Three scales measured psychological adaptiveness via self-monitoring, androgyny, and intrinsic reward orientation. Sales performance was measured through self-reports that assessed performance across five dimensions: (1) ability to meet sales objectives, (2) acquisition and possession of technical knowledge, (3) tendency to provide information back to the company, (4) behavior relating to controlling expenses, and (5) perceived performance quality in interactions with
customers. In addition, a total performance score was constructed as a summation of scores across the five dimensions.

Multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the data. The results showed that the components of psychological adaptiveness were positively related to sales performance, but each trait had a differential impact. Regarding self-monitoring, sensitivity to the emotionally expressive behavior of customers was positively associated with perceived performance quality in sales interactions. In addition, androgyny was also positively associated with perceived performance quality in sales interactions. Individuals who developed and used flexible planning techniques to switch between emotionally expressive and instrumental traits had higher perceived performance quality levels in their interactions with customers. Alternatively, modifying self-presentation strategies were positively associated with meeting sales objectives. Intrinsic reward orientation was found to be positively associated with technical knowledge accumulation, information feedback to the company, and expense management. In sum, each component of psychological adaptiveness was positively associated with different aspects of selling. The results suggest that salespeople who have high levels of psychological adaptiveness will have higher overall sales performances than salespeople lacking in one or more of these components. The findings also illustrate the importance of flexible planning within the selling process.

Spiro and Weitz (1990) examined the relationship between adaptive selling and sales performance. Adaptive selling was hypothesized to be positively
related with sales performance. Five facets of adaptive selling were assessed through self-reports: (1) recognition that different sales approaches are needed for different customers, (2) confidence in the ability to use a variety of approaches, (3) confidence in the ability to alter an approach during the interaction, (4) collection of information to facilitate adaptation, and (5) actual use of different approaches. A sample of 268 salespeople from a major national manufacturer of diagnostic equipment and supplies completed a questionnaire (ADAPTS) that measured both adaptive selling behaviors and sales performance. The findings showed that adaptive selling behavior positively correlated with sales performance.

Tanner (1994) investigated how salespeople alter the content of their communication during interactions with prospects at a trade show. Three researchers were trained in the interactive observation technique and each researcher was assigned a separate role as either an active, passive, or curious potential buyer. At an exposition called NetWorld, a trade show for companies who produce or distribute local area networking products and services, data was gathered from salespeople. Of the booths visited, 77 resulted in interactions. Of the 77 interactions, 58 salespeople responded to a subsequent survey for a response rate of 75%. Data was collected concerning the number of product statements, qualifying questions, rapport building, and closes initiated by the salesperson for the active, passive, or curious potential buyers.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the data. Significant differences were found for the number of product statements, qualifying
questions, and closes based on whether the prospect was active, passive, or curious. The only variable that was not statistically significant was rapport building. While limited to trade show contexts, these findings indicate that sales professionals use flexible planning techniques to adapt their messages, communication styles, and influence strategies to meet the idiosyncratic needs of the prospects with whom they are interacting.

**Creative Thinking**

Sternberg and Lubart (1996, p. 677) define creativity as, “the ability to produce work that is both novel (i.e., original or unexpected) and appropriate (i.e., useful or meets task constraints).” Affect has an influence on creative thinking (Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Moreover, emotions influence employee creativity in the workplace. Higgins, Qualls, and Couger (1992) investigated the influence of emotions on creativity in the workplace. Higgins et al. (1992) identify four distinct stages that foster creative thought in the workplace. The first stage is the **preparatory** stage, which involves a demanding, mindful, methodical, and unsuccessful investigation of the predicament. The second stage is the **incubation** stage. In this stage, vigorous examination of the difficulty is postponed and it is consigned to the unconscious. In the third stage, the **illumination** stage, innovative ideas ascend to the height of awareness and they are realized. Finally, the fourth stage of creativity is the **verification** stage, where the breakthrough is elucidated and agreed upon, which is important for organizational success.
Sternberg and Lubart (1996) affirm the importance of the ability to persuade others as a core component of creativity. Sternberg and Lubart suggest that creativity involves the ability "...to sell other people on the value of one's ideas" (1996, p. 684). Verification is especially important for employers because it is at this level that the idea is developed, refined, and applied to creatively solve the problem encountered. Throughout each stage of the creative process, cognition interacts with emotion. Emotions can serve as either a positive channel or an obstacle to the creative process.

Emotional states that influence creativity in the workplace may be of two causes: proximal and distal (Higgins et al., 1992). Proximal causes are attributed to the immediate work environment and organizations can play a strong role in managing them. Examples of proximal causes include role conflict and ambiguity, unrealistic quotas, and employee discord. Organizations can alleviate proximal causes by altering selected components of the work environment. Distal causes, in contrast, usually are unrelated to and occur outside of work. These causes are more difficult to ascertain and manage by the organization. Examples of distal causes include marital strife, the death of a loved one, or the birth of a child. Organizations can utilize interventions such as employee assistance programs to manage distal causes of emotional distraction. Understanding and managing proximal and distal causes are important because creative thoughts and actions are sensitive to both the enriching and debilitating effects of emotions.
Creativity is related to sales success and job fulfillment. Goldsmith, McNeilly, and Russ (1989) investigated the impact of salesperson creativity on job satisfaction and performance. They hypothesized that innovation (i.e., creativity) moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and sales performance. Sales professionals and sales managers responded to the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory to assess their general level of innovation abilities. Data was also collected regarding job performance, job satisfaction, salesperson and sales manager demographics. Two groups were selected for analysis: adaptors and innovators. Adaptors accept the status quo and focus on doing their job better and more efficiently. Innovators, in contrast, are highly original in their thinking, do not like to conform, and like to be different in their sales presentations.

Pearson correlations revealed that for the innovative group of salespeople, job performance positively correlated with supervision, pay, promotion, and the job itself. Moreover, to understand the relationship between job performance and satisfaction, the performance scores were regressed across scores on the seven satisfaction scores at the same time. The regression for the innovative sales group was statistically significant. None of the findings for the adaptive group was significant. The results indicate that the creative problem solving styles of sales professionals moderate the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction.

Creative individuals in organizations tend to have certain personal qualities in common. Amabile (1988) investigated the personal qualities shared...
by creative individuals in organizations. A sample of 161 salespeople, marketers, and research scientists were interviewed in order to identify common personal qualities of creative workers. The interviews were analyzed through a detailed content analysis of typed verbatim transcripts of audiotaped interviews. The findings revealed that among the qualities of problem solvers that facilitated creativity, participants rated persistence, energy, self-motivation, and social skills among the highest qualities. Regarding the qualities of problem solvers that inhibited creativity, participants rated a lack of motivation, inflexibility, and poor social skills among the greatest stumbling blocks. These personal qualities align with the components of emotional intelligence.

Creativity and sales attitudes have also been assessed using only salespeople ("Research suggests," 1997). A sample of 496 salespeople was obtained from 29 organizations in nine industries. These industries included automotive retail, medical, financial services, telecommunications, real estate, data processing, hospitality, office equipment, and energy. Participants completed a survey that measured the estimated impact of creativity on their selling effectiveness. The results showed that 76 percent of the respondents believed that creativity had a strong impact on their bottom line selling performance. Specifically, the areas where creativity proved most valuable were delivering sales presentations, creating competitive strategies, closing sales, and managing objections. Creativity proved least valuable in territory management, prospect qualification, and sales lead identification. In addition, 92 percent of all respondents stated that they relied on intuition, which is vital to being creative, in
the selling process. Moreover, half of all respondents surveyed noted increased productivity and effectiveness as the most important benefits derived from creative selling.

Creative selling suffers from a paucity of research regarding its effectiveness. Much of this stems from conceptual and methodological problems in measuring creativity itself. Sternberg and Lubart (1996) note that creativity has received very little research support over the last fifty years. Principal reasons for this include problems in operationalizing and measuring the construct. Sternberg and Lubart, however, advance the proposition that even though it may be difficult to measure, creativity is an important psychological concept and deserves increased research efforts.

**Redirected Attention**

Emotions are an energizing force in stimulating goal-directed behavior with reference to the sales process. Brown, Cron, and Siocum (1997) investigated the motivational effects of emotions on goal setting with sales professionals. In particular, Bagozzi's (1992) model of goal-directed emotions was tested in a longitudinal study of sales professionals. The researchers hypothesized that a sales professional's personal stakes, anticipatory emotions, volitions (i.e., intentions, plans, and intended effort), goal-directed behavior, goal attainment, and outcome emotions were related in a structured sequence. Data were collected for 122 sales professionals at two points in time, which were three months apart, at a medical supplies distributor via questionnaires and company records. The study was conducted with reference to a specific promotion offered
by a single supplier. The promoted product was a powered examination table and the promotion lasted for three months. Salespeople were offered a commission on each table they sold and customers were offered a specially reduced price on the product during the promotion period.

A path model was estimated using LISREL 8 to analyze the data. Personal stakes were related to both positive and negative anticipatory emotions. Positive and negative anticipatory emotions were significantly related to volitions. Volitions were strongly related to goal-directed behaviors. Goal-directed behaviors were strongly related to the degree of goal attainment. This means that the more planning and effort salespeople invested in the promotion, the better they performed relative to their goal. The degree of goal attainment was positively related to positive outcome emotions and negatively related to negative outcome emotions.

Other findings shed additional light on emotions and goal-directed behavior. For instance, the positive path from goal-directed behaviors to positive outcome emotions, excluding goal attainment, suggests that working hard is psychologically rewarding in and of itself, regardless of the level of goal accomplishment. Also, the path from personal stakes to volitions was not statistically significant when the effects of anticipated emotions were deleted. This means that anticipatory emotions (i.e., positive or negative) regarding the contemplated goal play an influential role in the decision to plan and expend effort towards attaining the goal. It is the belief in being able to attain the benefits from the goals contemplated that stimulates positive anticipatory emotions. The
results from this study signify that salespeople act on their feelings, as well as on their thoughts, and that emotions provide a powerful motivational force in redirecting one's attention towards personally meaningful goals.

VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, and Slocum (1999) investigated the relationship between goals and sales performance with self-regulation strategies as a potential mediating variable. They hypothesized that an individual's learning goal orientation was positively related with sales performance, but a performance goal orientation was not related to sales performance. In addition, self-regulation strategies were hypothesized to mediate the relationship between the learning goal orientation and sales performance. According to VandeWalle et al., there are two major classes of goal orientation. A learning goal orientation is the desire to develop competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations. Performance goal orientation refers to the desire to demonstrate and validate one's competence by seeking favorable judgments and avoiding negative judgments.

The study was longitudinal over a three-month period and was conducted with a medical supplies distributor located in the Southwest. The investigation involved 153 sales professionals who sold a specific product in a promotional marketing strategy. The promoted product was a piece of medical equipment with an average unit price of $5,400. Salespeople received a $300 bonus for each unit of the promoted product they sold. Questionnaires were completed at the start of the product promotion. Data on actual sales were collected at the conclusion of the product promotion.
Multivariate regression analysis was employed to analyze the data. Results showed that the learning goal orientation, but not the performance goal orientation, was significantly related to sales performance. In addition, self-regulation strategies fully mediated the relationship between learning goal orientation and sales performance. Comparative results with the performance goal orientation were not statistically significant. These findings indicate the importance of goal setting and effective self-regulation strategies with regard to sales performance. The findings also suggest that sales professionals may be more successful if they focus on developing a learning goal orientation as opposed to a performance goal orientation.

Barrick, Mount, and Strauss (1993) investigated how goals and conscientiousness interacted in relation to sales performance. Research indicates that emotional intelligence correlates positively with conscientiousness (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Dawda & Hart, 2000; Goleman, 1998). Barrick et al. hypothesized that goals mediated the relationship between conscientiousness and sales performance. A sample of 91 wholesale sales representatives for a large appliance manufacturing organization completed measures that assessed the Big Five personality characteristics, general mental ability, autonomous goal commitment, goal difficulty, supervisor ratings, and sales volume over a six-month period. Linear structural equation modeling was used to estimate the maximum likelihood parameters of the model using LISREL 7. The results showed positive and significant relationships among conscientiousness, autonomous goal setting, goal commitment, and job
performance. Specifically, autonomous goal setting and goal commitment mediated the relationship between conscientiousness and both measures of job performance – supervisory ratings and sales volume. A possible explanation for these findings may be that conscientiousness includes achievement orientation and persistence, two motivational characteristics of emotional intelligence, which become redirected through the mechanism of goal setting to effect performance in salespeople (Barrick et al., 1993; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

**Motivation**

Emotions have a strong influence on motivation within the selling process. Badovick (1990) explored the effect of emotions on both salesperson motivation and expectancy estimates of future achievement. Badovick adapted Weiner's (1985) attribution theory of motivation and emotion and applied it to a selling environment. Badovick theorized that the failure for a sales professional to achieve his or her sales quota might activate cognitions of causal attributions to understand the reasons for his or her unsuccessful outcome. These causal attributions could impact estimated expectancies of future achievements and elicit various affective reactions. Both expectancy estimates and emotional reactions were hypothesized to have a mediating effect on salesperson motivation.

Badovick (1990) empirically tested Weiner's (1985) theory on 146 salespeople from a leading business forms and supply company. Only salespeople who failed to make their monthly sales quota were included in the study. A Causal Dimensions Scale was employed to assess each salesperson's
awareness of the fundamental causal dimensions of his or her failure to achieve the monthly sales quota. Salespeople were also asked to complete a questionnaire that measured emotional reactions, expectancy estimates, and motivation.

Path analysis was used to assess the premise that emotional reactions and expectancy estimates mediated causal attributions and motivation. Specifically, LISREL was applied to the data as the model testing procedure. The original list of 38 emotional reactions was collapsed and reduced to four factors: (1) self-blame, (2) performance satisfaction, (3) regret, and (4) blaming others. Emotional reactions after a salesperson's inability to achieve his or her monthly sales quota had a significant effect on consequent motivation. Feelings of self-blame and performance satisfaction both impacted effort motivation, but in opposite ways. Self-blame attribution was related to internal causes. Feelings of self-blame also resulted in increased effort intentions to achieve the following month's sales quota. This implies that these sales professionals assumed personal responsibility for their performance and therefore decided to strive more vigorously to succeed in the following month. Performance satisfaction was positively related to attributions of internal causes and negatively related to stable causes. Moreover, performance satisfaction resulted in a diminished effort in terms of future intentions. This counter-intuitive finding suggests that if a salesperson is satisfied with his or her monthly effort, failure in one month will not result in more effort to make the sales quota in the following month. A reason suggested for this could be that the salesperson is already ahead with his or her
yearly results. Since a salesperson is usually evaluated on a yearly basis, a one month fluctuation may not make a considerable difference.

Emotional reactions for a sales professional's inability to achieve his or her monthly sales quota had a significant influence on expectancy estimates of future achievement. Feelings of regret, however, were the only emotional reactions to influence expectancy estimates directly. Feelings of regret were believed to be outcome dependent since the causal dimension had no significant effect and the positive relationship with expectancy estimates should increase one's confidence to achieve his or her quota in the following month.

Blaming others for personal failure seems to be attribution dependent on both external and stable causes. Blaming others was negatively associated with an internal locus of causality and positively associated with stability. After failure, attributions to external and stable causes result in reduced expectations of future success. This means that salespeople who blame others for their failure attribute the reason to an effect outside of themselves and it also appears unchangeable. As a result, the intention to expend more energy in the future is diminished. Conversely, attributions to unstable causes had little effect. In fact, the study showed that 87% of the responding salespeople attributed their failure to unstable causes. This would make sense considering that the average salesperson was with their organization for approximately 5.1 years. Accordingly, it would be difficult to remain in sales for over five years if stable causes were attributed to the inability to achieve selling quotas. Expectancy estimates of future success also had a positive impact on effort intentions.
No significant relationships were found between the controllability dimension and emotional reactions or expectancy. This may be due to two reasons. First, the authors suggest controllability has been associated with social emotions such as gratitude, pity, or shame. As a result, social emotions are not germane within achievement task situations, especially when actual performance is used as a measure of success. Second, measurement of the controllability dimension was less reliable than the causality or stability subscales. The study could have been more robust if it were longitudinal rather than cross-sectional. Moreover, to minimize range restriction concerns, the study could have focused on all sales professionals rather than just the salespeople who failed to meet their monthly quota. In spite of these limitations, the results give credibility to the important relationship between emotions and motivation for sales professionals.

Emotional and cognitive processes interact to form a person's explanatory style. Explanatory style is a reformulated learned helplessness model that assesses an individual's general level of optimism or pessimism (Seligman & Schulman, 1986). Optimism and pessimism are two independent but highly interrelated constructs (Marshall et al., 1992). In selling, quitting is a principal helplessness deficit related to pessimistic and optimistic explanatory styles. Seligman and Schulman (1986) examined the relationship between explanatory style and sales achievement in two studies. Helplessness deficits were operationalized through two objective performance dimensions: survival and productivity. Survival assessed whether the sales agent stayed with the sales organization in a selling capacity or quit after a specified period of time.

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Productivity was measured from the commission earned by the sales agent, which was calculated as a preset percentage of the income produced from the sale of a life insurance policy.

Seligman and Schulman (1986) hypothesized that people with a pessimistic explanatory style would initiate fewer sales attempts, be less persistent, produce less, and quit more frequently than salespeople with an optimistic explanatory style. The first study was a cross-sectional design that assessed 94 life insurance salespeople's explanatory style and correlated the results with sales productivity, which was measured in gross commissions over a two-year period. Explanatory style was measured by the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ). The second study was a longitudinal design over a one-year period and assessed 103 life insurance salespeople's explanatory styles, sales productivity, and survival rates.

Both investigations yielded similar results. Salespeople with an optimistic explanatory style sold substantially more insurance than salespeople with a pessimistic explanatory style. Specifically, salespeople scoring in the top decile of the ASQ sold 88% more insurance than salespeople in the bottom decile. Moreover, optimistic agents survived at significantly higher rates than pessimistic agents. Salespeople who scored in the optimistic range of the ASQ survived at twice the rate as salespeople who scored in the pessimistic range. No significant differences were found with gender and race variables. The results suggest that salespeople who can cultivate and manage feelings of optimism can achieve more sales and survive longer than salespeople with pessimistic feelings.

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Levels of optimism or pessimism may have an influence on communication apprehension through an individual's prior experiences of success and failure. *Communication apprehension* consists of the feelings of fear or anxiety experienced by an individual in relation to anticipated or real communication interactions with another person or group of people (Pitt & Ramaseshan, 1990). Communication apprehension is a motivational construct that is related to sales performance and is colloquially referred to as rejection. Research has indicated that communication apprehension has also been negatively correlated with emotional maturity and self-esteem (Pitt & Ramaseshan, 1990).

Pitt and Ramaseshan (1990) empirically explored the relationship between communication apprehension and sales success. The researchers hypothesized that an inverse relationship existed between communication apprehension and sales performance. In a field study consisting of 114 salespeople from two industries, media and new automobile, participants completed the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension scale, which measured relative levels of communication apprehension. Sales performance data was obtained through the sales managers. The results confirmed the hypothesis, showing an inverse relationship between communication apprehension and sales performance. These findings suggest that the perceived emotional intensity of communication apprehension can have an important influence on sales success.

Emotional intensity also has an influence on feelings of buyer satisfaction. Anselmi and Zemanek (1997) operationalized emotional intensity as consisting of
persistence, aggressiveness, extraversion, and enthusiasm. They hypothesized that a salesperson’s emotional intensity was positively related to buyer satisfaction. A sample of 265 industrial purchasing agents provided emotional intensity estimates for salespeople that they interacted with on a regular basis. In addition, they also provided their personal feelings of satisfaction that they had toward the salespeople. Hierarchical regression was used to analyze the data, with controls provided for gender bias, physical characteristics, interpersonal skills, and prior history in the relationship. The findings showed that persistence, aggressiveness, extraversion, and enthusiasm were all positively related to buyers’ feelings of satisfaction.

Amabile (1988) identifies effectance motivation as an important influence on task motivation. Effectance motivation posits that individuals possess a natural desire towards personal competence. When an individual succeeds at a task, he or she is rewarded by feelings of personal gratification, efficacy, and increased intrinsic motivation. These feelings will lead to increased goal setting and achievement striving. Failure at mastery, in contrast, leads to decreases in both intrinsic motivation and achievement striving.

Bluen, Barling, and Burns (1990) examined the impact of achievement striving on sales performance. Achievement striving and impatience-irritability are the two core constituents of Type A behavior. In their study, Bluen et al. separated Type A behavior into achievement striving and impatience-irritability constructs. They hypothesized that achievement striving was positively related with sales performance and job satisfaction, while being negatively related with
depression. In contrast, impatience-irritability was hypothesized to be negatively related with sales performance and job satisfaction, while being positively related with depression. A sample of 117 life insurance salespeople completed the Jenkins Activity Survey for Health Predictions to assess achievement striving and impatience-irritability as separate constructs. The total number of insurance policies sold within the last 12 months by the salesperson measured sales performance. Also, the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale measured job satisfaction and the General Health Questionnaire controlled for depression.

The data were analyzed with regression techniques. Experience, tenure, age, and education were controlled extraneous variables. The findings revealed that achievement striving was positively related with the number of insurance policies sold and job satisfaction but was not related to depression. Impatience-irritability was positively related with depression, unrelated to policies sold, and negatively related with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction positively related with the number of insurance policies sold and negatively related with depression. These findings suggest that Type A behavior, when separated into achievement striving and impatience-irritability constructs, offers a better explanation of sales success than when it is applied as a unidimensional construct. In addition, these findings suggest that if an emotionally intelligent individual can develop the capacity to separate Type A behavior into its two underlying components, that individual can work to develop the achievement striving component while simultaneously releasing the impatience-irritability
component. If an individual can succeed in that endeavor, then sales performance should increase, as well as overall emotional health.

**Sales Success and Other Variables**

**Gender**

Selling is an exchange involving a minimum of two parties: the seller and the buyer. Therefore, the receptivity of the buyer to the seller can serve as an intervening variable between a salesperson’s selling ability and his or her performance. Cook and Corey (1991) examined the relationship between gender and perceived selling effectiveness through the lens of the buyer. They hypothesized that buyers would perceive a more negative image of female salespeople than male salespeople. A sample of 112 industrial purchasing agents (70 women and 42 men) participated in a study where they assessed 23 attributes of either men or women that sold to them. In addition, the purchasing agents also rated the relative importance of those attributes. The results did not support the hypothesis. ANOVA techniques indicated that women were not perceived as less effective than men as sales professionals. Moreover, women scored just as high, if not higher, on the attributes considered most important in selling to the buyers. These findings suggest that women and men may be on equal footing in terms of buyer receptivity.

Gender also appears to have a minimal impact on adaptive selling behaviors. Goolsby, Lagace, and Boroom (1992) investigated gender and adaptive selling techniques. They operationalized adaptive selling as comprising three components: (1) androgyny, (2) self-monitoring, and (3) intrinsic reward
orientation. They hypothesized that gender moderated adaptive selling behaviors and sales performance. A sample of 177 sales professionals (71 male and 106 female) completed a self-report questionnaire that measured adaptive selling techniques and sales performance. Regression analysis showed no overall moderating effects between males and females concerning adaptive selling behaviors and sales performance. Regarding the three components of adaptive selling, only androgyny showed any difference between males and females. Self-monitoring and intrinsic reward orientation showed no significant differences between males and females.

Gender also seems to contribute no significant difference regarding optimism and sales performance. Seligman and Schulman (1986) hypothesized that gender was a moderating variable between a salesperson’s optimism level and selling effectiveness. A sample of 94 life insurance sales agents completed the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ), while quarterly commissions for the first two years following employment assessed sales performance. The findings indicated that gender produced no significant differences between optimism levels and sales performance.

Sales performance is also related to the selling techniques chosen by the salesperson. Dwyer, Hill, and Martin (2000) examined gender as a potential moderating variable concerning the relationship between Critical Success Factor (CSF) selling techniques and sales performance. Using a sample frame of 309 life insurance sales agents, Dwyer et al. found that no significant differences were present between males and females in either the highest performing or
lowest performing groups of salespeople. Dwyer, Richard, and Shepherd (1998) investigated the relationship between gender matching and sales performance. They hypothesized that salespeople who sell mostly to prospects of the same gender would show greater sales performances than salespeople who sold mostly to the opposite gender. A sample of 313 salespeople for a national life insurance company was grouped into either a matched or unmatched group based on the gender characteristics of both the salesperson and the prospect. Self-reported sales data was collected on two dimensions: (1) sales performance rating, and (2) number of sales. The sales performance rating dimension consisted of earned sales commissions, exceeding sales objectives and targets, generating new customer sales, generating current customer sales, and overall selling performance. The number of sales dimension was averaged per month over the preceding year. The results revealed no significant relationships between gender matches and sales performance. These findings suggest that, contrary to popular perceptions, gender matching does not have a significant impact on selling outcomes.

**Ethnicity and Culture**

The empirical findings regarding the influence of culture and ethnicity on selling were mixed. Jones, Moore, Stanaland, and Wyatt (1998) examined the impact of salesperson race on perceived credibility. They hypothesized that race-matched pairs of buyers and sellers would positively correlate with favorable perceptions of salesperson credibility. A sample of 268 subjects participated in a
2 x 2 factorial experimental design. The participants were asked react to a simulated purchase scenario involving a long distance phone service that was supplemented with a photograph of the salesperson. This scenario was the same for all of the groups. The only difference in each group was the picture of the salesperson. Participants observed either a male or female salesperson of either Black or White ethnicity. Participants then answered questions concerning the perceived credibility of the salesperson. The data were analyzed with MANCOVA techniques. The hypothesis was not supported. In fact, African American salespeople were rated more favorably than White salespeople in regards to perceived credibility by both African American and White prospects. Moreover, African American salespeople were considered more likeable, trustworthy, attractive, and expert than were the White salespeople. Likewise, gender did not have an impact on the perceived credibility of the salesperson. These findings run counterintuitive to common perceptions of African Americans being shut out of professional sales (Marshall, Stamps, & Moore, 1998).

Salacuse (1998) investigated the influence of cultural background on negotiation. A survey was administered to 310 participants from twelve different cultural backgrounds (e.g., Hispanic, African, European, Asian, etc.). Participants anonymously completed a questionnaire designed to assess attitudes and styles of negotiation. Salacuse found that while cultural groups emphasized different aspects of the styles of negotiation, ten factors emerged that were universal to all twelve cultural backgrounds. These factors included: (1) negotiating goals,
(2) attitudes to the negotiating process, (3) personal styles, (4) styles of communication, (5) time sensitivity, (6) emotionalism, (7) agreement form, (8) agreement building process, (9) negotiating team organization, and (10) risk taking. In sum, while the various cultures differed with respect to how they implemented specific negotiation strategies, the factors of negotiation were common to all of the participants. Therefore, the factors of negotiation should be similar across cultural and ethnic backgrounds.

**Age**

Landau and Werbel (1995) investigated the relationship between age and sales performance. They hypothesized that age was positively related to sales productivity. A representative sample of 111 newly hired sales representatives was queried from a Fortune 500 financial services organization in a longitudinal study. The sales representatives completed two surveys over a nine-month period. The average monthly commissions earned during the first six months of employment measured sales productivity. Hierarchical regression analysis showed that age was positively and directly associated with sales productivity. Since the sample consisted of new sales representatives during their first six months of employment, the study was suspect to range restriction concerns. Nevertheless, the findings point to the relationship between age and sales productivity, which parallels the relationship between age and emotional intelligence.

Dwyer, Richard, and Shepherd (1998) investigated the association between age matching and sales performance. They hypothesized that
salespeople who sold primarily to customers similar in age to the salesperson would demonstrate better sales performance than salespeople who sold regularly to diverse age ranges. A sample of 313 salespeople from a national life insurance company was grouped into either a matched or unmatched group based on the age characteristics of both the salesperson and the customer. Self-reported sales data was collected on two dimensions: (1) sales performance ratings, and (2) number of sales. The results revealed no significant relationship between similar age matching and sales performance.

While the literature shows that many factors of sales success are consistent with emotional intelligence theory, there is no organizing framework that specifically links sales success within the paradigm of emotional intelligence. The current study seeks to connect these two important bodies of research.
CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants for this investigation were sales representatives in the personal home products industry. These sales professionals service their clients by helping to provide solutions for personal storage needs. The organization queried included 380 salespeople. The sample of sales representatives consisted of 128 adults (127 females, 1 male; \( \text{M}_{\text{age}} = 42.5 \text{ years; } SD=13.3 \) who varied with regard to their professional success and income generation, but all worked as sales professionals for the organization. The response rate was 34%. The sampling frame was limited to outside sales representatives who worked specifically in account development. All of the salespeople sold the same range and offering of products. Participants were identified and recruited from the population of sales representatives from the organization under study.

Measures

The measurement of emotional intelligence was assessed through the administration of the Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) instrument. Taccarino and Leonard (1999) of DePaul University developed the Success Tendencies Indicator as a tool to assess emotional intelligence. Jolson and Comer (1997, p. 38) assert, “the validity of any rating scale design is governed by its utility as a predictor of behavior rather than by any artificial standard.” The Success Tendencies Indicator has been confirmed in empirical settings as a valid and reliable measure of emotional intelligence (Bartlett, 1998; Taccarino & Leonard,
The purpose of using the Success Tendencies Indicator in the following investigation was to assess the appraisal, regulation, and utilization of emotion by sales professionals (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

The reason why the Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) was chosen over other emotional intelligence metrics for this study was because the STI measures emotional intelligence from a performance perspective. According to Taccarino and Leonard, "In business settings, the Success Tendencies Indicator is useful to identify individuals who exhibit emotional characteristics and tendencies associated with high levels of work performance" (1999, p. 2). Since the focus of the research was in establishing a relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance, the STI made sense as the best instrument to employ in the study. The Success Tendencies Indicator has also been used as a tool to assess leadership potential and social effectiveness. Moreover, it has been used as an evaluation tool for professional development and management potential (Taccarino & Leonard, 1999).

The Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) is composed of 50 self-report items using yes or no and multiple-choice response formats. The STI is an assessment tool that can be administered individually or in a group setting in approximately 15 to 20 minutes for the average adult reader. The instrument contains two scales: (1) a success tendencies scale, and (2) a positive impression scale. The success tendencies scale is designed to assess emotional intelligence characteristics and tendencies that predict performance effectiveness (Taccarino & Leonard, 1999). Table 1 shows the categories and scoring criteria.
for the success tendencies scale.

An essential component of the STI is the positive impression scale. The positive impression scale is an honesty scale that has been "designed to identify a response pattern, which suggests the possibility that the respondent has attempted, consciously or unconsciously, to create a deceptively positive image of his or her emotional characteristics and success tendencies" (Taccarino & Leonard, 1999, p. 2). This scale is important because individuals often try to promote a positive impression of themselves, especially in a high stakes environment such as sales. Jolson and Comer (1997) contend that salespeople sometimes show a propensity to overrate themselves in comparison to the ratings given by their sales managers. Reasons attributed for this divergence in

Table 1.

Success Tendencies Scale Categories and Scoring Criteria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Scoring Range</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dominant Success Tendencies</td>
<td>53 and above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant Success Tendencies</td>
<td>44 – 52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturing Success Tendencies</td>
<td>35 – 43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Success Tendencies</td>
<td>34 – 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latent Success Tendencies</td>
<td>25 – 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dormant Success Tendencies</td>
<td>15 and below</td>
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assessment include various forms of role ambiguity, role conflicts, ego aggressiveness, and the need to be seen as a sales achiever. A metric containing both a measurement instrument score and a social desirability score that is commingled diminishes the validity of the measurement instrument. Therefore, social desirability needs to be managed separately in empirical investigations involving self-report scales (Crant, 1995; Crant & Bateman, 2000; Geher, Warner, & Brown, 2001; Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995). For these reasons, the positive impression scale of the STI is valuable for discerning lying, manipulation, or overly aggressive ego expressiveness.

**Operational Definitions**

Sales success can mean different things to different people (Bluen, Barling, & Burns, 1990; Brown, Cron, & Leigh, 1993; Comer & Drollinger, 1999; Dwyer, Hill, & Martin, 2000; Ford, Walker, Churchill, & Hartley, 1987; Szymanski & Churchill, 1990; Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer, & Roth, 1998). In personal selling, success is often operationalized as the income earned from the transfer of a product or service to a customer (Churchill, Ford, Hartley, & Walker, 1985; Crant, 1995; Seligman & Schulman, 1986; VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1999). For the purpose of this investigation, sales success was operationalized as a salesperson’s generation of total personal income derived from the organization under study and was collected through self-reported amounts responded to on the Success Tendencies Indicator (STI). Self-reporting of sales performance has been a commonly used and conceptually justified protocol in sales research (Bluen, Barling, & Burns, 1990; Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990;
Scores on the STI measured emotional intelligence. Salespersons with high emotional intelligence were operationalized as those participants who scored in the top quartile of the STI. Salespeople with low emotional intelligence were operationalized as those participants who scored in the bottom quartile of the STI. Gender, age, formal education, income, experience, and ethnicity were measured by six demographic questions at the end of the STI.

Procedure

The nature of selling poses certain challenges to effectively and efficiently collect data. For instance, effective sales professionals conduct their vocation in the field. They are constantly traveling to meet clients and conduct sales presentations. Therefore, they are rarely all at the corporate headquarters. Also, by administering a questionnaire at the regional sales office, a fear may have existed among potential participants as to supervisors having access to completed questionnaires. As a result of this, the ability to have a mass, single administration of the Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) was limited.
Due to the nature of the investigation and the logistics involved, an innovative design was developed to reach all of the sales professionals that was convenient with their schedules and was also anonymous. With the explosion and ubiquity of the Internet over the last decade, a web page protocol was developed to obtain the research data. The web page design was developed because it could reach all of the potential participants and it was also logistically efficient to employ. As standard operating procedure, the salespeople communicated with their organization through electronic mail using a company website. Since an infrastructure already existed for the participants to communicate by way of the World Wide Web, they were able to use this electronic communication network for completing the Success Tendencies Indicator. Participants used an Internet portal and typed in the Universal Resource Locator (URL) address, www.mjegan.com/success, to take the STI. Logistic, geographic, and employee identification concerns were minimized through the innovative design. For sales professionals who did not have personal access to the Internet, the company headquarters provided Internet access. The computers were made available so that salespeople could have privacy and anonymity when accessing the website.

Sales professionals were initially contacted by their sales managers, who, along with the principal researcher, thoroughly discussed the nature and purpose of the research study. The principal researcher was also present at sales meetings to discuss the purpose and potential group benefits of the study, and also was available to answer any questions that the sales representatives may
have had regarding informed consent and confidentiality of responses.

Participants were asked to complete the Success Tendencies Indicator (STI). The participants were informed that the purpose of the research was to help researchers learn more about the relationship between personal attitudes and achievement. Participants were also informed of the benefits, risks, and anonymity of the study. Informed Consent was discussed with the participants at the monthly sales meetings prior to completion of the questionnaire. Contact information of the principal researcher and the creators of the STI was provided for any questions or concerns that the participants may have had. No current or potential risks were expected for participants who completed the questionnaire, which was consistent with Title 45, Code of Federal Regulation, part 46, which defined minimal risk as "the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are no greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological tests" (Handbook for Policies, 1999, p. 10). Participants were instructed that they were free to discontinue answering the questionnaire if they felt any psychological or emotional discomfort at any time by simply exiting from the website.

Since the focus of the study was related only to group averages, there were no anticipated direct benefits to the participant. Participants were informed, however, that by partaking in the study, they would help contribute to the group accumulation of results, which could be potentially beneficial in helping to develop new methods to assist working professionals in the identification of
improved ways of self-empowerment.

The focus of the data collection was the completion of the Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) and demographic questions. The assessment was distributed and returned by accessing and completing the STI on the Internet. The primary method of data collection was consistent with the objectives of the assessment instrument. The administration of the instrument was also consistent with ethical research practices and aligned with DePaul University’s Handbook for Policies and Procedures Governing the Conduct of Research, Development, or Related Activities Involving Human Participants (1999).

The anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents were protected at all times. Several techniques were used to ensure anonymity. First, the instrument did not ask for the participant’s name, or any type of identifying information. In addition, the researcher did not have access to any record of email or Internet address of any participant. Through this protocol, the information was recorded in such a way that it could not be linked to the participant, and therefore the anonymity of every respondent was insured. In addition, each respondent actively consented to an Informed Consent form. After reading and reflecting on the Informed Consent form, the participants marked the I Agree dialog box in order to proceed to the STI questionnaire.

In order to insure that the respondent was a salesperson for the organization, a four-digit company code was entered to access the STI. The four-digit code was the same for all salespeople in order to ensure anonymity. In addition, if at any time during the completion of the survey the respondent felt
uncomfortable answering the questions, he or she could simply exit from the
website by clicking on the Stop dialog box located on the web browser.
Furthermore, they were provided the names, telephone numbers, and email
addresses of Drs. John Taccarino and Margaret Leonard, who are licensed
psychologists and creators of the questionnaire to contact if they felt any
emotional discomfort either during or after answering the questions on the
questionnaire. Moreover, contact information of the principal researcher was also
provided so that participants could have any questions or concerns answered
regarding the purpose or expected outcomes of the study.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Analysis of the Data

The data obtained through the web page protocol was saved in a Microsoft Excel (.XLS) data file format with password protection. The data set was then electronically transferred to SPSS 10.0 for quantitative analysis. The data analysis for the Success Tendencies Indicator was conducted in accordance with the scoring and interpretation rubric as set forth in the Manual for the Success Tendencies Indicator (Taccarino & Leonard, 1999). The sample consisted of 128 completed questionnaires. Eight of the questionnaires exceeded the maximum threshold of the positive impression scale and therefore were not used in the analyses, leaving a total of 120 completed questionnaires that were examined. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for the STI scores.

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics for the Success Tendencies Indicator.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>33.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error of Mean</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>34.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>33.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>11.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>136.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Emotional Intelligence and Sales Performance

Statistical analyses of the group data were conducted to determine relationships and patterns among the data. Table 3 shows the distribution of STI scores across income levels. The reported sales income positively and significantly correlated with the parameters provided from company records, $r(120)=.45$, $p<.01$ (two-tailed). In addition, a Pearson product-moment analysis was used to identify correlations between scores on the Success Tendencies Indicator and sales income generation. The results showed a positive and significant correlation between emotional intelligence and sales income generation, $r(120)=.423$, $p<.01$ (two-tailed). This finding supported the first hypothesis, which stated that emotional intelligence was positively related with sales performance.

Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Success Tendencies Indicator Scores by Income Level.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than $30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dormant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Percentages are listed as a percent of the total of each income level.
High and Low Sales Performers

The second hypothesis stated that the emotional intelligence of high performing sales professionals would be significantly different from the emotional intelligence of low performing sales professionals. Sales professionals were arrayed according their sales performance. High performing sales professionals were operationalized as scoring in the top income quartile, whereas low performing sales professionals were operationalized as scoring in the bottom income quartile. The emotional intelligence scores from the corresponding quartiles were compared using a t-test. Table 4 shows the comparison statistics for high and low performing sales professionals. The findings showed positive and significant differences in emotional intelligence scores between the top and bottom quartiles of the STI, \( t(59)=18.908, p<.01 \). Sales professionals in the top quartile of sales performance had a mean STI score of 43.47, whereas sales professionals in the bottom quartile of sales performance had a mean STI score of 23.50. These findings supported the second hypothesis.

Table 4.
Comparison of High and Low Performing Sales Professionals.

| Number of salespeople in top income quartile | 30 |
| Top quartile mean STI score                | 43.47 |
| Std. Deviation                             | 9.66 |
| Number of salespeople in bottom income quartile | 30 |
| Bottom quartile mean STI score              | 23.50 |
| Std. Deviation                             | 9.13 |
| t value                                    | 18.908 |
| Degrees of freedom                         | 59 |
| Critical region                            | ± 3.54 |
| Significance (two-tailed)                  | .01 |
Demographic Variables

Demographic variables were then analyzed for possible moderating influences. These variables included age, experience, gender, and ethnicity. Table 5 shows the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the observed variables in the study.

Age

Age was compared with emotional intelligence by conducting a Pearson product-moment correlation between STI scores and age. A breakdown of STI scores by age groups is displayed in table 6. The results showed a positive and significant relationship between STI scores and age, \( r(120)=.333, p<.01 \) (two-tailed). These findings were consistent with the literature, which stated that

Table 5.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Observed Variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. STI</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.423*</td>
<td>.333*</td>
<td>.283*</td>
<td>.391*</td>
<td>33.76</td>
<td>11.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Income</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.237*</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>.103</td>
<td></td>
<td>41729</td>
<td>28216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Age</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.282*</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>13.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Experience</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.242*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Education</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( N=120; \; *p < .01 \)
Table 6.

Success Tendencies Indicator Scores by Age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>16 – 24 yrs</th>
<th>25 – 35 yrs</th>
<th>36 – 50 yrs</th>
<th>51 – 65 yrs</th>
<th>Over 65 yrs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dormant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Percentages are listed as a percent of the total of each age group.

emotional intelligence tends to increase with age (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; McConatha, Leone, & Armstrong, 1997; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995; Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995).

When age was correlated with income, the findings were also positive and significant, $r(120)=.237$, p<.01 (two-tailed). However, when a hierarchical regression analysis was performed among STI scores, demographic variables, and income, the effect of age was not significant, $r=.112$, p<.224. In addition, when age was controlled for in a Partial Correlation between STI scores and income, the relationship was still positive and significant, $r(117)=.375$, p<.01.

Table 7 identifies Partial Correlations between STI scores and income when controlling for demographic variables. These findings suggest that while age may correlate with both emotional intelligence and sales performance, it does not moderate the relationship. These findings did not support the third hypothesis, which was that age would moderate emotional intelligence and sales success.
Table 7.

Partial Correlations Between STI Scores and Income when Controlling for Demographic Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.375</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.412</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Experience</td>
<td>.404</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Education**

Level of education was compared with emotional intelligence by conducting a one-way ANOVA analysis between educational level and STI scores. Table 8 shows the mean STI scores by educational level. The results showed significant differences between educational levels and STI scores, $F(4, 120)=6.36, \ p<.01$.

Table 8.

**Mean Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) scores by Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Mean STI Score</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No High School</td>
<td>22.30</td>
<td>10.94</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H.S. or G.E.D.</td>
<td>31.09</td>
<td>9.47</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>34.77</td>
<td>11.87</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>40.31</td>
<td>11.84</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>36.17</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$N=120; \ F(4, 120) = 6.36, \ p<.01$
As can be seen in Figure 1, an examination of the means indicated that educational levels tended to increase with emotional intelligence, but reached a maximum threshold at the bachelor's degree level. Additional formal education past the bachelor's degree did not contribute to one's emotional intelligence level. Education was then correlated with income using a Spearman Rank-order correlation. The results were not significant, $r_s(120)=.103$, $p<.263$ (two-tailed). Moreover, when educational level was controlled for in a Partial Correlation between STI scores and income, the relationship was positive and significant, $r(117)=.412$, $p<.01$ (two-tailed). These results indicated that educational level did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis was not supported.
Professional Experience

The distribution of STI scores by professional experience is displayed in table 9. Professional experience was compared with emotional intelligence by conducting a Pearson product-moment correlation between STI scores and experience. The results showed a positive and significant relationship between STI scores and experience, \( r(120)=.283, p<.01 \) (two-tailed). However, when a Partial Correlation between STI scores and professional experience controlled for age, the results were not significant, \( r(117)=.209, p<.02 \). These findings suggested that age, not professional experience, correlated with emotional intelligence, which has been supported in the literature. In addition, when professional experience was correlated with income, the findings were also not significant, \( r(120)=.138, p<.133 \) (two-tailed). Moreover, when professional experience was controlled for in a Partial Correlation between STI scores and income, the relationship was positive and significant, \( r(117)=.404, p<.01 \) (two-tailed).

Table 9.

Success Tendencies Indicator Scores by Professional Experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less than 1 yr</th>
<th>1 - 3 yrs</th>
<th>3.1 - 5.0 yrs</th>
<th>5.1 - 10 yrs</th>
<th>Over 10 yrs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>No.</strong></td>
<td><strong>%</strong></td>
<td><strong>No.</strong></td>
<td><strong>%</strong></td>
<td><strong>No.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dormant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Percentages are listed as a percent of the total of each level of experience.

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These findings indicated that professional experience did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance. Therefore, the fifth hypothesis, which stated that experience would moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance, could not be supported.

**Gender**

The sixth hypothesis stated that gender would have no influence on emotional intelligence and sales performance. Due to the fact that only one male responded to the questionnaire, quantitative analysis could not be conducted on this hypothesis. Therefore, the gender hypothesis could not be supported from the data.

**Ethnicity**

The last hypothesis stated that ethnicity would have no influence on emotional intelligence and sales performance. Ethnicity was compared with emotional intelligence by conducting a one-way ANOVA analysis between ethnic backgrounds and STI scores. Table 10 shows the mean STI scores by ethnicity.

**Table 10.**

Mean Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) scores by Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Mean STI Score</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>35.56</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>35.90</td>
<td>11.73</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>32.92</td>
<td>11.79</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=120; F(2, 120)=.700, p<.499
The results showed no significant differences between ethnic backgrounds and STI scores, $F(2, 120)=.700, p<.499$. Moreover, when a hierarchical regression analysis was performed among STI scores, demographic variables, and income, the impact of ethnicity was not significant, $r=.061, p<.508$. These findings indicated that ethnic background had no influence on the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance. Therefore, the last hypothesis was supported.

Positive Impression Scale

The positive impression scale was effective in screening out individuals who tried to create a deceptive positive image on the Success Tendencies Indicator. Table 11 shows the descriptive statistics for the positive impression scale. A Pearson product-moment analysis between the success tendencies scale and the positive impression scale yielded a negative and significant relationship, $r(120) = -.474, p<.01$ (two-tailed).

Table 11.

Descriptive Statistics for the Positive Impression Scale.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>18.84</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Std. Error of Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>.42</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Median</strong></td>
<td><strong>19.00</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mode</strong></td>
<td><strong>19.00</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Std. Deviation</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.55</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Variance</strong></td>
<td><strong>20.69</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Range</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Minimum</strong></td>
<td><strong>9</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Maximum</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 2 shows a scatter graph relating scores on the positive impression scale with corresponding scores on the success tendencies scale of the STI. These results suggest that as one's emotional intelligence increases, the need to create a deceptively positive image decreases. A correlation analysis regarding the positive impression scale and sales income generation did not yield significant results. In addition, of the eight respondents that exceeded the maximum threshold of the positive impression scale, the mean success tendencies scale score was in the latent (or weak) range ($M=20.7$).

![Scatter graph](image)

**Figure 2.** Scatter graph showing the relationship between positive impression scale and success tendencies scale scores.

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CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

Findings

This exploratory study tested a model of emotional intelligence and a measure of sales performance. Overall, the results from this study supported the main hypothesis, which was that emotional intelligence positively related to sales performance. Moreover, the findings showed that the emotional intelligence of high performing sales professionals was significantly different from the emotional intelligence of low performing sales professionals. The outcomes from analyzing the demographic variables had mixed results. For example, while age positively and significantly correlated with both emotional intelligence and sales performance, age did not moderate the relationship between the two variables. Also, formal education tended to correlate with emotional intelligence to a point (e.g. bachelor degree), but additional levels of formal education had no marginal impact on emotional intelligence. Furthermore, education did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance.

A prima facie examination of professional experience suggested that it was related to emotional intelligence. However, when the effects of age were controlled for, the results were not significant. Therefore, professional experience did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance. The impact of gender on the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance could not be assessed due to the small sample size of male respondents. Finally, the findings supported the hypothesis...
that ethnicity would have no influence on the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance.

**Significance**

The purpose of this study was to provide a logical bridge between the relationship of emotional intelligence and sales success and help fill the paucity of research in the literature (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Jolson & Comer, 1997; Sanna, Turley, & Mark, 1996; Verbeke, 1997). The results from this investigation help to provide a foundation in establishing a meaningful link between emotional intelligence and sales performance. As such, these findings help to provide value from a global perspective for the fields of psychology and personal selling. The outcomes suggest that emotional intelligence, when viewed as a guiding framework, provides a valuable link with existing theories regarding sales success.

Observing single emotion variables as predictors in scientific studies may increase internal validity, but it often occurs at the expense of ecological validity (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). One personal quality might have a diminutive relationship to salesperson performance, but it, in and of itself, cannot account for overall salesperson performance. Emotional intelligence provides a framework for thinking about the relationship between the complex set of emotions and behavior. By looking at personal qualities from a holistic perspective, researchers can develop better models of salesperson performance. Moreover, by understanding the relationships among multiple variables of human
achievement, researchers can develop programs of action that will improve real
world performance.

These findings propose an empirical connection among a set of personal
qualities that have an impact on salesperson performance. The results put
forward a model of emotional functioning that can assist salespeople to
consciously develop their emotions. By helping people to become aware of,
understand, and utilize their emotions, the findings from this study can offer
salespeople a set of tools that can be employed to solve problems in order to be
more effective and efficient in their chosen profession. Salespeople who become
emotionally adept as a result of developed emotional skills can better resist the
natural urge for instant gratification through the self-regulation of desires. As a
result, they can pursue better and more meaningful long-term pleasures.
Through this, they can optimize long-term happiness (Mayer & Salovey, 1995;
Shoda, Mischel, & Peake, 1990). As agents of change, salespeople can utilize
both pro-individual and pro-social strategies to meet the needs of all stakeholders
in the selling matrix. Therefore, it is important to support salespeople to appraise,
regulate, and utilize their emotional intelligence skills from a holistic perspective
in order to improve sales performance. By developing these indispensable skills,
salespeople will acquire a competitive advantage in an increasingly competitive
marketplace.

Limitations

The study utilized a sample consisting of salespeople working for a single
company. Because the sample was only from one organization, it was not a
heterogeneous probability sample of all salespeople. In addition, since responding to the questionnaire was completely voluntary and anonymous, the sample may not have been a true statistical representation of the organization under study. Moreover, the sample frame was located in one geographical region of the country. Therefore, findings from this study may not have strong generalizability to other firms or industries.

Since the levels of emotional intelligence and income generation from selling were assessed concurrently through a cross-sectional design, the direction of causality between emotional intelligence and sales performance could only be inferred. It is also possible that the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance could be bi-directional. Even though the direction of causality could not be established with certainty, the findings from this study can still predict selling effectiveness.

The variable of gender could not be examined due to the small sample size of male respondents. In essence, this study measured the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales success in women. Therefore, a significant limitation of this study was that it did not assess the impact of emotional intelligence on sales success in men. Moreover, other variables important for sales achievement were purposely left out of this investigation in order to provide a specific focus for the variables under consideration. Variables such as time management, instrumental sales skills, product/service differentiation, and adherence to the sales cycle have a strong influence on sales achievement, but were not included in this study. Further research could include
and integrate these variables with emotional intelligence to develop an overall model of achievement in sales.

Emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence have been linked together in the literature as working in a bi-directional relationship to enhance overall human functioning (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Keenan, 2002; Lam & Kirby, 2002; LeDoux, 1998; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Pelliteri, 2002). A possible limitation of this study was that it did not control for cognitive intelligence.

This study has explored a gap in the literature that has not been yet been scientifically addressed. As a result, the focus of this study has been on establishing a link between emotional intelligence and sales performance. Therefore, emotional intelligence was operationalized as a global construct with an overall score. The study did not assess the interrelation of the subsidiary components of emotional intelligence (e.g. appraisal, regulation, or utilization). Future research, however, can serve to expand and clarify upon the groundbreaking link explored in this study. Moreover, the global construct of emotional intelligence may not have thoroughly exhausted the possibilities of additional emotion components involved in effective selling (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999).

Implications

Theoretical

These findings serve as a first step in meeting the challenge for research propositions in the literature (Sojka & Deeter-Schmelz, 2002). As the literature
expands, alternative models of emotional functioning may be designed as it relates specifically to the personal selling context. Improved models of human performance can provide corporate educators with theories of action that can be implemented for real world results. Both researchers and practitioners in the field are now realizing the need for theoretical research that has practical implications (Viadero, 2003). This also means that researchers can now have a new lens through which they can view the multiple and complex determinants of salesperson effectiveness.

Researchers can serve as useful assets to practitioners by establishing and quantifying new models of performance that will add value to the personal selling profession and society at large. Developments at the theoretical level can provide a baseline through which real world programs can be developed and implemented. Moreover, theoretical models can serve to ameliorate the common myths and misconceptions people often develop about emotional health from folk wisdom or popular culture.

Researchers are also bringing to mind the importance of integrating emotions with general reasoning skills for optimal decision-making. Cooper (1997) opines:

We are paying a drastic price, in our personal lives and organizations, for our attempts to separate our hearts from our heads and our emotions from our intellect. It can't be done. We need them both, and we need them working together (p. 32).
Developing theoretical models that integrate emotional intelligence with cognitive intelligence can facilitate progress in the pursuit of understanding overall human functioning and performance (Fox & Spector, 2000; Gardner, 1983; Goleman, 1998; Lam & Kirby, 2002; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Sojka & Deeter-Schmelz, 2002).

**Personal Selling**

Emotional intelligence skills can be learned and improved over time, which can give hope to salespeople deficient in these areas (Goleman, 1998; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; McConatha, Leone, & Armstrong, 1997; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995; Sojka & Deeter-Schmelz, 2002; Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995). This means that salespeople can improve personal qualities that can result in increased performance and job satisfaction. Salespeople can use the self-regulating knowledge they have learned about emotions to clarify, monitor, and repair perceived emotional hurts that may occur in the selling context. Proactive behaviors that serve to maintain positive moods or repair negative moods could include activities such as thought stopping, reframing, and creative problem solving. Activities such as these are especially important in the sales close, where objections and rejections of the product or service usually occurs (Futrell, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Mayer & Stevens, 1994; Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995).

Emotional intelligence can help the salesperson improve his or her persuasion skills, which can result in a more effective and efficient communication process. Emotional intelligence is useful when engaging in
questioning and probing activities to collect information in order to uncover real buyer needs, rather than forcing an unneeded product on a customer. The salesperson can use techniques such as nonverbal perception to watch for buying signals in the customer. By learning the emotional knowledge necessary to manage emotional content in one's self and in others, salespeople can create feedback loops that are necessary in the selling process. Feedback loops are important because they serve to build communication bridges between the buyer and seller. By developing the emotional intelligence to recognize and empathize with the prospect's situation and buying style, the salesperson can use her or his flexible thinking skills to adapt the presentation based on the customer's real and perceived needs. Since this study focused essentially on women, the findings suggest that managing emotional content is especially important for female salespeople in the field.

Salespeople can also develop their emotional intelligence expertise to help the buyer reduce feelings of post-purchase dissonance that commonly occur after a customer has made a substantial purchase or has had difficulty in choosing among various products or services. This benefits both the organization and the buyer. The organization benefits because by truly meeting the customer's real needs, the costs associated with returns or replacements will decrease, thereby improving the company's bottom line. Buyers will benefit because the salesperson can help assure them that the feelings they are experiencing are normal and common. By demonstrating to the buyer that the product or service has truly met their real needs, the salesperson can help the
buyer to feel comfortable with the purchase, thereby allowing the benefits to start accruing to the buyer.

Sales managers, corporate educators, and salespeople can benefit from this research through a four-step program: (1) identify the salesperson's current emotional intelligence knowledge, (2) employ deliberate practice activities, training exercises, and role playing scenarios to improve personal areas of weakness, (3) evaluate growth in emotional knowledge and application, and (4) relate to progress in sales performance (Frayne & Geringer, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Sojka & Deeter-Schmelz, 2002; Sonnentag & Kleine, 2000). Individualizing instruction for salespeople can optimize salesperson growth. This is necessary because human beings already come to the workplace with a frequency distribution of abilities, which means that employees will be more or less emotionally intelligent in different areas. As a result, salespeople can now engage in a personal process that can provide a mechanism of change in order to stimulate performance in the field where it counts. Employing techniques such as introspection, reflection, inquiry, artistry, and spirituality can assist salespeople to consciously cultivate their emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). The collective individual growth from this process will cause a rising tide in organizational growth.

Sales professionals can be made more familiar with emotional intelligence and its benefits as part of a training program or emotional competence development course. Companies can cultivate a learning organization by putting into practice specific interventions and organizational procedures that aim at
emotional intelligence improvement over time. For example, at the end of a monthly or quarterly sales production meeting, the sales manager could implement a habit of mind to discuss emotional intelligence components important to selling performance. By making a conscious habit of reflecting upon emotional experiences and relating them to the pursuit of improved performance, sales managers will facilitate the cultivation of a meta-experience of mood (Mayer & Stevens, 1994). Sales managers can use this new knowledge to implement a total quality management system for their department, whereby they can have a comprehensive set of information and resources at their fingertips to better monitor the effectiveness of their salespeople and also assist underperforming salespeople. This is important, considering the high training costs and attrition that occurs in salesperson development programs (Futrell, 2000; Hansen & Conrad, 1991; Kotler, 2000; Lucas, Parasuraman, Davis, & Enis, 1987).

Human resource departments can use emotional intelligence assessment tools as one component of an integrated screening process for potential employees. Alternatively, training departments at large organizations can implement emotional intelligence development programs as part of their already established professional development process to build capacity and coherence throughout the organization. Psychologists and educators can also serve as external partners to provide cutting-edge performance improvement strategies as the literature regarding emotional intelligence and sales success expands in depth and complexity.
Leadership

The capability to sell can be applied to a much larger context that just personal selling. Selling involves the core human activity of influencing others. The ability to influence others to reach agreements applies to people in all types of leadership positions. For example, in addition to using the emotional intelligence skills of flexible and creative thinking to articulate a vision for an organization, a leader who is a change agent must also master the emotional ability to translate that vision into a shared vision. In other words, a leader must develop the persuasive skills to "sell" all of the relevant stakeholders on the value and possibility of the vision. By convincing stakeholders to buy into working towards the vision, the leader translates the vision into a shared vision. The leader, therefore, must use the emotional intelligence skills of regulating the self and regulating others to achieve the organization's goals.

A leader with strong emotional intelligence actively seeks for the hidden connections and centers of influence within the organization in order to leverage change, thereby creating the invisible opportunities not seen by others. A person who is emotionally adept develops the tools necessary to create critical success factors within herself or himself. These factors create the ability to facilitate teamwork, establish communication networks, and innovate for organizational growth (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997).

Teams consist of members of a group working together towards an objective that benefits the group. Teamwork involves the alignment of its members towards a goal. In this process the members function as a whole.
Within a team, there needs to be a commonality of purpose, a shared vision, and an affinity of how to synergize with other team members' efforts to optimize the group's accomplishments (Senge, 1990). An emotionally intelligent person develops the tools necessary to perceive the needs and desires of the key players and create environments and opportunities in which each member finds it in his or her best interests to work together for a common goal. Establishing communication networks would include critical success factors such as establishing empathic perspective taking among team members and promoting active listening skills through training programs and seminars. Innovation at the organizational level would involve the emotional strength to eschew rigid thinking and instead foster opportunities in which risk taking and divergent ways of thinking are not criticized immediately, but instead are given a chance to see if the new ideas have pragmatic value. Creative thinking would also promote opportunities to develop permutations or combinations to new or different ideas, which can adapt the actions of the organization to solve new or chronic problems.

A leader with strong emotional intelligence not only seeks to promote the capacity to succeed within herself or himself, but also seeks to find the potential in others while creating opportunities to help others succeed. This requires a strong degree of self-motivation, because leaders, by definition, help lead others to the shared vision. As a result, they must search within themselves for motivation. In addition to motivating themselves, a successful leader also strives
to motivate others and build strength within the various teams and levels of the organization.

Emotions are an important and valuable component of human existence. Moreover, it is normal for human beings to emote feelings of anger, frustration, or stress in challenging situations. Developing one's emotional intelligence, however, can help a person to become aware of feelings, regulate them, and use them as sources of information to make decisions that can optimize life satisfaction. For people in leadership positions, developing one's emotional intelligence can be beneficial in a myriad of ways. For example, increased emotional competence might mean that a leader could pick up more quickly on possible quarrels and tensions that may arise in an organizational environment than in the past. As a result, he or she can take proactive steps to minimize or eradicate the conflicts before they arise. Managing organizational problems can be analogous to diagnosing diseases. In the early stages, they may be harder to detect, but they are often easier to cure. If they are ignored, later on they may be easier to detect but harder to cure. Emotional intelligence can go a long way to help solve small problems before they become large problems.

Organizational growth does not occur without human growth, and human growth is chiefly under the charge of the individual. Emotional intelligence training may denote just one element in an organization's efforts to realize enhanced performance and effectiveness. Notwithstanding other types of effectiveness training, emotional intelligence practices represent an invaluable and necessary constituent for increased sales performance. This is especially
important given the downward pressures on performance that have evolved in an increasingly technological and competitive global marketplace.

Future Directions

This investigation explored and documented a very important relationship between effective selling and emotional intelligence. While important, emotional intelligence is only one component of the selling process. Selling is a multifaceted process comprised of multiple skill sets (Churchill, Ford, Hartley, & Walker, 1985; Dwyer, Hill, & Martin, 2000; Merenda & Jacob, 1987; Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer, & Roth, 1998). Subsequent research can add value to the literature by integrating the various components that comprise sales success together with emotional intelligence into a comprehensive model. Moreover, succeeding studies might investigate how emotional intelligence can be increased or educed. In addition, ensuing queries into sales success might integrate emotional intelligence with other important human qualities, such as leadership and management skills.

Future research might also separate the components of emotional intelligence and examine how each component covaries with each other for sales success. By incorporating how the different components of emotional intelligence interact with other learned selling skills, researchers can prosper at developing a multifaceted, yet holistic understanding of how personal, social, instrumental, and organizational factors interact for successful sales performance. Additional research could also detach the cognitive aspects from emotional intelligence and examine how they interact for healthy overall human functioning (Ciarrochi,
Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Lam & Kirby, 2002; Pellitteri, 2002; Schutte et al., 2001).
Since this study did not control for general mental ability, future research should
control for cognitive intelligence and also assess how emotional awareness
interacts with cognitive reasoning skills to facilitate emotional intelligence.

Future studies regarding emotional intelligence and sales success should
include comparable numbers of both female and male salespeople. Through this,
ensuing studies can determine which gender has a higher emotional intelligence.
Alternatively, additional studies may show that women and men may have a
similar overall emotional intelligence, but may differ in the various emotional
intelligence subcomponents.

In addition to evaluating the emotional intelligence of the salesperson from
an inside perspective, future research might also include assessing emotional
intelligence from an outside perspective. Specifically, researchers could evaluate
the perceived emotional intelligence of the salesperson through the eyes of the
customer (Sojka & Deeter-Schmelz, 2002). Since the customer makes the
decision of whether or not to buy from the salesperson, her or his input is
invaluable. The customer, therefore, is the final judge as to the effectiveness of
the salesperson. Evaluating emotional effectiveness without the buyer’s
perspective would give an incomplete picture to researchers and practitioners.

Since the present study proposes an observed connection between
emotional intelligence and sales performance, the next step in the research
process should include longitudinal research designs. This methodological
paradigm may help in arriving at a better insight into the developmental
processes that may occur over time. In addition, prospective studies could employ a performance-based approach, rather than a paper-and-pencil self-report questionnaire (Hansen & Conrad, 1991; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Nelson, 1987; Verbeke, 1994).

The findings from this study suggest an empirical link between emotional intelligence and sales success. Personal selling, however, can be viewed as much larger than a series of instrumental stages for the purpose of producing orders (Dwyer, Hill, & Martin, 2000; Kotler, 2000). Selling is a core human activity that occurs from the humblest human interaction to the boardrooms of America’s largest corporations. Selling, in its broadest form, is a process whereby human beings communicate multiple types of information and, in the process, persuade people to reach agreements (Cialdini, 2001a; Futrell, 2000). Through the selling process, individuals and organizations can realize unlimited human potential. Emotional intelligence, when viewed from a global frame, can serve to succor the selling process. Scientific insight into this relationship will help researchers and leaders in both the scientific and business communities identify and use the knowledge gained from the research to assist them in their professional practices.
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Welcome to the Success Tendencies Indicator (STI) website. My name is George Chipain. As an educational researcher at DePaul University, my mission is to assess, identify, and develop qualities that lead to personal and professional success.

I would like your help in helping to develop the STI. Simply enter your company code (provided by your company), answer the questions, and press the "submit answers" button. The company code is the same for everyone in your company because the research interest is only in group results. If you have any questions or concerns about the nature and purpose of the Success Tendencies Indicator either before, during, or after you participate, please feel encouraged to contact its creators, John Taccarino, Ph.D. or Margaret Leonard, Ph.D. at DePaul University at (773) 325-4348. Email: Jtaccari@wp.post.depaul.edu. You can also contact me, George Chipain, at (815) 577-9448. My email is GChipain@aol.com.

Since you are not asked to place your name or any identifying information anywhere on the questionnaire, your responses will be completely anonymous. Please read the Informed Consent form below and indicate either your acceptance or refusal to participate in this anonymous research project by choosing the appropriate response.
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Emotional Intelligence And Its Relationship With Sales Success

1. My name is George Chipain from DePaul University.

2. We are asking you to take part in a research study because we are trying to learn more about characteristics that lead to professional success in sales. The study consists of a questionnaire that asks questions about personal attitudes. Your participation would consist of responding to a questionnaire consisting of multiple-choice questions that should take no more than about twenty minutes to complete.

3. If you agree to be in this study, you will be helping researchers to identify the relationship between personal attitudes and achievement. The group results will be used to develop new methods to assist working professionals in identifying and developing improved ways of self-empowerment.

4. A minimal risk may be emotional discomfort. If you experience any emotional discomfort while answering the questions, you can discontinue the survey at any time without penalty. Also, if you feel any emotional discomfort, you can contact Dr. John Taccarino at (773) 325-4348 or George Chipain at (815) 577-9448 for more information about the nature and purpose of the study. All of your answers will be completely anonymous and will only be reported as part of a larger group of information. Your responses will be combined with other participant responses for group averages.

5. Since the focus of the study is on group findings, there are no expected direct individual benefits. Your participation in the study, however, will contribute to the group accumulation of results, which can be potentially beneficial in helping to develop new methods to assist working professionals in identifying and developing improved ways of self-empowerment.
6. If you do not want to be in this study, you do not have to participate. Remember, being in this study is entirely up to you and no one will be upset if you do not want to participate. Even if you change your mind later and want to stop, you may withdraw your agreement to participate without any consequences.

7. All information that you provide in this research study will be kept strictly confidential and any report of this research will not identify you personally in any way. Also, there will be neither any payment nor expense involved for your participation in this study.

8. You can ask any questions that you have about the study. If you have a question later that you did not think of now, you can call me, George Chipain, at (815) 577-9448.

9. Clicking on the “I Agree” button at the bottom means that you agree to participate in this study. You can print a copy of this form for your records, if you choose.

10. Investigator’s Responsibility: I have explained to the participant the nature and the purpose of the above described research procedures and the risks and benefits involved in its performance. I will answer all questions to the best of my ability. I have made available a copy of the consent form for the participant by asking the participant to click on the “Print” button on her or his browser.

Participant’s Consent: I have been satisfactorily informed of the above described procedure with its possible risks and benefits. I agree to participate in this research study. If I have any questions regarding my rights as a participant in this research study, I may request to speak to the Coordinator of the DePaul University Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Research Participants by calling (773) 325-2593. I understand that my participation in this research study is voluntary and that I am free to stop participating at any time, without any consequences, even after agreeing with this form. I have been offered a copy of this form.

I Agree: ☐  I Disagree: ☐  Enter Company Code:  

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For each of the following items, please select the answer that best represents your beliefs or experiences. Please answer every question.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Q#</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Were you in an honors class in high school?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Do you sometimes put off until tomorrow what you ought to do today?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Does it really bother you when you make even a small mistake?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Have you ever lost your temper?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Have you ever been late for school or work?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Do you need a lot of excitement and variety in your life to be happy?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Have you had more bad luck in your life than most people?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Do you think people who are average, or just above average in intelligence</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>make better managers in business settings than individuals who are very intelligent?</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>Have you ever told a lie?</td>
<td>Y</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>A person was recently fired from his job because it was discovered that he had observed another employee stealing merchandise but did not report him. Was his boss fair in firing him?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Would you ever like to do something a little dangerous, like hang gliding or ski jumping, just for the thrill and adventure of it?</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>Are you more of a listener than a talker?</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>Did you or do you hold an office in student government in high school or college?</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>Do you tend to feel uncomfortable around people whose family is a lot wealthier or socially prominent than your family?</td>
<td>Y</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>Did you enjoy most of your classes in high school?</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>If you were given too much change after paying your bill, at an over-priced restaurant where you had just eaten a poorly prepared meal, would you return the money?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Did your parents permit you to drink wine, liquor or beer at home when you were growing up?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Do you think you are physically stronger than most people of your age and gender?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Did you have an overall grade-point average of B or better, in high school?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>When you are at parties, do you usually initiate conversations rather than waiting for someone else to take the initiative?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Was your father generally very encouraging and affectionate towards you when you were a child?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Do you think you could do a better job solving our national problems rather than most of the politicians in Washington?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Would you prefer to read a newspaper rather than watch a television news program?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>In high school or college, were you often given the burden of organizing parties and social affairs for the groups to which you belonged?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Have you ever been late paying a bill or giving back money you owed?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Do you think you might enjoy being an archaeologist?</td>
<td>Y N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Would you feel any resentment if the company for which you worked requested that you donate a great deal of your weekend and personal time for charitable and community activities</td>
<td>Y N</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td>Have you ever done anything reckless that could have gotten you into trouble, if you had been caught?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>29</strong></td>
<td>Would you tend to be anxious and nervous if you were about to give an important speech before a large group?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td>Do people often ask you for advice?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td>Were you a member of an athletic team in high school or college?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td>Do you think that most businesses would be a lot more effective if their managers realized that there is usually just one right way to do things, and then proceed to do it?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
<td>Did you enjoy science courses more than art or music?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>34</strong></td>
<td>Do you sometimes feel that you take on too much responsibility in your personal, school or work life?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>35</strong></td>
<td>Do you spend a lot of time trying to keep your body in shape through a vigorous regimen of physical exercise and activity?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>36</strong></td>
<td>Do you enjoy listening to gossip?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td>Do you have so many interests and activities that you never feel bored?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q#</td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
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<td>----</td>
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<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Is career success the most important goal in your life?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Do you think that you might enjoy coaching or managing an athletic team?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Do you think that most employees have a better understanding of what is going on in a business than their bosses do?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Were you considered extremely popular in high school?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Did either or both of your parents spend a lot of time helping you with your studies when you were a child?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Do you think people, who generally take a long time to reach a decision, tend to be more effective than those who usually make decisions more quickly?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Do you enjoy watching local news more than national news on television?</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>What is the highest educational level you realistically expect to complete?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A. high school</td>
<td>C</td>
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<td></td>
<td>B. associate degree</td>
<td>C</td>
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<td></td>
<td>C. undergraduate or bachelor degree</td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
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<td>D. graduate or</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>46</strong></td>
<td><strong>Are you most interested in reading books and articles which:</strong></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A. improve your job skills</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. increase your general knowledge</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. give you insight into yourself and those around you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. are related to your hobbies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E. help you to solve practical life and business problems</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td><strong>Which part of the newspaper do you tend to read first?</strong></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A. The front page</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. The features section</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. The sports page</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. The business section</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E. The editorial page</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
<td><strong>How many times have you been late for school or work in the last year?</strong></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A. 0-1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. 2-4</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. 5-8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. 9-12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E. More than 12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>49</strong></td>
<td><strong>When you first approach a difficult technical</strong></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Problem Would You Initially:

A. try to solve the problem through practical trial and error approaches  
B. go to the library and try to find a book that could help you  
C. hire an expert to advise you  
D. try to think of a theory that you could apply to the problem  
E. try to think of, analyze and use as many alternative ways of solving the problem as possible.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>How would you rate yourself in terms of your most recent academic or job performance?</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|   | A. very effective  
B. effective  
C. somewhat effective  
D. ineffective  
E. very ineffective |   |   |   |   |   |

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>What is your gender?</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|   | A. Female  
B. Male |   |   |

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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>What is your age range?</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|   | A. 16 - 24  
B. 25 - 35  
C. 36 - 50 |   |   |   |   |   |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>What is the highest level of education you have completed or are presently completing?</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>No high school diploma</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>High school graduate or GED</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Associate degree, two years of college or less</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Bachelor or four year college degree</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Graduate or professional school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>What do you estimate your job-related income was for the past 12 months?</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>under $30,000</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>$30,000 - $49,999</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>$50,000 - $74,999</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>$75,000 - $99,999</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>$100,000 or more</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>What is your racial/ethnic background?</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>African American</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>How long have you been</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>working in your current profession (e.g. sales, management, accounting, etc.)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. less than 1 year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. 1 - 3 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. 3.1 - 5 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. 5.1 - 10 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. more than 10 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Success Tendencies Indicator

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Thank you for your responses. Remember, this study is only interested in group findings, not any individual score. Your participation in this study will contribute to the group accumulation of results, which can be potentially beneficial in helping to develop new methods to assist working professionals in identifying and developing improved ways of self-empowerment.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact Dr. John Taccarino, Ph.D., at (773) 325-4348, email: jtaccari@wppost.depaul.edu or George Chipain, at (815) 577-9448, email: GChipain@aol.com.

Again, thank you for your participation in this study.
VITA

George Constantine Chipain

The author was born in Oak Park, Illinois, on April 5, 1964. He graduated cum laude, with Honors, in 1987 from Concordia University in River Forest, Illinois. In addition to receiving a Master of Business Administration degree in Marketing with Distinction from DePaul University in 1992, the author also received a Master of Arts degree in Teaching from Roosevelt University in 1994. The author currently is an educator at the Stockton School in Chicago, Illinois.