

AWARENESS AND ACTION: IMPLICATIONS AND DIMENSIONALITY OF
SALESPERSON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

by

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ABSTRACT

Recently, sales literature has begun to recognize that emotional intelligence (EI), which is a distinct form of intelligence entailing the perception, understanding, facilitation, and management of emotions, is a salesperson characteristic that has the potential to substantively impact interpersonal success and, ultimately, performance. This research explores specific outcomes and boundary conditions of EI in a sales context with a field study including a salesperson sample. Further, it stands to contribute to the considerable debate surrounding emotional intelligence by first empirically comparing competing conceptualizations in the same sample. Second, this research proposes and provides empirical support for a new conceptualization of emotional intelligence as consisting of cognitive and behavioral components which are not only distinct from each other but also are progressive in nature. Finally, moderators are found which impact a salesperson's ability to translate cognitive EI into behavioral EI.

DEDICATION

For my family:

Thank you mom, dad, Ann, Tom, and Jane

And for Collin

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I would like to thank my family, friends, faculty, and fellow doctoral students for their support and guidance throughout my doctoral program and dissertation process.

First, I would like to thank my family. My mom and dad and my siblings, Ann, Tom and Jane, are everything to me. I would not have made it into or out of the doctoral program without their love and support. I consider the geographic distance between my family and me to be the single greatest sacrifice of my pursuing my doctoral degree. I have always known that it would be worth it, and I work every day to make them proud. I would also like to thank Collin, without whom my experience would be much less joyful and much less interesting. Having someone by my side that was going through the same process was also invaluable to me. I consider meeting Collin to be the greatest triumph of my doctoral degree and the best serendipity of my choice to attend the University of Alabama.

I would like to thank my dear friends from the various stops along my journey in Kentucky, Germany, and in Minnesota. In the pursuit of education I have moved thousands of miles, each time leaving behind friends with whom I was very loath to part. I also owe a debt of gratitude to the multitude of friends that I've made here in Alabama. I moved to Alabama alone and without knowing a soul in the state. The people that I've met here are the reason that I so quickly began to think of Tuscaloosa as my home and are an inextricable part of my experience here. As I prepare to graduate and move away I find myself, again, in the position of lamenting the people I will be leaving.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The sales force is an important entity within a firm. In addition to playing a unique role as boundary spanners between the customer and the firm (Lysonski & Johnson, 1983), it is a source of revenue (Anderson, 2008) and has the potential to both create and sustain value for customers (Blocker et al., 2012). As such, salesperson performance and its associated drivers are of considerable interest to managers.

The nature of the sales profession requires that salespeople interact extensively with customers. Accordingly, interpersonal skills are widely regarded as a key driver of effective sales performance (Borg & Johnston, 2013; Weitz & Bradford, 1999). The extant literature indicates the beneficial effects of salesperson interpersonal skills and traits. Salesperson likability and interpersonal chemistry, for example, are associated with a number of positive sales outcomes (Andersen & Kumar, 2006; Jobber & Lancaster, 2009). Further, both skills such as the ability to handle conflict (Weitz & Bradford, 1999) and personal traits such as empathy (Rozell et al., 2004) are acknowledged as fundamental elements of relational selling success. Recently, the sales literature has begun to recognize that emotional intelligence (EI) represents a salesperson characteristic with considerable potential to impact interpersonal success.

Emotional intelligence is a type of intelligence entailing the recognition of emotions and how they manifest, interact, and impact situations and the control over emotions (Mayer et al., 1999). The EI construct is differentiated from standard intelligence because it deals exclusively

with human emotions. In its current conceptualization, EI encompasses not only the ability to appraise emotions in others and the self, but also the ability to express and utilize them (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). An emotionally intelligent person has the ability to accurately recognize and assess emotions in themselves and others, as well as to consolidate emotional experiences into a knowledge base which allows for the purposeful direction of emotions towards the achievement of desired outcomes (Kidwell et al., 2008; Kidwell et al., 2011; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It represents the “capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking” (Mayer et al., 2004, p. 197) and the strategic use, or facilitation, of EI to pursue goals (Kilduff et al., 2012).

Emotional Intelligence in Sales

Although a number of researchers have noted the importance of EI in selling (e.g. Borg & Johnston, 2013; Kidwell et al., 2011; Leach et al., 2005), there are to date relatively few studies explicitly focus on EI, and even fewer empirically test its associated relationships. Table 1, which can be found in Appendix A, provides a comprehensive overview of the current literature that studies EI in a sales context.

Among the earliest explorations of EI in salespeople was a qualitative study by Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka (2003), the results of which suggested that high performing sales people demonstrated characteristics consistent with EI. Although a general finding, it is noteworthy because it represents an early implication that EI may yield positive sales outcomes, since it was the top sales performers that seemed to possess it. Subsequent research has since provided empirical support for that early finding, demonstrating a positive relationships between EI and salesperson job performance (Kidwell et al., 2011; Lassk & Shepherd, 2013; Rozell et al., 2006).

Boyatzis et al. (2012) offered further support for the performance bolstering effects of EI with a study that utilized the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) construct (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2007). The ESCI measure, however, is much broader in nature than EI in that it includes adaptability, achievement orientation, positive outlook, empathy, organizational awareness, and other constructs which other researchers have noted to be conceptually distinct from true EI (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005).

Subsequent research has begun to move beyond broad performance effects and leveled more directed effort towards identifying relationships between salesperson EI and specific sales outcomes. Research in this vein reports that salesperson EI exhibits a positive relationship both with creativity (Lassk & Shepherd, 2013) and customer orientation (Pettijohn et al., 2010b; Rozell et al., 2004). Sales scholars have also theorized that the implications of salesperson EI extend to other sales outcomes, such as adaptive selling (e.g. Kidwell et al., 2007) and empathy (e.g. Rozell et al., 2006), and have called for research that empirically examines such effects.

In addition to its role as an antecedent to sales performance outcomes, EI has also been shown to moderate sales relationships. Kidwell and colleagues (2011), for instance, demonstrated that EI positively moderated the influence that customer orientation, manifest influence, and cognitive ability had on sales performance. Another study reported that EI positively moderates the relationships between adaptive selling and sales performance, as well as between customer-oriented selling and sales performance (Kidwell et al., 2007), however, that study only utilized the “perceiving emotion” dimension of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer et al., 2003) measure. The regulation of emotion is also found to positively moderate the relationship between adaptive selling and customer owned loyalty (Chen & Jaramillo, 2014).

The most nuanced looks at salesperson EI are works by Kidwell et al. (2011) and Chen and Jaramillo (2014), which represent the only two studies to date that empirically test for differential effects among EI dimensions. Kidwell et al. (2011) developed and validated a new EI scale targeted specifically to a sales context, and presented evidence that the various dimensions of EI differentially influenced salespeople across contexts. For example, their findings suggested that understanding and managing emotions were most useful to real estate agents, whereas perceiving, facilitating and managing emotions were more useful amongst insurance agents. They also reported that facilitating and managing emotions were the only two dimensions that were positively associated with sales revenue, while managing emotion exhibited a positive relationship with customer retention. In contrast, Chen and Jaramillo (2014) focused on the mediational properties of EI, highlighting three EI dimensions in what they call a “cascading” effect, wherein the use of emotions mediates the impact of emotion perception on emotion regulation. Notably, these authors suggested that there may be a “progressive structure” inherent to dimensions of EI (p. 43).

Finally, a review of the ten empirical studies that investigate salesperson EI specifically reveals that considerable fragmentation characterizes the research in this area. Specifically, among these studies, there are five different measures employed and six unique dimensional conceptualizations of the EI construct (see Table 1 for more detail). The lack of consistency across research in this area is problematic because it makes comparison across studies difficult. Furthermore, each of the operationalizations offered are grounded in markedly disparate assumptions about the EI construct itself, how it manifests, and what it means.

The Emotional Intelligence Debate

While the term emotional intelligence can be found in literature as early as half a century ago (Beldoch, 1964; Leuner, 1966), it was in the 1980s and 1990s that the construct became what it is today. In 1983, Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences introduced the idea that traditional intelligence (i.e. IQ), does not capture the full range of human cognitive ability. Among the additional intelligences that he argued humans possess, such as visual-spatial, verbal-linguistic, or musical-rhythmic, were inter- and intrapersonal intelligences (Gardener, 1983). Models of emotional intelligence began appearing in the following years (Greenspan, 1989; Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). EI as a construct and as a term ("emotional intelligence") was popularized when Daniel Goleman's (1995) popular press book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it Can Matter More than IQ*, became a bestseller. Decades after the construct was introduced scholars are still debating the conceptualization and measurement of EI, which is problematic because there still does not exist a single, cohesive body of EI research. The lack of agreement about the conceptualization and measurement of EI means that researchers have devoted too much time to selecting and defending the use of specific scales at the expense of developing a deeper understanding of EI and its implications for sales forces.

The major debate characterizing the research domain is between three models, or "streams" (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005), of EI research. Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) argue that a theme underlying many of the criticisms of EI is that critics will allow problems with one conceptualization to color their view of the overall construct of EI. Specifically, the stream of EI that is used by practitioners differs from the streams academics tend to use. By not differentiating among the three streams, critics will reject EI outright based on criticisms of the practitioner conceptualization without giving attention to more scientifically rigorous definitions

of EI, which Mayer and Salovey (1997) are credited with. According to Ashkanasy and Daus (2005), Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four-branch model represents "the working model of emotional intelligence that must form the basis of serious research in emotional intelligence in the immediate future" (p. 449).

The first of these competing EI models, Stream 1, is the *abilities model*. This stream is called "ability" because, as is the case with tests of traditional intelligence (IQ), EI is assessed by giving respondents a test with answers that can be right or wrong. The EI conceptualization anchoring this stream is Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four-branch abilities model. According to this conceptualization EI consists of four dimensions, or branches which include: (1) perception of emotion in the self and others, (2) assimilation of emotion to facilitate thought, (3) understanding of emotion, and (4) managing and regulating emotion in the self and others. It is measured using the MSCEIT (or, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test), a 141 item, commercially available scale (Mayer et al., 2002). Recently, researchers have begun developing scales that assess EI in specific settings. For example, the EIME (or, Emotional Intelligence in Marketing Exchanges), by Kidwell et al. (2011) brings the abilities model into a sales-specific context with a freely available scale containing 15 items that relate directly to sales situations and interactions. Also, the CEIS (or, Consumer Emotional Intelligence Scale) assesses EI as it specifically relates to consumers (Kidwell et al., 2008).

Scholars have conflicting views regarding Stream 1. Proponents of the stream often focus on the answer format of the model. Specifically, they argue that by asking respondents not to rate their own EI, but instead to demonstrate it on questions with right and wrong answers, that a more accurate assessment is rendered because it erases the inaccurate assessments of ability which are a risk in self-report scales (e.g. Day & Carroll, 2008; Kidwell et al., 2011). However,

critics of Stream 1 express concern about the way that Stream 1 assessments are scored by researchers. Some argue that the ability measures like the MSCEIT or EIME do not have an objective truth on which the ‘right’ answers are based (Conte, 2005). This is due to the fact that they are based on consensus scoring, which means that the most common response determines the correct answer to each item. These critics argue that this is not necessarily meaningful since it would not represent people at the high end of the EI continuum (Matthews et al., 2002). That is, just because the preponderance of respondents chose an answer does not make it intrinsically correct; the people with a more sophisticated understanding of emotions might actually have selected the ‘right’ answer. An additional issue with Stream 1 scoring is concern with the process and vetting of ‘experts’ for scoring these tests, as is done for scoring the EIME scale, for example (Matthews et al., 2002). The abilities model, according to Ashton-James (2003) “can do no more than tap respondents’ semantic knowledge about emotion.” (Ashkanasy & Daus 2005, p.448).

The second category of EI models is Stream 2, is often referred to as the *self-report*, or *peer-report model* because its measures allow respondents to offer an assessment their own EI. This stream is based on the Mayer-Salovey (1997) abilities model but is differentiated by the fact that it is indexed with self-report and peer-report measures. Examples of these measures include Jordan et al. (2002), Schutte et al. (1998), and Wong and Law (2002). Items are largely worded in a first person statement, with which respondents either agree or disagree, about how well they can do things such as read others’ or their own emotions, make people feel better, or sustain good moods.

Stream 2 EI is also subject to debate by scholars. Opponents of Stream 2 often focus on the self-report nature of the model. Specifically, they argue that asking a person to self-report EI

is problematic because it is subject to over exaggeration or faking by respondents, which leads to inaccurate assessments of ability (e.g. Day & Carroll, 2008; Kidwell et al., 2011). Proponents of this model argue that self-report measures “may better capture the emotions that employees are actually feeling in the workplace” (O’Boyle et al., 2011, p. 793). Further, some emotions researchers report a strong preference for self-report measures (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). Ashton-James (2003), for example, emphasize that any good measure of EI has to provide a context for respondents to experience the emotions that they are being questioned about. Self-report measures are superior in this regard. Evidence also suggests that the self-report EI measures characterizing Stream 2 have better incremental validity beyond the Five Factor Model and cognitive ability in predicting job performance, as compared to ability models (Stream 1) (O’Boyle et al., 2011). This advantage is “useful for establishing that EI is theoretically distinct from other related concepts” (p. 808). Finally, meta-analytic evidence reported by O’Boyle et al.’s (2011) study indicates that Stream 2 accounted for the most variance out of the three streams.

Stream 3 is the referred to as the *mixed model* of EI. Expanding beyond Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) original conceptualization, it is labelled as “mixed” because its associated measures contain items relating both to personality-type as well as behavioral preferences. This conceptualization is expanded as well to include personality and social competence aspects that are not part of the conceptualization or definition of Salovey and Mayer (1997). Examples of these measures are the Emotional Quotient Inventory, or EQ-i, (Bar-On, 1997) and the Goleman Emotional Competency Inventory, or ECI (Sala, 2002). Both of these measures are held by firms that often use them commercially as management consultation tools, which Ashkenasy and Daus (2005) see as one of the reasons that “public and commercial perceptions of the emotional

intelligence construct are often at variance with the definitions of the construct given by its originators, Mayer and Salovey” (p. 443).

Again, this stream has been the subject of debate among scholars. Detractors of Stream 3 argue that the mixed model measures of EI, such as the EQ-i (based on Bar-On, 1997) and ECI (based on Goleman, 1995) are far too broad because they have expanded beyond the 4-branch model, which is considered by Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) to be “the only scientifically defensible model of emotional intelligence” (p. 446). They are considered to be too far expanded because they include components such as personality and social skills that go beyond the original scope of EI. The ECI scale, for example, overlaps with four of the Big Five personality dimensions and with several other psychological constructs (Matthews et al., 2002; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004) while the EQ-I scale, for example, lacks strong discriminant validity with the Big Five (0.50 correlation in Dawda & Hart, 2000). Lastly, both are proprietary scales which are only available for a price, and are therefore used much more by practitioners than academics (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005) which means that there is a dearth of peer-reviewed assessments of them (particularly ECI) (Conte, 2005).

In addition to the debate concerning the three streams, another debate brewing within the literature concerns whether the EI construct should be considered a trait or an ability (Mayer et al., 2008). When EI is considered an ability, it is conceptualized as the consolidation of several abilities and comprises a cognitive skill set. When EI is considered a trait, it is conceptualized as a disposition that manifests in a way analogous to a personality trait (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Petrides, 2011).

The ability model of EI defines emotional intelligence as comprised of four “branches” (Mayer et al., 2008), which include abilities relating to for *perceiving, understanding, managing,*

and *using* emotions (Kidwell et al., 2008; Kidwell et al., 2011; Mayer et al., 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Because of its focus on abilities, this model is clearly associated with the Stream 1 model of EI. Validated and commonly used measures that assess ability-based EI include the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer et al., 2003) and the Consumer Emotional Intelligence Scale (CEIS) (Kidwell et al., 2008).

The trait model of EI aligns with Streams 2 and 3, and is sometimes referred to as a “mixed model.” It is relatively newer than the ability model and is proposed to include traits such as self-esteem, optimism, and self-management (Bar-On, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Two of the best-known measures of a trait, or mixed model EI are the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Bar-On, 1997) and the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) (Schutte et al., 1998). One aspect which makes these measures “mixed” is that they get at abilities such as the perception of emotions, but also, as self-report measures, tap into qualities by asking respondents to report on things like optimism (Brackett & Mayer, 2003) or empathy (Schutte et al., 1998).

Lastly, some scholars argue that a person might have the EI necessary to adeptly handle certain situations, but be emotionally ill equipped to handle others (e.g. Kidwell et al., 2008; Kidwell et al., 2011; Wong & Law, 2002). This observation highlights that EI may be context specific. The idea that EI is context based, thus suggesting that certain EI dimensions are helpful in some contexts and irrelevant in others.

Dimensionality of Emotional Intelligence

Past research has either examined EI as a single construct (Carmeli, 2003; Carmeli & Colakoglu, 2005; Lenaghan et al., 2007) or has recognized the multidimensional aspect of EI but

combined all dimensions for the purposes of analysis (Jordan et al., 2002). Another body of literature has not only recognized the multidimensional nature of the EI construct, but has also found the different dimensions to have differential effects within the context of their model (Ciarrochi et al., 2002; Kidwell et al., 2001).

Among the studies that do address EI as being comprised of multiple dimensions, agreement is tenuous. Table 2, which can be found in Appendix B, shows the various ways that EI has been split among studies which still do not agree despite using a single conceptualization and measure (Schutte et al., 1998), with a few studies looking at EI as three-dimensional (Austin et al., 2004; Ciarrochi et al., 2002) or five-dimensional (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). However, the most common way of examining the construct as a sum of distinct parts is to do so by breaking EI into four dimensions (Chan, 2003; Ng et al., 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2000). Tables 1 and 2 demonstrate that even among the studies that agree on the four-dimensionality of EI, dimensions are labeled inconsistently. However, an examination of the literature shows that the differences in labels are largely semantic in that the dimensions are generally getting at the same thing and in that, regardless of what each author chooses to call a particular dimension, for each dimension in most previous studies there is a parallel dimension that is similarly defined but given another name which can be found in the literature.

However, some studies that can agree on dimension number often disagree on more than just semantics. To illustrate, both Kidwell et al. (2011) and Wong and Law (2002) develop EI scales with four dimensions, but the four dimensions of one do not necessarily map well onto the four of the other. While Wong and Law's (2002) "use" and "regulation" dimensions easily parallel Kidwell et al.'s (2011) "facilitating" and "managing" dimensions, the remaining two dimensions of each are more complex to relate. Wong and Law (2002) scale's final two

dimensions split EI appraisal into *whom* is being appraised (“self-emotion appraisal” or “others’ emotion appraisal”) while Kidwell et al. (2011) split the final two into *how* it is happening (“perceiving” or “understanding”), regardless of the target.

Proposed Dimensionality

As the discussion above illustrates there are several current discussions about the dimensionality of EI. If EI can be broken into multiple dimensions, as it, indeed, has been shown to do, then these different dimensions should be treated as such. Failing to do so belies the richness of the construct and attenuates the relationships it impacts. And yet, EI research to date has largely either discussed and empirically tested EI as unidimensional (e.g. Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Carmeli, 2003; Carmeli & Colakoglu, 2005; Leneghan et al., 2007; Pettijohn et al., 2010a & 2010b; Rozell et al., 2004; Schutte et al., 1998) or has discussed EI as multidimensional but empirically used it as a single construct (e.g. Jordan et al., 2002; Lassk & Shepherd, 2013; Rozell et al., 2006; Saklofske et al., 2003).

This dissertation contends that two distinct categories emerge out of the numerous divisions of dimensions characterizing the extant literature: cognitive and behavioral. The cognitive component of EI is seen in extant literature as the ability to appraise emotions in oneself, the ability to appraise emotions in others (e.g. Wong & Law, 2002), the perception of emotions, understanding emotions (e.g. Kidwell et al., 2008, Kidwell et al., 2011; Mayer et al., 2003), and emotional awareness (Rozell et al., 2006). All of these dimensions are cognitive because they are internal in nature, requiring observation and thought about emotions being displayed by others or presenting themselves within a person.

Alternatively, the behavioral component of EI is seen in extant literature as understanding emotions, facilitating emotional use (e.g. Kidwell et al., 2008, Kidwell et al., 2011; Mayer et al., 2003), regulating emotions (e.g. Wong & Law, 2002), and external emotional control (e.g. Rozell et al., 2006). All of these dimensions are behavioral in that they manifest in action of some kind.

This dissertation aims to analyze cognitive and behavioral EI as consisting of two dimensions which are distinct from each other. The multidimensionality of EI implies not only that distinct dimensions have the potential to impact relationships between variables in distinct ways, but also for the level of EI as person is said to possess. Incumbent in this idea is also the possibility that the different dimensions might be present in an individual in varying degrees. That is, a person may be good at reading the nonverbal cues in others that allow the appraisal of emotions in others, but poor at implementing emotion in order to respond constructively to others' emotions. For example, a salesperson may be able to see that a customer is bored but cannot enact a behavior to assuage that boredom. Similarly, being able to recognize the emotions that you yourself are feeling does not necessarily enable you to effectively manage and regulate them in the way you would like. For example, a salesperson may receive bad news which he understands will put him in a bad mood which he knows from experience will make it difficult to work well, but is unable to regulate his mood. He may know that he needs to improve his mood but be unable to do so.

Behavioral EI requires putting what a person knows about his or her emotions into action, an order that Chen and Jaramillo (2014) refer to as the "cascading" effect of EI dimensions. Therefore, while this dissertation contends that a person with high levels of cognitive EI does not necessarily have high behavioral EI, a person with high behavioral EI must also possess high

cognitive EI. This idea of the dichotomy and relationship between cognitive and behavioral manifestations of EI is explained well with the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977), which links belief and behavior. Behavioral intention is determined by the beliefs that one has access to the faculties or resources available which will impact the success of the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). This dissertation argues that the cognitive abilities of EI, such as the perception and understanding of emotions, are those resources that will, when present, increase the success of behavioral EI.

CHAPTER II

STUDY 1

Empirical Comparison of Existing Scales

As the previous discussion highlights, EI literature is disjointed and lacks agreement about the fundamental nature of the construct. Until scholars reach a consensus with regard to the conceptualization and measurement of the EI construct, the literature domain will remain fragmented, and comparison of results across different EI streams may be problematic. Accordingly, a primary goal and contribution of Study 1 is to address this debate and help to move towards consensus. To accomplish this, Study 1 empirically compares existing scales of EI with a single sample. Comparing these three EI measures (the SSREI, WLEIS, and EIME) within a single sample enables an evaluation of their relative measurement properties, and provides a basis from studying of their interrelationships.

Sample

Respondents were undergraduate business students at a large university in the Southeastern United States. Respondents were undergraduate students enrolled in four different sections an introduction to sales course at the university. A convenience sample was used because it was important to have access to the same sample over a period of time in order to (1) collect all measures in the same sample while (2) keeping surveys at a manageable length to

preempt respondent fatigue, and while also (3) providing enough time separation between EI measures to make sure that responses to one were not primed by another. The sample was used for five separate data collections that took place over the span of three months. The students received extra credit for participation and were directed to online surveys through the class eLearning page. The survey series was posted such that one survey was made available at a time and was open for a window of about a week during which students could access and complete the survey. The surveys were spaced throughout the course of a semester such that there were at least two weeks between each survey. In total, 242 respondents completed at least one of the five surveys. A total of 167 respondents completed all five. Table 1 contains a summary of the total number of respondents for each survey. Respondents had an average age of 21.5 years old and were 51% female.

Table 1: Respondents

Construct	Scale	N
Emotional intelligence – EIME	Kidwell et al. (2011)	227
Emotional intelligence – SREIT	Schutte et al. (1998)	202
Emotional intelligence – WLEIS	Wong & Law (2002)	204
Adaptability	Spiro & Weitz (1990)	177
Empathy	Ahearne et al. (2007)	177
Effort	Brown & Leigh (1996)	177
Big Five Personality	Gosling et al. (2003)	168

Measures

SSREI. The first existing EI measure examined in Study 1 is the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Scale (SSREI). As a self-report measure, the SSREI is representative of the Steam 2 model of EI. The SSREI is based on the Salovey and Mayer (1997) conceptualization of EI and is comprised of three factors: appraisal, regulation, and utilization of

emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Schutte and colleagues (1998) used this to create a measure with one-dimension that strives to tap what can best be described as general or overall EI. The SSREI measure is widely used for several reasons. These include the fact that the scale is available for use in the public domain, and that with only 33 items, it is parsimonious enough for easy administration (Ng et al., 2010). It is considered to be a mixture between pure ability EI and pure trait EI because it includes items that measure abilities as well as personal qualities that are markedly distinct from abilities (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Research that utilizes the SSREI varies in terms of its treatment of EI dimensionality. Although some studies maintain the original one-dimensional conceptualization advanced by Schutte et al. (1998), others explore the SSREI for different ways to parse the items into different dimensions (e.g. Austin et al., 2004; Carmeli, 2003; Petrides & Furnham, 2000). Notably, the SSREI is the most commonly used EI measure in extant sales literature (Kidwell et al., 2011; Pettijohn 2010a & 2010b; Rozell et al., 2004; Rozell et al., 2006). Complete items for the SSREI measure are presented in Table 2.

WLEIS. The second existing measure employed in this study is the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), which was developed by Wong and Law (2002). The WLEIS is a self-report (i.e., Stream 2) measure that incorporates four dimensions of EI: self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion. However, the two emotional appraisal dimensions are sometimes consolidated into a single dimension for a total of three (e.g. Chen & Jaramillo, 2014; Joseph & Newman, 2010). This scale is consistent with the Stream 2 model of EI, as it represents a self-report measure that asks respondents to assess their own emotional abilities with 16 items (four per dimension). A sample item is, "I am a good observer of others' emotions." Wong and Law (2002) developed the scale specifically for a management and leadership context, but the questions themselves are broad

enough that it can be used in any organizational context. This scale is has recently been applied in the sales literature (Chen & Jaramillo, 2014; Lassk & Shepherd, 2013). Complete items for the WLEIS measure are presented in Table 3.

Table 2: SSREI Measure

Item	Statement
1	I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.
2	When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.
3	I expect that I will do well on most things I try.
4	Other people find it easy to confide in me.
5	I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.
6	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.
7	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.
8	Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.
9	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.
10	I expect good things to happen.
11	I like to share my emotions with others.
12	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.
13	I arrange events others enjoy.
14	I seek out activities that make me happy.
15	I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.
16	I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.
17	When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.
18	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions other people are experiencing.
19	I know why my emotions change.
20	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.
21	I have control over my emotions.
22	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.
23	I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.
24	I compliment others when they have done something well.
25	I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.
26	When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself.
27	When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.
28	When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.
29	I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.
30	I help other people feel better when they are down.
31	I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.
32	I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.
33	It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.

Table 3: WLEIS Measure

Item	Statement
1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
2	I have a good understanding of my own emotions.
3	I really understand what I feel.
4	I always know whether or not I am happy.
5	I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
6	I am a good observer of others' emotions.
7	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8	I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.
9	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
10	I always tell myself I am a competent person.
11	I am a self-motivated person.
12	I would always encourage myself to try my best.
13	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
15	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
16	I have good control of my own emotions.

EIME. The third existing measure employed in this study is the Emotional Intelligence in Marketing Exchanges (EIME) scale, which was developed by Kidwell et al. (2011). The EIME is representative of the Stream 1 model of EI, as it is an ability-based measure. As such, each question contained within it has a right or wrong answer, much akin to a traditional IQ test. The measure in its entirety can be found in Appendix C. The EIME was created specifically to assess EI in a marketing exchange context, and is thus directly applicable to buyer and seller relationships (Kidwell et al., 2011). Further, it is unique from many EI measures items with regard to its treatment of empathy. That is, although many EI scales contain elements of empathy for others, such as “I help other people feel better when they are down” (Schutte et al., 1998, p. 172), that EIME does not. Notably, however, some scholars have argued that it is important to exclude empathy from EI measures because possessing high EI in no way implies that it must be used for the benefit of others. In fact, it has been argued that persons exhibiting a high level of EI are “likely to use their skills to advance their own interest even at the expense of

others,” particularly in highly competitive environments (Kilduff et al., 2012, p. 130) such as sales. While EI certainly *can* be used for altruistic purposes, it does not *have* to be.

Accordingly, including empathy in an EI measure inaccurately pollutes EI ability with EI usage behaviors. Or as Kilduff et al.(2012, p. 132) explain, “to define EI as necessarily leading to positive pro-social outcomes is to mix up a set of abilities...with a normative belief concerning how individuals should use them.” Although the EIME is the least commonly used EI scale in the sales literature (Kidwell et al., 2011), is important to include for two reasons. First, it gives insight into the performance of a Stream 1, ability-based measure as compared to the other Stream 2, self-report measures (WLEIS and SSREI) examined in the focal research. And second, it was developed specifically for a sales context.

Covariates. Several constructs believed to be related to EI were also collected. The relationships between EI and the following constructs were assessed: empathy (Ahearne et al., 2007), adaptability (Spiro & Weitz, 1990), and effort (Brown & Leigh, 1996), all of which were measured on a 7-point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Empathy, or understanding and sharing others’ emotions (Hodges & Klein, 2001), was chosen because it is often linked with EI in existing research (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2007; Mayer et al., 1999; Schutte et al., 1998). General adaptability was chosen for inclusion as a covariate based on several calls for research into the link between EI and adaptive selling (Kidwell et al., 2011; Kidwell et al., 2007; Rozell et al., 2006). While adaptive selling, or the ability to change sales tactics and strategies during customer interactions based on the situation (Spiro & Weitz, 1990), was not possible to assess given the convenience sample of undergraduate students (not salespeople), general adaptability was measured. Effort, or the intensity and time an individual devotes towards task accomplishment (Brown & Peterson, 1994; Brown & Leigh, 1996), was chosen as a

potential covariate given extant research that suggests emotional intelligence can impact the way that an employee exerts effort (Rapp et al., working paper).

Finally, personality was assessed with a shortened Big Five measure (Gosling et al., 2003) because several personality factors have been linked with EI in existing literature (Boyle et al., 1995; Stankov & Crawford, 1997; van der Zee et al., 2002). The scale measures extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. Extraversion is a person's proclivity for interpersonal interaction and level of social engagement; agreeableness is a person's inclination for getting along and sustaining harmony with others; conscientiousness is the importance a person places on self-discipline and fulfilling duties; emotional stability is characterized by calmness, optimism, and a lack of neuroticism; openness to experience is a person's propensity for curiosity, adventurousness or for trying new things (Barrick & Mount, 1990). The scale consists of ten items, two for each of the big five personality dimensions. Respondents are asked to rate, on a 7-point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, how closely pairs of traits apply to them. Each trait is measured with one item that is reverse coded and one item that is not. All covariate items used in Study 1 can be found in Table 4.

Table 4: Measures: Study 1 Covariates

Construct	Item	Wording
Empathy	1	I always take a sincere interest in people.
	2	I have a caring attitude toward others.
	3	I am always ready to help when others encounter problems.
Adaptability	1	Each person requires a different approach.
	2	I am very flexible in the ways that I approach different situations.
	3	I feel that most people can be dealt with pretty much in the same manner.
	4	I don't change my approach from one person to another.
	5	It is easy for me to modify my behavior if the situation calls for it.
	6	Basically I use the same approach with most people.
	7	I vary my behavior from situation to situation.
	8	I try to understand how one person differs from another.
	9	I feel confident that I can effectively change my planned behavior when necessary.
	10	I treat all people pretty much the same.
Effort	1	Few of my peers put in more hours working (at my job and/or school) than I do.
	2	When there's a job to be done, I devote all my energy to getting it done.
	3	When I work, I do so with intensity.
	4	I work at my full capacity in all of my job and/or school duties.
	5	I strive as hard as I can to be successful.
	6	When I work, I really exert myself to the fullest.
Extraversion	1	Extraverted, enthusiastic
	6	Reserved, quiet
Agreeableness	2	Critical, quarrelsome
	7	Sympathetic, warm
Conscientiousness	3	Dependable, self-disciplined
	8	Disorganized, careless
Emotional stability	4	Anxious, easily upset
	9	Calm, emotionally stable
Openness to experience	5	Open to new experiences, complex
	10	Conventional, uncreative

Results

The reliabilities of all constructs were assessed with a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The reliabilities of SREIT and WLEIS were assessed with Cronbach's alpha, while the

EIME scale reliabilities were assessed with the Spearman-Brown coefficient. The Spearman-Brown coefficient was to assess the EIME because, as discussed in full in the following paragraph, the properties of the scale necessitated the use of split-half reliability (Kidwell et al., 2011). The SSREI loadings ranged from 0.18 to 0.61. All items with a loading below .40 (Hair et al., 1998) were removed, leaving only 17 of the original 33 items. The 17-item SREIT had good reliability ($\alpha = 0.86$). The WLEIS loadings ranged from 0.25 to 0.74. Using the same cutoff, only one item was removed from the scale for a 15-item WLEIS with good reliability ($\alpha = 0.88$).

The EIME scale has item format heterogeneity (see Appendix C for the complete scale) because, for example, one portion asks respondents to look at faces and assess emotion, while another portion of the scale asks respondents to choose the most appropriate emotional response based on a scenario. For this reason, split-half reliability must be used for reliability purposes (Kidwell et al., 2011). Keeping with the scale development piece (Kidwell et al., 2011), the reliability of each dimension was assessed: perception ($r = 0.13$), facilitation ($r = .71$), understanding ($r = .39$), and managing (.66). The reliabilities for two of the dimensions (perception and understanding) fell well below an acceptable threshold. This may be due, in part to the unique nature of the survey. The ‘perception’ component of EIME asks respondents to look at faces and identify the emotion being displayed on each; it could be that respondents were caught off guard by this unusual survey technique. Another reason for this could be the demographic differences among each of the pictures used, which could have led to inconsistencies in respondents’ ability to assess each, since studies have shown that emotion recognition and interpretation does not necessarily translate across cultures (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987; Early & Ang, 2003). The other problematic dimension, understanding, asks respondents to read a scenario with a before and after description of a person and then to identify what

happened to the person in the scenario in the intervening period to make their “before” emotion turn into the emotion described in the “after” scenario. This, again, may have been too unusual or too nuanced for respondents to answer consistently.

As is shown in Table 5, the SREIT scale significantly and positively correlated with empathy ($r = 0.28, p < .01$), adaptability ($r = 0.37, p < .01$), effort ($r = 0.36, p < .01$), extraversion ($r = 0.25, p < .01$), conscientiousness ($r = 0.20, p < .05$), emotional stability ($r = 0.24, p < .01$), and openness to experience ($r = 0.18, p < .05$). The WLEIS scale significantly and positively correlated with empathy ($r = 0.35, p < .01$), adaptability ($r = 0.39, p < .01$), effort ($r = 0.39, p < .01$), conscientiousness ($r = 0.30, p < .01$), emotional stability ($r = 0.45, p < .01$), and openness to experience ($r = 0.27, p < .05$). In contrast, the EIME scale significantly correlated with only one of the covariates tested, adaptability ($r = 0.20, p < .01$).

Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. SREIT											
2. EIME	0.07										
3. WLEIS	0.55**	0.03									
4. EMPATHY	0.28**	-0.04	0.35**								
5. ADAPT	0.37**	0.20**	0.39**	0.23**							
6. EFFORT	0.36**	-0.05	0.39**	0.25**	0.17*						
7. B5extra	0.25**	-0.02	0.14	0.23**	0.20*	0.13					
8. B5agree	0.06	0.11	0.13	0.40**	0.13	0.08	0.16*				
9. B5consc	0.20*	0.13	0.30**	-0.01	0.12	0.42**	0.09	0.13			
10. B5stabil	0.24**	0.06	0.45**	-0.06	0.12	0.17*	0.14	0.21**	0.41**		
11. B5open	0.18*	0.08	0.27**	0.09	0.09	0.15	0.28**	0.34**	0.33**	0.25**	
Mean	128.21	2.22	5.18	5.79	5.30	5.44	4.74	5.00	5.68	4.94	5.48
SD	10.53	0.98	1.00	0.86	0.62	0.81	1.36	1.06	1.00	1.16	1.02

N = 167

*($p < .05$); **($p < .01$)

Finally, in order to determine whether there was preliminary evidence for moderation between cognitive and behavioral EI, exploratory moderation analyses were undertaken. For this, a two factor model of the WLEIS scale was used, with the first representing cognitive EI (7 items, $\alpha = 0.86$). and the second behavioral EI (8 items, $\alpha = 0.84$). Each covariate was tested as a moderator using a two-way ANOVA analysis in SPSS. Three personality factors were found to significantly interact with cognitive EI. First, openness to experience ($f = 1.59$, $p = .03$), second, extraversion ($f = 2.16$, $p < .01$) and third, conscientiousness ($f = 1.57$, $p = .04$) all showed significant interactions with cognitive EI.

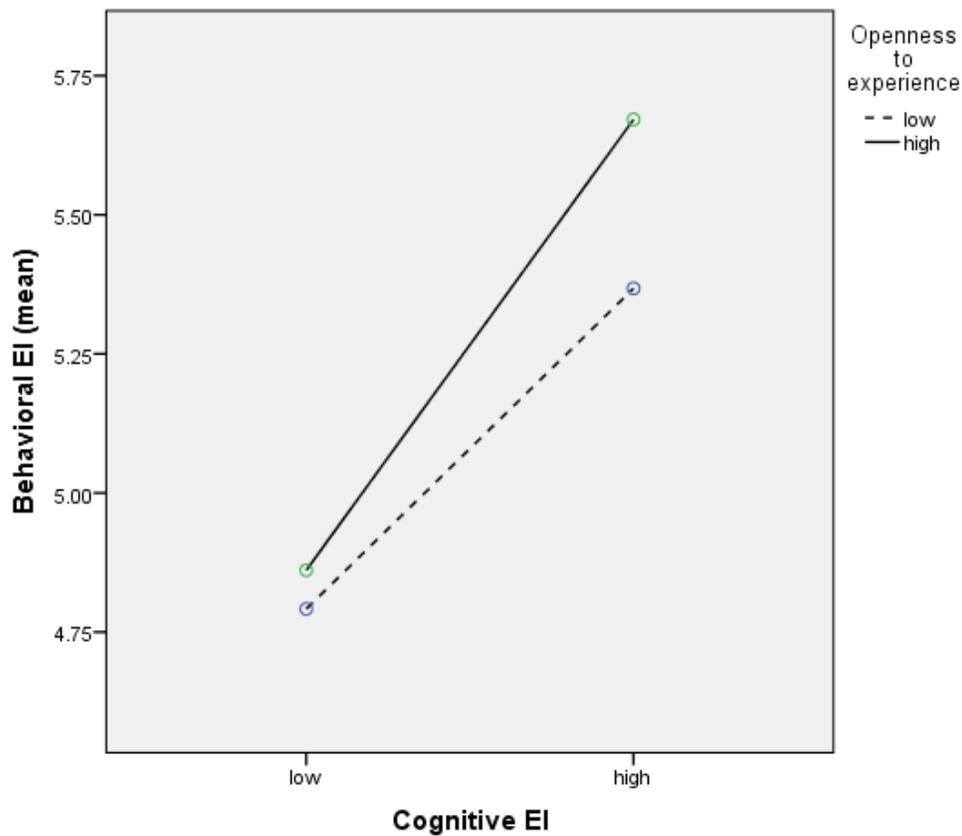
Discussion

The scale comparison revealed that the Stream 2, self-report scales (WLEIS and SSREIT scales) varied from the Stream 1, ability scale (EIME scale) in several ways. First, WLEIS and SSREIT performed better on reliability than the EIME scale, which was problematic. Second, EIME did not correlate with either SSREIT or WLEIS, while they were significantly correlated with each other. Third, EIME correlated with only one covariate, while SSREIT and WLEIS correlated with seven and six covariates, respectively.

Preliminary moderation testing showed promising results upon which to build for the main study. Specifically, three personality traits were significant moderators between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. First, openness to experience significantly interacted with cognitive EI in impacting behavioral EI such that individuals who are more open to experience show a steeper increase in behavioral EI as cognitive EI increases. This can be seen in Figure 1. Further, individuals who are higher in openness to experience exhibit higher levels of behavioral EI than those with less openness to experience at any level of cognitive EI. Openness to experience is

characterized by creativity, receptivity to new experiences, complexity, and a positive attitude towards the unconventional (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Thus, it is possible that we see this result because people who are more creative and welcoming of the unconventional have more options at their disposal for behavior. As such, they can regulate emotions in more ways and may be more willing to try new behavioral regulation techniques than individuals less open to new things.

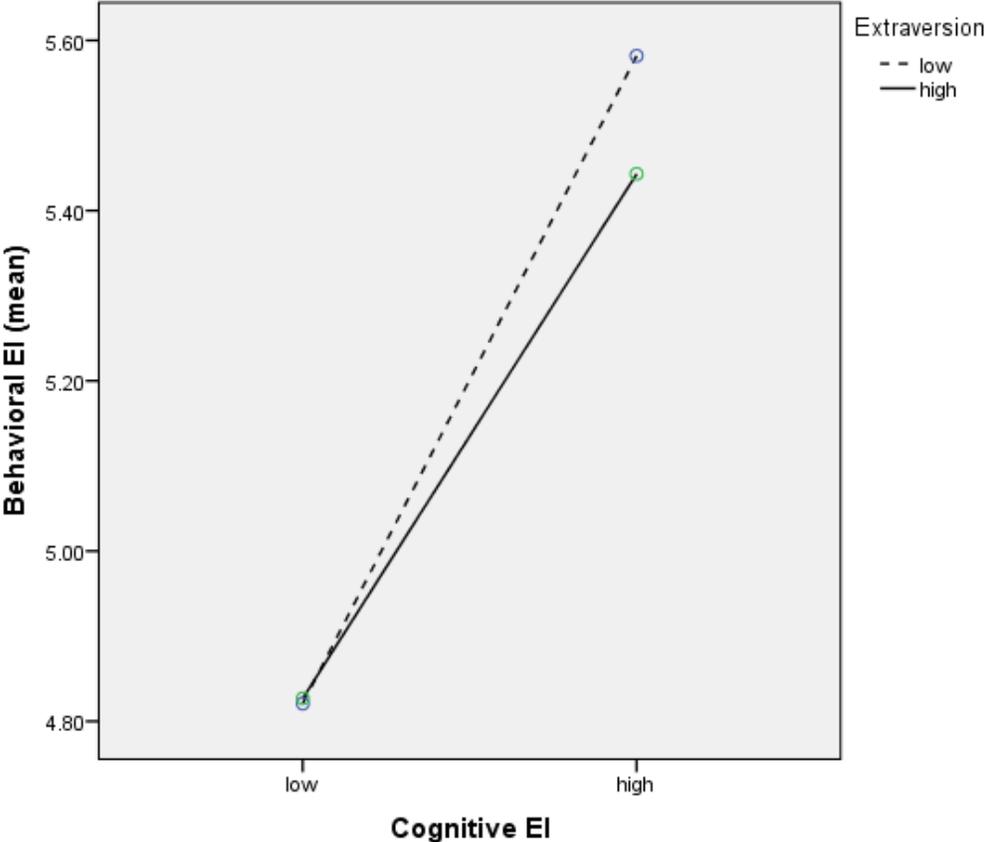
Figure 1: Study 1 Interaction Plot: Openness to Experience



Second, extraversion significantly moderated the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. This interaction can be seen plotted in Figure 2 which shows that while behavioral EI is the same for high and low extraversion respondents at low cognitive EI, as cognitive EI

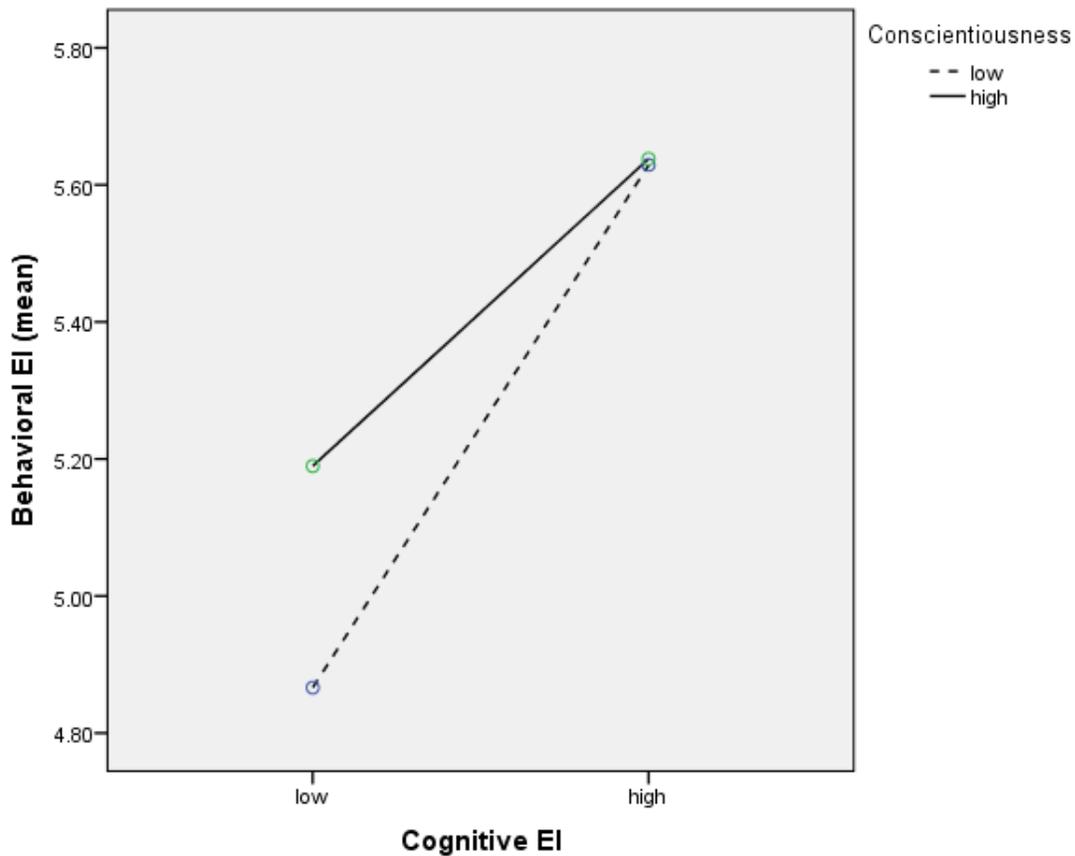
increases, people who score high on extraversion lag behind those with low extraversion in terms of increase in behavioral EI. People who score high on extraversion are not reserved, not quiet, extraverted, and enthusiastic (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Thus, it could be that people who are more introverted show higher behavioral EI because they regulate their emotions toward others more. Extraverts are not reserved and are enthusiastic, and therefore may be less likely to stop and think about regulating their behavior.

Figure 2: Study 1 Interaction Plot: Extraversion



Finally, conscientiousness was a significant moderator of the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. The interaction, which can be seen plotted in Figure 3, suggests that conscientiousness matters at low EI, where it makes up for lack of EI in behavior. Part of conscientiousness is dependability, self-discipline, organization, and being careful (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Therefore, highly conscientious people likely regulate their emotions more even at low EI because they are more careful, dutiful, and concerned with what others expect from them. Conversely, at high cognitive EI, behavioral EI evens out regardless of conscientiousness.

Figure 3: Study 1 Interaction Plot: Conscientiousness



The interactive effects of personality factors with cognitive EI offer preliminary support for the idea that the link between cognitive and behavioral EI can be impacted by additional individual factors. In order to further explore this idea, the main study, discussed next, will introduce and empirically explore new individual salesperson factors that could impact this link. Further, while salesperson individual factors are important for managers to pay attention to, the main study will also explore several factors that are under management control that could impact a salesperson's ability to translate cognitive EI into behavioral EI.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

There are two primary theories that provide the foundation for the conceptual model of this dissertation. First, the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977), is important for supporting the mediation hypotheses in the main study. As will be presented and further elucidated in this and the following chapters, the theory of planned behavior explains why the main study argues that cognitive EI should precede behavioral EI in impacting salesperson outcomes through the theory's explanation of the link between beliefs and behaviors. Second, the theory of ego depletion (Baumeister et al., 1998) is important for supporting the moderating hypotheses in the conceptual model. As will be presented in this and the following chapters, the theory of ego depletion explains why the main study argues that certain salesperson and managerially controlled factors can contribute positively or be detrimental to the translation of cognitive EI into behavioral EI through the theory's explanation of the depletion of finite mental resources.

Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior is fundamentally a theory that explains the link between beliefs and behavior. Concisely, the theory states that an individual's behavioral intention is

determined by several factors, including attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991). The theory of planned behavior has been shown to have very good predictive validity in this regard, such that a large portion of human behavior can be predicted by the combination of intentions and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991, p. 186-187; Madden et al., 1992). The theory of planned behavior was introduced as an extension of the theory of reasoned action, which was proposed a decade before by Fishbein and Ajzen, (1975).

The theory of reasoned action puts forth that behavioral intention is a function of two basic things, an individual's attitude about the behavior and subjective norms (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Attitude encompasses an individual's beliefs about the particular behavior in question. To determine attitude, not only is it important to take into account what a person believes will happen as a consequence of the behavior, but it is also important to know how a person evaluates each of the anticipated consequences (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). For example, an individual might believe several things about exercising (the behavior) such as that it will lead to better health, better looks, or that it will take up a lot of time (Miller, 2005). Further, the individual might evaluate one outcome, better health, positively, but another outcome, time spent, negatively. It is the sum of all beliefs (health, looks, and time, for example) about the behavior (exercising, for example), with the weights of their evaluations (positive and negative) that comprise attitude (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Miller, 2005). Subjective norms encompass an individual's perception regarding what other people will think if the behavior is performed. Simply put, it is a questions of whether the people who are important to the individual generally for or against the behavior being considered. Again, in determining subjective norms, it is important to know not only what the individual perceives the reaction will

be from others, but also to know how the individual rates the importance of each person's opinion relative to the others (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). To continue the example used by Miller (2005), an individual might anticipate that one of his friends will be excited that he has begun exercising but one of his co-workers will be disdainful. In addition, the individual might care more about the opinion of his friend than the opinion of his coworker. In this case, the positive anticipated reaction of the friend would carry more weight than the negative anticipated reaction of the coworker, and therefore be more likely to encourage behavioral intention. Subjective norms, therefore, are comprised of an aggregate of the perceived opinions of all important people and the weights of how important each opinion is to the individual (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Miller, 2005). Finally, behavioral intention is predicted by the sum of attitude and subjective norms and represents the motivation a person has to behave. Behavioral intentions are, "indications of how hard people are willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181). Therefore, the stronger the behavioral intention, the more likely the behavior will happen.

The extension of the theory of reasoned action into what is today the theory of planned behavior was manifested in the addition of behavioral control to the model of prediction behavioral intention. This addition increased the predictive power of the theory (Ajzen, 1991; Madden et al., 1992) and increased the number of predictors of behavioral intention. Hence, to the first two predictors, attitude and subjective norms, discussed above, perceived behavioral control is added as a third predictor of behavioral intention. Behavioral control helps to explain situations in which people intend to engage in behavior, but the behavior does not actually occur because of a lack of control over their behavior or a lack of confidence (Miller, 2005). Ajzen (1991) bases his conceptualization of perceived behavioral control on the concept of self efficacy

explained by Bandura (1977; 1982) because it deals with people's judgments about how well they believe that they can perform something. Simply, it is about an individual's confidence regarding how easy or difficult behavior will be for him, as well as beliefs about what resources an individual has at his disposal that will aid or hinder his performance of the behavior in question. Perceived behavioral control should impact behavior for two reasons. First, regardless of intention, effort put towards the behavior is expected to increase with perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen (1991) uses an example of two people who both intend to learn to ski. While both will try to do so, the person who has more confidence in his ability to actually learn successfully is expected to persevere longer than the person who doubts whether he will ever be able to learn to ski. Second, *perceived* behavioral control can sometimes accurately substitute for *actual* behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991) and as such can predict behavior because it offers a realistic gauge for the probability of success. The accuracy of perception is likely to increase when someone has more information about the behavior and is familiar with what resources might be required to successfully accomplish it.

In sum, the theory of planned behavior states that behavioral intention is predicted by three things: attitude towards the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. The theory of planned behavior is ubiquitously used and can be found across the wide range of contexts that seek to explain human behavior. For example, it has been widely used to explain and predict behavior that is related to health such as exercising regularly (Nguyen et al., 1997), smoking cessation (Borland et al., 1991; Devries & Backbier, 1994), and dieting (Sparks et al., 1992). The theory has been used to explain human behavior choices ranging from leisure activity selection (Ajzen & Driver, 1992) to drunk driving (Parker et al., 1992). The theory of planned behavior has also been widely used in a marketing context, particularly in explaining consumer

behavior. For example, in addition to several of the health studies above which involve consumption behaviors, specifically marketing studies have used the theory of planned behavior to explain the consumption of several different technological products and the adoption of technological services (Hsu et al., 2006; Mathieson, 1991; Pavlou & Fygenson, 2006; Shih & Fang, 2004). It has also been used in the context of consumer goal setting (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999).

In the context of this dissertation, the theory of planned behavior provides a foundation for our conceptualization of EI as having two components, of which cognitive EI precedes behavioral EI. In the context of this dissertation, the behavior being predicted by the theory of planned behavior is behavioral EI. According to the theory, any and all of the behaviors that characterize behavioral EI, such as self-motivation or practicing emotional control, do not arise spontaneously, but instead are driven first by beliefs. Hence, we argue that the behavioral component of EI must be preceded by some cognitive activity represented by the three predictors of behavior enumerated in the theory of planned behavior. We argue that these predictors represent cognitive EI. We argue further that the way and level at which an individual experiences cognitive EI will have significant bearing on behavioral EI because all three predictors of behavior enumerated by the theory of planned behavior, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control are represented in EI.

First, attitude represents what is believed, or known, about the behavior and can thus be seen in components of cognitive EI. In particular, EI is about building emotional knowledge that allows a person to understand how different emotions relate to each other, and how emotions feel and manifest when they are experienced (Kidwell et al., 2001; Mayer et al., 2003). Further, emotional intelligence helps a person evaluate each of the beliefs for valence. For example, if a

salesperson is considering the behavior of controlling their temper, they may believe that controlling their temper will take effort (which they evaluate as negative) but that it will also allow them to work more effectively (which they evaluate as positive). As such, the sum a person's emotional knowledge will impact behavioral intent through the attitude component of the theory of reasoned action.

Second, subjective norms represent the influence that other people have on intent to behave as a person assesses anticipated reactions from others to a behavior. An important part of emotional knowledge entails an understanding of how the use of emotions impacts other people (Kidwell et al., 2001; Mayer et al., 2003). As such, EI knowledge allows an individual to judge how others might react to the use of emotional behavior. For example, a salesperson considering the behavior of demonstrating enthusiasm might anticipate that his customer (whose opinion is very important) will react positively to the enthusiasm while a coworker within earshot (whose opinion is only somewhat important) might scoff at the emotional display. As such, the salesperson is using EI in order to impact emotional behavior through the subjective norms component of the theory of reasoned action.

Third, in particular, perceived behavioral control as a driver of behavior is critical to this dissertation. The idea of behavioral control, that the more resources and opportunities required to perform a behavior that, "individuals think they possess, the greater should be their perceived behavioral control over the behavior," (Madden et al., 1992, p. 4) is fundamental to understanding the link between cognitive and behavioral EI. This is because we argue that it is possible for there to be a stymie between the two, which is something that Ajzen (1991) also recognized as a shortcoming of the theory of reasoned action. Perceived behavioral control offers an explanation as to how it could happen that people intend to act, but still do not. For example,

the salesperson discussed above who has decided to control his temper after assessing attitude and subjective norms may still have problems enacting the behavior if he does not actually know how to control his temper. Likewise, even if a salesperson decides that displaying enthusiasm would be a good behavior to enact, she still needs to have the confidence in her ability to do so effectively. If she has *low* perceived behavioral control, she may be afraid that her smile will come across as a grimace, or be afraid that her enthusiasm will be perceived as disingenuous. This lack of confidence may cause hesitation and ultimately lead to the behavior not being performed.

In sum, the theory of planned behavior argues that the strength of a person's behavioral intent is predicted by his beliefs about that behavior, subjective norms (what others will think about the behavior), and his perceived ability to control the behavior. All three of these predictors are found in components of EI, and as such are critical to predicting the behavior of interest in this dissertation: emotional control and facilitation, or behavioral EI. Moreover, it supports our argument that there may be a progressive structure to cognitive and behavioral EI because it provides an explanation for how cognition precedes and predicts behavior. The theory of planned behavior will also be discussed more deeply and in the context of our model during the hypothesis development in Chapter IV.

Theory of Ego Depletion

At its core, ego depletion is built around the idea that each individual has a finite amount of mental resources that are used up as the individual exerts mental and self-control energies. As such, when multiple tasks require exertions of self-regulation, performance on each subsequent

task will deteriorate as the psychic cost of exertion of each of the previous tasks takes its toll (Muraven et al., 1998). To be in a state of ego depletion is to experience, “a temporary reduction in the self’s capacity or willingness to engage in volitional action (including controlling the environment, controlling the self, making choices, and initiating action) caused by prior exercise of volition” (Baumeister et al., 1998, p. 1253). Baumeister et al. argue that this reduction in capacity to perform a task (referred to in the quote as an “act of volition”) after another task is because volition requires the use of some limited resource, similar to strength or energy. Therefore, as any task a person engages in will use up strength and energy, there will be a detrimental impact on subsequent tasks a person attempts. That is, when energy or self-control is depleted with one task, it can lower the amount of self-control that is left for a subsequent task. It is important to note first, that this holds even if the two tasks are unrelated to each other or require different skill sets and, second, that ego depletion also holds across contexts (Baumeister et al., 1998; Hagger et al., 2010).

Ego depletion holds across contexts for two reasons, both of which relate to how Baumeister and colleagues, the originators of ego depletion theory, define acts of volition. First, it is because the pool of limited self-control and mental resources is “used for *all* acts of volition” (Baumeister et al., 1998, p. 1253, emphasis added). And second, because act of volition is broadly defined, and thus includes a very wide array of mental and self-control activities, which Baumeister et al. (1998) argue includes any controlled processing, active choice making, behavior initiation, or response override behaviors. Hence virtually all mental exertions can lead to a psychic cost and therefore depletion. Indeed, in an illustrative series of experiments, results suggested that ego depletion occurred in people who engaged in behaviors as varied as resisting temptation, making a meaningful decision, or suppressing emotion (Baumeister et al., 1998). Ego

depletion has been used across several contexts from self-control of physical activities such as dieting or athletic exercise (Dorris et al., 2011; Vohs & Heatherton, 2000) to sociological phenomena. Sociologically, for example, it has been shown that people experience ego depletion as a result of being targeted by social stigma or prejudice (Inzlicht et al., 2006) and that ego depletion can impair a person's capacity for experiencing guilt or engaging in prosocial or helping behavior to compensate for guilt (Xu et al., 2012).

In marketing, specifically, this theory is most often seen in consumer behavior studies. For example, consumers face ego depletion when making complex product comparisons and decisions, particularly when a large amount of options are available (Baumeister et al., 2008; Hofman et al., 2008). This, in turn, impacts consumption decisions and behaviors in several ways including ego depleted consumers making purchases that were more indulgent than enriching (Wang et al., 2010), spending more money on impulse purchases (Vohs & Faber, 2007), making fewer compromises between product attributes during selection (Simonson, 1989), and prioritizing their feelings or affect over utility during consumption decisions (Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999).

Ego depletion may be impacted by several factors. First, a series of four experiments indicate that the effects of ego depletion can be mitigated by positive mood, such that individuals in a good mood tend to be able to recover more quickly from depletion and self-regulate better on subsequent tasks (Tice et al., 2007). Second, there is also evidence that ego depletion is impacted by motivations such that individuals with more motivation to perform well on a task (for example, a monetary reward) are better able to overcome the ego depletion of a previous task than those with little or no motivation (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Boucher & Kofos, 2012). Third, ego depletion may be susceptible to perception bias such that people who *believe* that they

have expended a large amount of energy on a task will experience reduced self-control performance on subsequent tasks regardless of their true state of ego depletion (Clarkson et al., 2010). Fourth, ego depletion may be exacerbated by stress because the behaviors required for coping with stress use up self-regulation resources (Glass et al., 1969).

Furthermore, there is evidence that certain behaviors or thought processes are more susceptible to ego depletion than others. For example, active responses to a situation are more impactful on people than are passive responses (Cioffii & Garner, 1996). Specifically relevant to this dissertation, an individual will experience different levels of ego depletion when utilizing crystallized intelligence versus fluid intelligence. Crystallized intelligence derives its name from the component of intellectual ability in which skills have become crystallized because they are well known after being learned (Cattell, 1963). It is gained through formal education or experience and is stored in long-term memory (Schmeichel et al., 2003; Unsworth, 2010). Fluid intelligence, on the other hand, refers to the ability to adapt in new or dynamic situations where crystallized intelligence is not useful (Cattell, 1963). Fluid intelligence is about reasoning and solving new problems and is linked with working memory (Jaeggi et al., 2008). Individuals utilizing crystallized intelligence suffer less ego depletion than those using fluid intelligence. Indeed, it has been argued that crystallized intelligence is essentially immune to ego depletion (Schmeichel et al., 2003). This is because crystallized intelligence involves retrieving useful information from long-term memory, an act that requires far fewer, if any, of the self-regulatory resources engaged during the active problem solving or adaptation behaviors requiring fluid intelligence (Horn & Cattell, 1966; Schmeichel et al., 2003).

Ego depletion is an important mechanism by which individuals conserve energy. Specifically, ego depletion does not necessarily represent a state of complete depletion of mental

and self-control resources, but instead a coping mechanism that people use in order to avoid complete depletion (Baumeister & Vohs, 2008; Muraven et al., 2006). That is, individuals are anticipating and staying prepared for future demands by conserving energy in the present. Baumeister and Vohs (2008, p. 125), for example, use the analogy of an athlete who feels physically tired but is not fully depleted, and yet still cuts back on exertion now in order to avoid complete exhaustion later. This conservation happens because it is important for individuals to maintain an emergency reserve store of the precious and limited energy that can be accessed in the case of an extremely important need or high priority demand. There is also evidence that when individuals are aware of tasks that await them, they make judgments about prioritizing the tasks in order to allocate their self-control resources accordingly (Muraven et al., 2006), meaning that in anticipation of heavy depletion on a future task, an individual may diminish effort on a present task. The idea of conservation may also explain how some of the factors that can impact ego depletion discussed above (such as motivation) work, in that they offer either incentive or disincentive for individuals to conserve or expend resources on any given task (Baumeister & Vohs, 2008).

As discussed above, ego depletion theory and extant literature suggest that ego depletion is, “not an artifact of a particular task or domain” (Hagger et al., 2010, p. 497). As such, it is clearly relevant and applies in the domain of this dissertation, sales, as well. In the context of this dissertation, any job duty that a salesperson is required to perform during the work day can be considered an act of volition. For example, the diversity of tasks required of salespeople in the commission of their jobs such as generating leads, meeting sales quotas, making sales calls, developing product and industry knowledge, or completing paperwork are all expected to utilize and deplete some resource. Similarly, we also see behavioral EI as an act of volition that

requires mental and self-control resources. Each of these job duties, including behavioral EI, will deplete resources in some way, and to varying degrees. Tasks such as routine paperwork, for example, are likely to require crystallized intelligence, and thus lead to less ego depletion than more complex tasks do. Given that behavioral EI includes controlling and adapting emotions to address dynamic situations and personal emotional states, it is more likely to not only be more complex and taxing, but also to utilize ego-depleting fluid intelligence. A significant positive correlation between fluid intelligence and the use of emotion (Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2009) provides some evidence of this.

It has been shown that exercising self-control for one type of task can lead to depletion and therefore lower performance on a subsequent task even if the second task is a different type of task altogether (Muraven et al., 1998). For this reason, we believe that this will remain consistent in a sales context such that the ability of salespeople to engage in one task, such as behavioral EI which is a major focus of this dissertation, will be impacted by other job duties, regardless of whether or not those duties require similar skill sets to emotional control. For example, completing a large amount of paperwork and regulating emotions can still impact each other even though they require different abilities and require exertion in two very different ways. Hence, everyday work demands on salespeople should result in ego depletion and should also, in line with the arguments of conservation made by Muraven et al. (2006) and Baumeister and Vohs (2008), demand salesperson judgement calls regarding the allocation of volitional resources based on task priority. Behavioral EI may fall low on the priority list for two primary reasons. First, salespeople are likely to prioritize tasks that managers prioritize and tasks that managers can see such as those that have tangible deliverables or measurable outcomes. While behavioral EI can help a salesperson perform duties more successfully, there is neither an

effective way for things like self-motivation or mood regulation to be conveyed tangibly nor many managers who ask for salesperson proof of such activities. Second, given that ego depletion can be attributed to conservation of resources for the future, it may be likely that salespeople will choose to first tackle tasks that utilize fewer resources when they are currently facing or anticipating a state of ego depletion. As discussed above, behavioral EI requires the adaptability and problem solving of fluid intelligence, which makes it more likely to be more ego-depleting than other sales tasks.

In sum, the jobs of salespeople are complex and multifaceted, requiring the completion of varied tasks requiring different levels of volition and utilizing different amounts of resources during their completion. With the completion of each task, ego depletion has the potential to increase and impact performance on subsequent tasks. Ego depletion can be impacted by several factors encountered in a sales setting (such as mood, motivation, or stress) and by the type of behaviors and intelligence that is activated. Salespeople experiencing ego depletion may have fewer resources to devote to worrying about behavioral EI as other tasks take precedent. As such, the theory of ego depletion offers an explanation regarding how certain salesperson and managerially controlled factors can contribute positively or be detrimental to the translation of cognitive EI into behavioral EI. The manifestations and implications of ego depletion in a sales context and relative to the constructs explored in this dissertation will also be discussed more deeply during the hypothesis development in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The final step of this research endeavor was to assess the new conceptualization of EI with an empirical study using real salespeople as respondents. As the earlier literature review and discussion illustrates, the EI construct is of importance in terms of understanding the salesperson individual differences that impact sales outcomes. Yet, it has only recently begun to appear in empirical models in the sales literature. Based on the discussion in Chapters II and III above, the conceptual model, presented next, hypothesizes EI to have two distinct dimensions, cognitive EI and behavioral EI. The importance of EI to salespeople is expected to manifest in its positive influence on the salesperson outcomes of both objective performance and customer relationship performance. Given our argumentation in Chapters II and III above regarding the cascading effect of EI dimensions, the impact of cognitive EI on sales outcomes is expected to be mediated by behavioral EI. The final portion of the conceptual model introduces moderating factors that are expected to either strengthen or weaken the link between cognitive and behavioral EI. While Study 1 showed preliminary evidence of personality factors that can either help or hinder a salesperson's ability to translate EI knowledge into effective emotional behavior, the main study introduces additional individual factors and adds to this management controlled factors that are empirically tested as moderators.

What follows is the development of hypotheses, a description of the methods used and results found, a discussion of the implications for theory and practice, a discussion of the study limitations, and finally, an outline of potential avenues for future research.

Emotional Intelligence and Sales Outcomes

First, the model proposes to empirically address the dimensionality of EI, specifically, testing the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI. As discussed above, cognitive EI deals with a person's ability to perceive emotions in themselves and others and to understand emotions. In contrast, behavioral EI entails facilitating emotional use and managing emotions effectively. An objective of this main study is to demonstrate that cognitive EI must precede behavioral EI. This is because in order for emotional use to be constructive, the actor must have knowledge about how emotions manifest. When individuals lack understanding about emotions or cannot perceive them, they will be ill equipped to use emotions to manage behavior in any meaningful way. Moreover, what previous conceptualizations of EI have failed to take into account is that it is possible for individuals to be able to cognitively understand and perceive emotions but not to be able to facilitate and manage them effectively. The anecdote of knowing that a friend or significant other is feeling down but having no idea how to help them feel better is illustrative of this idea. A salesperson may possess high emotional perception abilities and be able to glean from nonverbal cues that a customer is feeling frustrated, but not know how to behave in a way to mitigate that frustration. Or, a salesperson might perceive that he is in a bad mood and understand (both cognitive EI) that a bad mood makes it hard for him to work, but will be unable to get rid of that bad mood (behavioral EI).

There is only one study to date that tests for a similar type of relationship among EI dimensions. Chen and Jaramillo (2014) recently proposed and found that the use of emotions mediates the impact of emotion perceptions on emotion regulation. Just as Chen and Jaramillo (2014) argue for a “cascading causal mechanism” among the EI dimensions (p. 36), we argue that the presence of cognitive EI is necessary for behavioral EI to manifest in a person. As such, any behavioral emotion management should be preceded by emotional information, as represented by cognitive EI. This is consistent with the theory of planned behavior, discussed in-depth in Chapter III, which states that behavior does not arise automatically, but is instead precipitated and influenced by available information which is relevant to that behavior (Ajzen, 2011; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). According to the theory, any and all of the behaviors that characterize behavioral EI, such as emotional control, do not arise spontaneously, but instead are driven first by the three predictors of behavior. Attitude, what is believed about a behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), is represented in emotional knowledge. Subjective norms, what other people will think about a behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), are represented in emotional experience and knowledge that allows a salesperson to anticipate accurately how others react to emotions. Perceived behavioral control, how well people think they will be able to perform a behavior (Ajzen, 1991), is represented in the self-efficacy of salespeople to perform the desired emotional behavior.

Therefore, we hypothesize that the level at which cognitive EI manifests will have significant bearing on behavioral EI because all three predictors of behavior enumerated by the theory of planned behavior, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control are represented in cognitive EI.

H1: Cognitive EI will be positively related to behavioral EI.

Given that a large part of the sales job is to deal with customers, one critical outcome that should be incorporated is how well salespeople perform relative to their customers. Customer relationship management performance is often addressed in terms of creating customer value, or making sure that customer needs are met in that they are receiving what they want from a firm's products or services in relation to what they must give up (such as time and/or money) (Ryals, 2005; Verhoef, 2003; Wang et al., 2004; Woodruff, 1997). Further, it is about a salesperson's ability to maintain good relationships with customers, generate customer satisfaction, and ultimately retain customers. A salesperson who possesses high EI should be more likely to have happy customers for several reasons.

First, it is well documented that EI is positively related to several interpersonal relationship outcomes such as cooperation, satisfaction, and relationship closeness (Schutte et al., 2001). In light of the importance place that the human element occupies in buyer-seller relationships, it is likely that the beneficial consequences that EI has for personal relationships will hold within a salesperson-customer relationship as well. Given that EI also is manifested with a focus on others and their feelings, Rozell et al. (2004) state, "many of the components of emotional intelligence... are similarly related to customer orientation" (p. 406). It should follow that this will lead to better customer satisfaction and customer perceptions of higher received value from the relationship. Second, a salesperson who is more emotionally intelligent should be more predisposed to be cooperative with a customer (Schutte et al., 2001). According to reciprocity theory, people evaluate the valence and intent of actions and tend to respond in kind, rewarding positive actions and punishing harmful or negative actions (Falk & Fischbacher,

2005). Hence, cooperative and pleasant salespeople are likely to increase their chances that a customer will respond in kind and foster positive interactions. Third, a salesperson who has high EI will not only be more intrinsically motivated to maintain good relationships, but also should be able to maintain them and keep customers satisfied with less effort than a low EI because of increased adeptness at interpersonal interactions and relationships.

H2a: Behavioral EI will be positively related to customer relationship performance.

We further argue, however, that behavioral EI impacts performance outcomes as a mediating variable between cognitive EI and customer relationship performance. This is because behavioral EI will not be possible, let alone constructive, unless it is based on cognitive EI. Arriving at the best behavior to engage in requires that a person knows about and understands his or her emotions, implying that there is an order to EI. This is something that Chen and Jaramillo (2014) refer to as the “cascading” effect of EI dimensions. Furthermore, cognitive EI alone does not lead to customer relationship performance; it is the translation of EI knowledge into actions and behavior that allows for relationships to be impacted. That is, it will be difficult for salespeople to increase the positivity of customer interactions based on just cognitive EI alone. For example, cognitively recognizing that a customer is bored, frustrated, or angry alone will not mitigate those negative feelings unless something can be done about it. Instead, it is the behaviors chosen in response to that knowledge that will serve to allay negative customer emotions. Therefore, customer relationships are expected to be impacted by cognitive EI through behavioral EI.

Moreover, as the theory of planned behavior states, behavior is impacted by three things, all of which are cognitive in nature. Attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control all contribute the enactment of behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen, 1991). As such, the EI behaviors that are expected increase customer relationship performance will be impacted by cognitive EI. Emotional knowledge, represented in cognitive EI, entails understanding how emotions work together, what they feel like in oneself, and what they look like when manifesting in others (e.g. Mayer et al., 2003). Such knowledge represents the attitude component of the theory of planned behavior because this knowledge allows salespeople to make judgments about what the consequences of a behavior might be and to make valence decisions regarding each. Emotional knowledge also entails knowledge about what to expect as a reaction from others when certain emotions are displayed. Such knowledge represents the subjective norms component of the theory of planned behavior because it allows salespeople to anticipate how customers or managers will react to behavior. Perceived behavioral control represents how well salespeople feel they will be able to successfully enact a behavior such as negative emotion suppression or positive emotional display. Therefore, all three predictors of behavior enumerated in the theory of planned behavior are encompassed by cognitive EI, which supports the idea that cognitive EI must precede the behavior that is behavioral EI. It follows that mediation may be present when measuring the impact of EI on outcomes such as customer relationship performance.

In sum, we hypothesize that behavioral EI mediates the relationship between cognitive EI and customer relationship performance because cognitive EI alone is impotent unless it impels behavior. Further, in accordance with the theory of planned behavior, behavior must be preceded by mental beliefs and judgments.

H2b: Behavioral EI will mediate the relationship between cognitive EI and customer relationship performance.

Objective performance refers to the level of success salespeople are achieving in their roles. It is often measured with objective, secondary data such as percent to quota, total sales volume, total number of sales calls, or total sales corrected for economic or territory conditions (Churchill et al., 1985; Verbeke et al., 2011). Objective performance can also be measured with general assessments (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Janssen et al., 2010) that tap into individuals' performance by asking salespeople or managers to rate their performance of various job duties against peers either with one or multi-item scales. For example, salespeople will rank how well they have performed relative to other members of their team or unit. Both objective and self-report measures are frequently used. Furthermore, in a meta-analysis of sales performance, Churchill et al. (1985) conclude that there is no empirical support to suggest that there is a significant difference in correlations with predictors of performance between self-report and objective measures of performance.

Extant literature in exploring salesperson EI has been consistent in supporting the positive relationship between EI and performance (e.g. Deeter-Schmelz & Sojka, 2003; Kidwell et al., 2011; Lassk & Shepherd, 2013; Rozell et al., 2006). An early indicator of this relationship came with a study with in-depth interviews of salespeople. The salespeople with strong performance records (measured via awards and recognition) were those that exhibited characteristics associated with EI (Deeter-Schmelz & Sojka, 2003). Empirical evidence is

offered by studies that found a significant positive link between EI and general sales performance (Lassk & Shepherd, 2013; Rozell et al., 2006) and by Kidwell et al. (2011) who found an increase in the specific performance metric of sales revenue for salespeople with higher EI. Outside of EI, general interpersonal skills, such as coping or conflict resolution skills, have also been shown to significantly impact sales performance outcomes (Rentz et al., 2002; Verbeke et al., 2011).

The extant literature speaks to the idea that EI can be seen as an extra tool in the salesperson's toolkit. As such, it is expected that it will be a primarily positive force in helping salespeople do their jobs effectively and achieve their goals. Behavioral EI entails a salesperson using emotions and managing emotions in order to achieve desired outcomes. This means that a high EI salesperson will be better equipped to positively handle customer interactions, which should lead to increased performance. Additionally, a salesperson with high levels of behavioral EI should also be better able to maintain and leverage his or her positive emotions while suppressing and overcoming negative emotions in order to enhance job performance. Hence, the afore-suggested positive relationship between EI and objective performance is expected to be replicated here.

H3a: Behavioral EI will be positively related to objective performance.

We further argue, however, that behavioral EI impacts performance outcomes as a mediating variable between cognitive EI and objective performance. As discussed in above in the arguments leading to Hypothesis H2b, mediation is expected because the constructive use of

behavioral EI is contingent on the presence of cognitive EI. Moreover, it is not enough to simply cognitively understand emotions, meaning that cognitive EI alone does not lead to objective performance. Instead, translating cognitive EI into actions and behavior will impact salesperson performance. For example, a salesperson that cognitively recognizes that she is disheartened after a bad sales call will not have better performance because of that recognition. She will be able to achieve better performance if she takes that recognition of her disheartened state (cognitive EI) and knowledge that a positive mood helps her work better (cognitive EI) and is then able to make herself feel better (behavioral EI) in order to work more productively for the remainder of the day. Thus, objective performance is enhanced by cognitive EI through behavioral EI.

Moreover, the theory of planned behavior supports the progressive structure of cognitive and behavioral EI, and thus mediation, because it argues that cognitive evaluations precede and predict behavior. Specifically, the predictors of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control all combine to predict whether a behavior is performed (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen, 1991). As discussed above, all three predictors carry components of cognitive EI such that emotional knowledge allows salespeople to not only have the information necessary to make judgments about intended behavior but also to accurately anticipate the valence of behavioral outcomes and impact of behavior on others. This suggests that cognitive EI predicts behavior. It follows that mediation may be present when measuring the impact of EI on outcomes such as outcome performance.

In sum, we hypothesize that behavioral EI mediates the relationship between cognitive EI and objective performance because cognitive EI alone is ineffectual unless it induces behavior. Further, in accordance with the theory of planned behavior, behavior must be preceded by mental

beliefs and judgments, and as such some behavior, specifically the emotional behavior we see as behavioral EI, is expected to intercede between cognitive EI and its ultimate outcome of objective performance.

H3b: Behavioral EI will mediate the relationship between cognitive EI and objective performance.

Moderators: Salesperson Individual Factors

There has been a good deal of scholarship relating personality factors with emotional intelligence (e.g. Boyle et al., 1995; Stankov & Crawford, 1997; van der Zee et al., 2002). Indeed, the ‘Big Five’ personality dimensions of extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience (Barrick & Mount, 1991) have logical appeal as individual differences that may relate to EI. This study hypothesizes that all five factors of the big five personality dimensions will moderate the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI. As is discussed in detail below, they are predicted to influence this relationship because each personality factor has the potential to impact a person’s manifestation of emotional behavior. Moreover, as discussed in detail below, several of the personality factors are expected to influence the way that salespeople experience or recover from ego depletion, which should impact the amount of resources salespeople have left to deal with translating cognitive EI into behavioral EI.

First, the ways that extraverted and introverted persons manage emotion are hypothesized to differ because each has their own proclivity for interpersonal interaction. Specifically,

extraverts enjoy interpersonal interaction, are outgoing and tend to be talkative and energetic while introverts, on the other end of the continuum, are more reserved, solitary, and introspective (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Thompson, 2008). Not only do extraverts tend to prefer to be more socially engaged than introverts (Barrick & Mount, 1991), but it has been argued that extraversion itself facilitates social interactions (Lucas et al., 2008) because extraverts seek out social interactions to enhance their arousal whereas introverts avoid social interactions because their baseline is already at a higher level of cortical arousal (Eysenck, 1976). This means that extraverted salespeople may be more inclined to behaviorally manifest EI in a way that engages (instead of avoids) their customers or coworkers.

Further, for extraverted salespeople, the high levels of interpersonal interactions required of them in the commission of their jobs should be less taxing than for introverted salespeople. As such, an extraverted salesperson, who enjoys socially engaging with others, is expected to experience less ego depletion than an introverted salesperson, who does not, during interactions with customers, co-workers, and supervisors. Since interacting with others comes more naturally to extraverts (Barrick & Mount, 1991), it will require less self-control and therefore result in less ego depletion in extraverted salespeople. Less ego depletion should, in turn, result in a salesperson having more self-control and energy available to him after interpersonal interactions for other tasks (Baumeister et al., 1998) such as focusing on behavioral EI.

Additionally, the personality trait of extraversion has consistently been shown to be associated with positive mood states and happiness in individuals (Canli et al., 2004; Costa & McCrae, 1980; Furnham & Brewin, 1990; Pavot et al., 1990; Rusting & Larsen, 1997). This is critical because mood has been shown to impact the way that individuals respond to ego depletion. Specifically, individuals who are in a positive mood state are better able to recover

from ego depleting tasks than those who are not (Tice et al., 2007). This recovery takes the form of an enhanced ability, after one task, to self-regulate and, hence, perform better on a subsequent task for people with positive moods. Therefore, extraverted individuals are expected to not only experience less ego depletion from interpersonal interactions, specifically, but in addition to this benefit, the ego depletion that they do experience either from interactions, or from any other job duty, will be overcome more quickly and efficiently due to their tendency to experience more positive moods.

As the previous discussion illustrates, salespeople who are more extraverted are expected to be more dispositionally predisposed and better equipped to retain the energy and self-control necessary to engage in behavioral EI.

H4a: The Big Five Personality dimension of extraversion will positively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Second, the personality trait of agreeableness is also expected to moderate the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI. Agreeable individuals are characterized by kindness, sympathy for others, considerateness, cooperativeness, and warmth while disagreeable individuals have been shown to demonstrate the opposite with less empathy for others, more skepticism of others, unfriendliness, and unhelpfulness (Barrick & Mount, 1992; Thompson, 2008).

Agreeableness is likely to impact the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI because agreeable individuals are concerned with cooperation, getting along with others and they strive for social harmony (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997), even placing

interpersonal relationships above being right or standing their ground in disagreements (Graziano et al., 1996). Alternatively, disagreeable people demonstrate less concern for others and put less emphasis on helping others. They have also been associated with vindictiveness, criticism, disdain, and antagonism (Goldberg, 1990). Therefore, it is likely that highly agreeable salespeople will be more dispositionally inclined to use their cognitive knowledge about emotions to behave in a way that leads to positive interactions. Conversely, disagreeable salespeople, even if they cognitively perceive and understand that a client is frustrated or angry or experiencing any other negative emotion, may not see any value in trying to behave in a way to mitigate that negative emotion since they are not as concerned with others or with cooperative behaviors. This is demonstrated in a study by Tobin et al. (2000) that suggests individuals who are more agreeable are more likely to control emotions in social interactions. Indeed, they argue that, “agreeableness is distinctive in its connection to motives for maintaining positive interpersonal relations” (Tobin et al., 2000, p. 666).

Furthermore, when emotional labor (that is, what employees expend when they are expected to display certain emotions to customers or for another aspect of their jobs) is required of employees, agreeable people are more likely to engage in deep acting than surface acting (Kiffin-Petersen et al., 2011). Deep acting entails “attempts to modify feelings to match the required display,” whereas surface acting entails modifying emotional displays “without shaping inner feelings” (Grandey 2003, p. 87). This is important because deep acting is less emotionally exhausting than surface acting (Grandey, 2003). Therefore, agreeable salespeople should experience less ego depletion when interacting with customers because the expression of appropriate emotions that customer interaction necessitates will be more likely to come from deep acting, which is less taxing.

In sum, agreeable salespeople are expected to be much more likely to control emotions in response to social situations, given their desires and motives to maintain cooperation and social harmony. They also should experience less ego depletion from interpersonal interactions and therefore have more self-regulatory energy available to translate cognitive EI into behavioral EI than less agreeable salespeople. As such, it should increase the strength of the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

H4b: The Big Five Personality dimension of agreeableness will positively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Third, conscientiousness refers to the importance that an individual places on self-discipline, achievement, and on the fulfillment of duties (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Conscientious individuals tend to be careful and systematic, deliberative and thorough, and to have neat personal spaces (Thompson, 2008). In short, conscientiousness is “marked by a lack of indiscreet and unproductive behaviors” (Hirsh et al., 2009, p. 1097). Conversely, people who are lower on the conscientiousness continuum are more laid back, less organized, and less driven by professional success or goal-orientation (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

As the trait definition discussed above demonstrates, one of the central characteristics of conscientiousness is dutifulness. Salespeople who are conscientiousness, then, would be more likely to take their job duties more seriously, would want to achieve professional success, and be more careful about making sure they effectively fulfill job responsibilities (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hirsh et al., 2009; Thompson, 2008). Hence, when a salesperson is in possession of emotional knowledge (cognitive EI), his level of conscientiousness will impact the likelihood

that he translates it into constructive behavior. This is because if a salesperson is not dutiful or goal-oriented, there is less of an intrinsic incentive to be a successful employee whereas a highly dutiful salesperson will be more inclined to try their best at work endeavors. The more conscientious salespeople are, the more likely they are to want to expend energy regulating and using emotions (behavioral EI) during the work day in order to be successful. This is borne out in the extant literature suggesting that conscientiousness is linked with job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006).

Conscientiousness is also expected to moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI because of its link to motivation. In a meta-analysis study of personality traits and motivation, conscientiousness was the trait with the most consistent and strongest positive correlation to motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002). This link between conscientiousness and motivation is important because high levels of motivation can impact the way that an individual responds to ego depletion. While a state of ego depletion is expected to lower the self-regulation resources available to someone to employ in the commission of a second act of volition (Baumeister et al., 1998), high levels of motivation can help to buffer this effect (Boucher & Kofos, 2012). Thus, salespeople high in conscientiousness should be better able to overcome ego depletion that results from the self-regulation and energy required for job duties because they experience higher levels of motivation. As such, this buffering effect should leave highly conscientious salespeople with more energy to self-regulate emotional behavior, thus leading to a stronger connection between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

In sum, highly conscientious salespeople are likely to feel more dutiful towards their job and customers and are therefore likely to *want* to act (behavioral EI) on any emotional information (cognitive EI) they possess. Further, they are expected to have a higher motivation

which should help to suppress the negative effects of ego depletion. This suppression should leave more energy resources available to conscientious salespeople for the exercise of constructive behavioral EI. Therefore, conscientiousness is expected to strengthen the positive relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

H4c: The Big Five Personality dimension of conscientiousness will positively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Fourth, emotional stability, or the opposite of neuroticism, as this component of the Big Five is sometimes called, offers another potential moderating influence on the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. Emotional stability is characterized by even temperament, calmness, a lower propensity for feeling tense or anxious, and the ability to cope better with stress. Neuroticism, alternatively, is characterized by moodiness, feelings of anxiety and worry, less of an ability to cope with stress, and more frequent feelings of frustration and jealousy (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Goldberg, 1990; Thompson, 2008). Therefore, we expect salespeople who are highly emotionally stable to display fewer negative emotions, more optimism, more calm, and more coping mechanisms than highly neurotic salespersons (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Emotional stability is similar to the trait of conscientiousness in that it is also strongly linked to motivation. The previously discussed meta-analysis study of personality traits and motivation also found that neuroticism was the trait with the most consistent and strongest negative correlation to motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002), perhaps because neurotic individuals are less likely to be goal-oriented (Malouff et al., 1990). This suggests, since neuroticism and

emotional stability are on opposite ends of the same personality trait continuum, that the farther people are away from emotional stability (and hence, towards neuroticism), the less motivation they tend to have. As discussed above, this is important because Boucher and Kofos (2012) have shown that high levels of motivation can help individuals suffering from ego depletion to recover more effectively and experience less impairment of their self-regulation when faced with another task. Therefore, more highly emotional stable salespeople should be able to better buffer the negative impact of ego depletion on their volitions, because they experience higher levels of motivation.

Furthermore, neuroticism has been empirically linked with negative mood states in individuals (Canli et al., 2004; Costa & McCrae, 1980; Rusting & Larsen, 1997). This is critical because, as discussed above, individuals' responses to ego depletion tasks are impacted by their mood such that individuals experiencing a positive mood state are better able to recover from ego depleting tasks than those who are not (Tice et al., 2007). As such, emotionally stable sales people should recover more quickly from ego depleting work demands and hence exhibit an enhanced ability to self-regulate. This buffering effect of positive mood on ego depletion will thus help salespeople perform better on other tasks. One such mental task that could be strengthened is behavioral EI.

Following the above argumentation, it is hypothesized that salespeople characterized by a high level of emotional stability should exhibit an enhanced ability to use and manage emotions effectively.

H4d: The Big Five Personality dimension of emotional stability will positively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Fifth, the personality trait of openness to experience may also increase a salesperson's effective translation of cognitive EI into behavior. Openness to experience is characterized by an individual's propensity for curiosity and adventurousness, a willingness to try new things, and a predilection for variety (Barrick & Mount, 1991). On the other end of the continuum, people who are low on openness to experience, sometimes referred to as closed to experience, are more conventional, unimaginative, and uncreative (Thompson, 2008). People high in openness to experience tend to be more adaptable, have memory access to more experiences (McCrae & Costa, 1997), and therefore be able to engage in more creative behavior to address changing situations (George & Zhou, 2001).

This personality trait of openness to experience should impact the ability of salespeople to use behavioral EI because it is positively related to creativity (McCrae, 1996; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006; Thompson, 2008) and imaginativeness (Thompson, 2008). This creativity is important because it will allow salespeople to have more behavioral options available to them as they encounter diverse situations (George & Zhou, 2001). For example, a salesperson who is low in openness to experience may recognize that he is frustrated after an unsuccessful call, but have only one strategy to deal with the negative emotion whereas a highly open to experience salesperson would have the creativity to try several behavioral strategies until finding the most effective way to handle the negative emotion constructively. Further, openness to experience is also linked to flexibility and a willingness to try new things (Barrick & Mount, 1991; McCrae, 1996). Salespeople exhibiting these traits may be more likely to have found themselves in a broader range of situations in their careers than salespeople who are not flexible or shy away from unfamiliar circumstances. As such, they will have likely encountered a wider range of

customers and endured a wider range of emotional states which would allow for a larger pool of memory and information (McCrae & Costa, 1997) on which to draw when engaging in behavioral EI.

Moreover, openness to experience is also linked with intelligence and intellectualness (Thompson, 2008) as well as general knowledge (Chamorro-Premuzic et al., 2006; Furnham et al., 2007), both of which should behave similarly to creativity in giving salespeople more information and tools at their disposal when utilizing emotional behavior. Thus, salespeople who are more open to experience should be better able to successfully translate cognitive EI into behavioral EI.

Lastly, openness to experience is another personality trait that has a positive relationship with motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002), specifically as it relates to self-efficacy motivation and goal setting. As discussed above, motivation is an important factor in ego depletion (Boucher & Kofos, 2012) such that high levels of motivation helps individuals suffering from ego depletion to recover more effectively and experience less impairment of their self-regulation when faced with another task. Therefore, the more open to experience that salespeople are, the better able they should be at buffering the negative impact of ego depletion resulting from one act of volition on their subsequent acts of volition given their propensity for higher levels of motivation.

In sum, the personality trait of openness to experience is expected to help salespeople translate cognitive EI into behavioral EI for several reasons. Specifically, openness to experience allows for more creativity in finding appropriate behavioral responses, it facilitates the accumulation of knowledge and experience in varied situations, and it allows for more effective recovery from ego depletion.

H4e: The Big Five Personality dimensions of openness to experience will positively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Job knowledge is defined as, “the cumulation of facts, principles, concepts and other pieces of information that are considered important in the performance of one’s job” (Dye et al., 1993, p. 153). This includes knowledge about the technical mechanics of performing specific tasks, knowledge about steps and processes needed to perform job duties, and knowledge about the judgment criteria used in decisions. Job knowledge can be measured in several ways. It can be assessed through direct observation of a work sample in which respondents are observed performing job tasks, although this is often very costly or unfeasible, through measures with right and wrong answers to job-related questions, through supervisor ratings of an employee’s job knowledge, or through employee self-report (Hunter, 1986).

Although a direct relationship between EI and academic ability, or traditional intelligence is not supported in the literature (e.g. Davies et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 1998; van der Zee et al., 2002), there exists preliminary support for the interactive effect of EI and cognitive ability. This preliminary support suggests that a combination of the two is a more powerful predictor than either is alone and that EI may, in fact, be a better predictor of some outcomes than cognitive ability is (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Kidwell et al., 2011). Kidwell et al. (2011) use specific job knowledge as a proxy for cognitive ability, which is akin to intelligence and represents the developed cognitive abilities of an individual (Hunter, 1986).

High levels of job knowledge should interact with cognitive EI because it represents salespeople's ability to understand the industry and company in which they operate. Furthermore, it means that they better understand their products and the best way to convey the characteristics and value proposition of these products to customers. This can be understood in the context of ego depletion theory, which states that individuals have a finite amount of mental and self-control resources at their disposal; when an individual must deplete a large amount of these resources on any given task, their capacity to effectively accomplish any subsequent tasks (even if they are unrelated to the first task) is diminished (Baumeister et al., 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2008). The salespeople with the highest amount of job knowledge have the most knowledge about how to accomplish tasks, company procedures, and other information needed to do their jobs. This knowledge can be categorized as crystallized intelligence because it is gained by experience and education and because it resides in and is retrievable from long-term memory (Schmeichel et al., 2003; Unsworth, 2010). Crystallized intelligence is largely immune to ego depletion because it requires the retrieval of useful information from memory, which utilizes fewer self-regulatory resources than active control necessary for handling tasks requiring fluid intelligence (Horn & Cattell, 1966; Schmeichel et al., 2003). The more job knowledge that salespeople have stored in long-term memory, the less they should suffer ego depletion because they will be able to more easily retrieve the necessary information as the need arises. Salespeople with low levels of job knowledge, conversely, will be required to spend more time figuring out what to do or how to do it and have less left over for other tasks or acts of volition and self-regulation. In sum, greater job knowledge should translate into less ego depletion during the completion of job duties, thus freeing up more resources for behavioral EI.

H5: Job knowledge will positively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Salesperson experience is expected to help enhance the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI. Salesperson experience is the amount of time that any particular salesperson has been selling. Job experience in any employment context or position is predominantly conceptualized and measured simply in years. In a sales context, specifically, it is commonly measured with the respondents' number of years in sales generally, years selling in a specific industry or a specific product, years selling for a specific company (e.g. Gengler et al., 1995; Levy & Sharma, 1994; Manna & Smith, 2004), or years serving in any specific capacity that is germane to the study at hand such as years of international sales experience (Reuber & Fischer, 1997).

Salesperson experience is expected to moderate the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI in a similar way as job knowledge. This is because salespeople who have spent more time in their role will have had more customer encounters with which to create knowledge that facilitates the constructive reaction to customer emotional displays. This expectation is consistent with existing research which links experience with performance outcomes (e.g. Sturman, 2003). Work experience allows a person to accumulate both knowledge and skills, which increase job performance (Weiss, 1990). This should apply as well to the accumulation of knowledge and skills that are specific to handling the inter- and intrapersonal emotions that will arise during the selling process. Therefore, it is expected that more experienced salespeople would be more adept at being able to take cognitive knowledge about emotions and translate that into emotional behavior that is constructive and appropriate to the situation. Simply put, a

salesperson who has encountered hundreds of frustrated customers should have more emotional behavior strategies upon which to draw than a salesperson who has encountered only a dozen frustrated.

Furthermore, this knowledge and familiarity with situations that salespeople accumulate over the years becomes crystallized intelligence because it is gained through experience (Schmeichel et al., 2003). Intelligence that is not crystallized is that which is new to an individual (Gustafsson, 1984; Horn & Cattell, 1966). The more times that a salesperson experiences a situation or performs a job duty or encounters a company policy or procedure, the more crystallized it becomes and the more easily accessible it is from memory. As discussed above, this is important because this type of knowledge, which is gained by experience, does not result in substantial ego depletion when it is retrieved and used (Schmeichel et al., 2003). Experienced salespeople will be able to rely more on crystallized knowledge than inexperienced salespeople and are therefore less likely they are to suffer ego depletion. The less ego depletion that salespeople suffer during the completion of job duties, the more resources that should be available to them for other acts of volition, including those that are necessary for the successful implementation of behavioral EI.

H6: Salesperson experience will positively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Moderators: Managerially Controlled Factors

While individual factors may potentially increase the likelihood that a salesperson is able to put cognitive EI into behavioral action, these factors are those that may be screened for during the hiring process, but not necessarily influenced by hiring firms. Consequently, this study also recognizes the importance of offering potential moderators that a sales manager has control over with his or her existing staff. This demonstrates the range of contexts in which the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI is important and also serves to increase managerial relevance.

One factor over which management has control, training, should improve a salesperson's ability to facilitate EI behavior. Sales training is, "a deliberate and formalized accumulation of information, concepts, and skills that are intended to foster competence or enhance the performance of salespeople" (Wilson et al., 2002, p. 77). The information disseminated in training can cover a wide breadth of topics including information about products, the market, competitors, the company itself, the company's policies and procedures, or about the act of selling itself (Dubinsky & Staples, 1982). The changing sales environment has precipitated changes to the training process. For example, the increase in technological resources and in time demands on salespeople has seen a rise in long-distance or e-learning training programs (Cron et al., 2005; Lassk et al., 2012). Further, the changing role of salespeople, as they incorporate more service behaviors into selling, also necessitates that training approaches keep pace (Lassk et al., 2012).

Job training will improve skills and capabilities by increasing job-specific competencies (Pettijohn et al., 2002). These include skills such as need identification or customer orientation (Pettijohn et al., 2002) which will be directly instrumental in interpersonal customer interactions.

Additionally, it will increase comfort levels with product knowledge, time management, and basic procedural requirements. A salesperson that does not have to exert mental resources toward accurately recalling product and service knowledge during customer interactions should have more resources to devote to reacting to cognitive EI information and facilitating the most effective behavioral EI response. This is consistent with ego depletion theory, which, as discussed above, states that because individuals have a finite amount of mental and self-control resources at their disposal, the more onerous any given task is, the fewer resources that are left for alternative endeavors (Baumeister et al., 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2008). Training should help salespeople be better at their job thus reducing the resources salespeople will need to draw on to complete daily work and, in turn, tempering the effects of ego depletion and allowing salespeople to have more resources on which to draw for translating cognitive EI into behavioral EI.

Given that sales training is the formal accumulation of information and skills needed to perform a job, salespeople with more training should also have more crystallized intelligence that pertains to their jobs. This is because intelligence is crystallized if it is acquired through experience and education, the delivery found in training (Schmeichel et al., 2003). As discussed above, this is important because this type of knowledge is immune to ego depletion when it is retrieved and used (Schmeichel et al., 2003). Successful training should result in more knowledge stored in long-term memory as the salesperson accumulates skills and information. Hence, training should render salespeople less susceptible to ego depletion because it will make job-relevant information more accessible. Training should behave similarly to job knowledge and experience such that salespeople with low levels of job training will be required to spend more time figuring out what to do or how to do it and have less left over for other tasks or acts of

volition and self-regulation. In sum, more training should lead to less ego depletion during the completion of job duties, thus freeing up more resources available for the implementation of effective behavioral EI.

H7: Salesperson training will positively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Finally, role stress is expected to negatively impact a salesperson's ability to translate cognitive EI into behavioral EI. Role stress has been defined as any aspect of an individual's role in an organization that results in adverse consequences for that individual (Beehr et al., 1976). Role stress has consistently been associated positively with boundary spanning roles (e.g. Singh & Rhoads, 1991; Stamper & Johlke, 2003; Weatherly & Tansik, 1993), roles which salespeople assume because they have to interface with both the firm and its customers. Role stress can be elicited in several ways; three major role stressors that have been identified are role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload (Kahn et al., 1964). Each of these factors will be discussed in further detail below.

The first component of role stress, role conflict, refers to the presence of incompatible instructions or expectations regarding the role that a salesperson must fulfill (House & Rizzo, 1972; Rizzo et al., 1970). Simply put, salespeople experience role conflict when they receive multiple directives or have multiple expectations that are incongruent with each other. This often arises when there is a lack of single accountability, which is the presence of only one superior to whom an employee is accountable. A lack of single accountability can cause problems because

employees not only have to contend with the disparate evaluative criteria of multiple superiors but also have to make decisions about how to prioritize conflicting tasks (Davis, 1951; Rizzo et al., 1970). Role conflict can also arise, even with single accountability, if directives or policies are constantly changing (House & Rizzo, 1972).

Role conflict is expected to weaken the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI because a salesperson with high role conflict will be diverting more resources to trying to resolve the conflict of incongruous instructions or expectations. This resolution will require energy and resources, thus leading to higher ego depletion and leaving fewer resources and less energy to deal with effectively translating emotional knowledge into behavior (Baumeister et al., 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2008). Role theory also holds that when expectations are inconsistent, individuals should be less effective, due, in part, to higher levels of stress and dissatisfaction (Kahn et al., 1964). This is because high levels of conflict can lead to strain (Goode, 1960), the deleterious effects of which include distress, high levels of stress or lower motivation (Jamal, 1984). Role conflict is a type of stress that is also important because dealing with stress requires, and therefore depletes, self-regulation resources (Glass et al., 1969; Muraven et al., 1998). Hence, the greater disparity that there is between the two or more incommensurate instructions a salesperson is dealing with, the higher levels of stress he is likely to experience which will lead to higher levels of ego depletion.

Moreover, a salesperson is expected to prioritize the resolution of specific and tangible deliverables to multiple supervisors over intangibles such as emotions. Therefore, out of the resources that are available to a salesperson, he would be expected to be more likely to be willing to deplete them first on tasks that are required by supervisors or customers before depleting them on intangible behaviors such as emotion regulation. Based on the above argumentations, it is

expected that the higher role conflict that salespeople suffer, the more that their behavioral EI will be hampered.

H8a: The role stress factor of role conflict will negatively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Another component of role stress, role ambiguity, relates to a lack of understanding of performance expectations and job responsibilities (Rizzo et al., 1970). Role ambiguity is, “the degree to which a sales rep is uncertain about others’ expectations with respect to the job, the best way to fulfill known role expectations, and the consequences of different aspects of role performance” (Behrman & Perreault, 1984, p. 12). Role ambiguity is also present when salespeople do not have any clarity regarding what to expect as an outcome of specific behaviors (House & Rizzo, 1972). Employees’ sense of role ambiguity can stem from a lack of feedback from supervisors and coworkers or feedback from tasks and behaviors (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Like role conflict, role ambiguity can also arise if directives or policies are constantly changing (House & Rizzo, 1972).

Ambiguity has been shown to negatively impact both customer-oriented behavior (Flaherty et al., 1999) and commitment to service quality (Wetzels et al., 2000). Salespeople who are confused about their responsibilities or evaluation may be less motivated as well as ill-equipped to effectively deal with cognitive EI information. According to role theory, when role ambiguity exists, individuals often cope by trying to solve the problem or by altering reality in their own minds as a defense mechanism to relieve the anxiety of the situation (Kahn et al.,

1964; Marginson & Ogden, 2005). As a result, they tend to experience more anxiety as well as an unclear picture of reality and therefore perform with less effectiveness than individuals experiencing low levels of ambiguity (Rizzo et al., 1970).

Again, based on ego depletion theory (Baumeister et al., 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2008), both the uncertainty and coping mechanisms elicited by role ambiguity are expected to deplete resources which leaves fewer resources available for constructive emotional behavior. Furthermore, role ambiguity elicits stress, and coping with stress requires, and therefore depletes, self-regulation resources (Glass et al., 1969; Muraven et al., 1998). Something that contributes to stress levels in a people is a perception of unpredictability and, specifically, that they lack controllability (Baumeister et al., 1998; Glass et al., 1969). As discussed above, a portion of role ambiguity comes from an inability to predict what outcomes to expect from job behaviors (House & Rizzo, 1972), and thus salespeople experiencing role ambiguity are likely to have higher stress levels. The regulation required to cope with that stress will lead to reduced capacity to perform other acts of volition, and is thus expected to decrease the employment of behavioral EI.

Therefore, since, as argued above, role ambiguity can lead to ineffective coping mechanisms such as reality distortion and can also lead to ego depletion as a result of effort diverted to coping with ambiguity, it is expected to negatively impact the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

H8b: The role stress factor of role ambiguity will negatively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

A final role stress component of interest here is overload, or having too many role demands relative to the time available to fulfill them (Coverman, 1989). Role overload is defined as, “an individual’s lack of the personal resources needed to fulfill commitments, obligations, or requirements” (Peterson et al., 1995, p. 430). Primarily, one of the causes of role overload is simply the amount or quantity of work that requires an employee’s attention (Peterson et al., 1995). This could be accounted for with either a high numeric count of separate tasks, or with a small number of very time-consuming tasks, or with an amalgamation of work demands that constitutes some combination of the two. Simply put, role overload occurs when the time available to a salesperson is not have sufficient to meet the expectations of his or her role (Dougherty & Pritchard, 1985).

Role overload places a time pressure on salespeople (Jones et al., 2007), which serves to stretch their resources as they cope with meeting increasing role demands. As such, a salesperson with high overload may not devote the same attention to converting cognitive EI knowledge and perceptions into the appropriate EI response behaviors as a salesperson with low or no role overload. Instead, salespeople with high role overload will be focusing their energy on completing tasks. Overload is also negatively related to organizational commitment (Jones et al., 2007) which means that overloaded salespeople may have less intrinsic motivation to exert effort in excess of what is necessary. That is, overloaded salespeople will not be as motivated to go above and beyond for their jobs as their counterparts with high organizational commitment, and as such, may be less likely to be eager to regulate behavioral EI during the commission of job duties, even in the presence of cognitive EI knowledge.

Furthermore, this is consistent with ego depletion theory because salespeople suffering role overload will have overwhelming job duties to focus on and should subsequently have less energy and fewer cognitive resources left over to devote to the nuanced inter- and intrapersonal acts of volition characteristic of behavioral EI (Baumeister et al., 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2008). Overload is positively related to tension and anxiety (Dougherty & Pritchard, 1985) and is an important component of stress, which is described often as the experience of having excessive demands (Muraven et al., 1998). As discussed above, stress leads to ego depletion because of the self-regulation resources that are used while dealing with stress (Glass et al., 1969; Muraven et al., 1998). Hence, the greater the role overload salespeople labor under, the higher levels of stress they are likely to experience and, in turn, the higher levels of ego depletion they are likely to suffer.

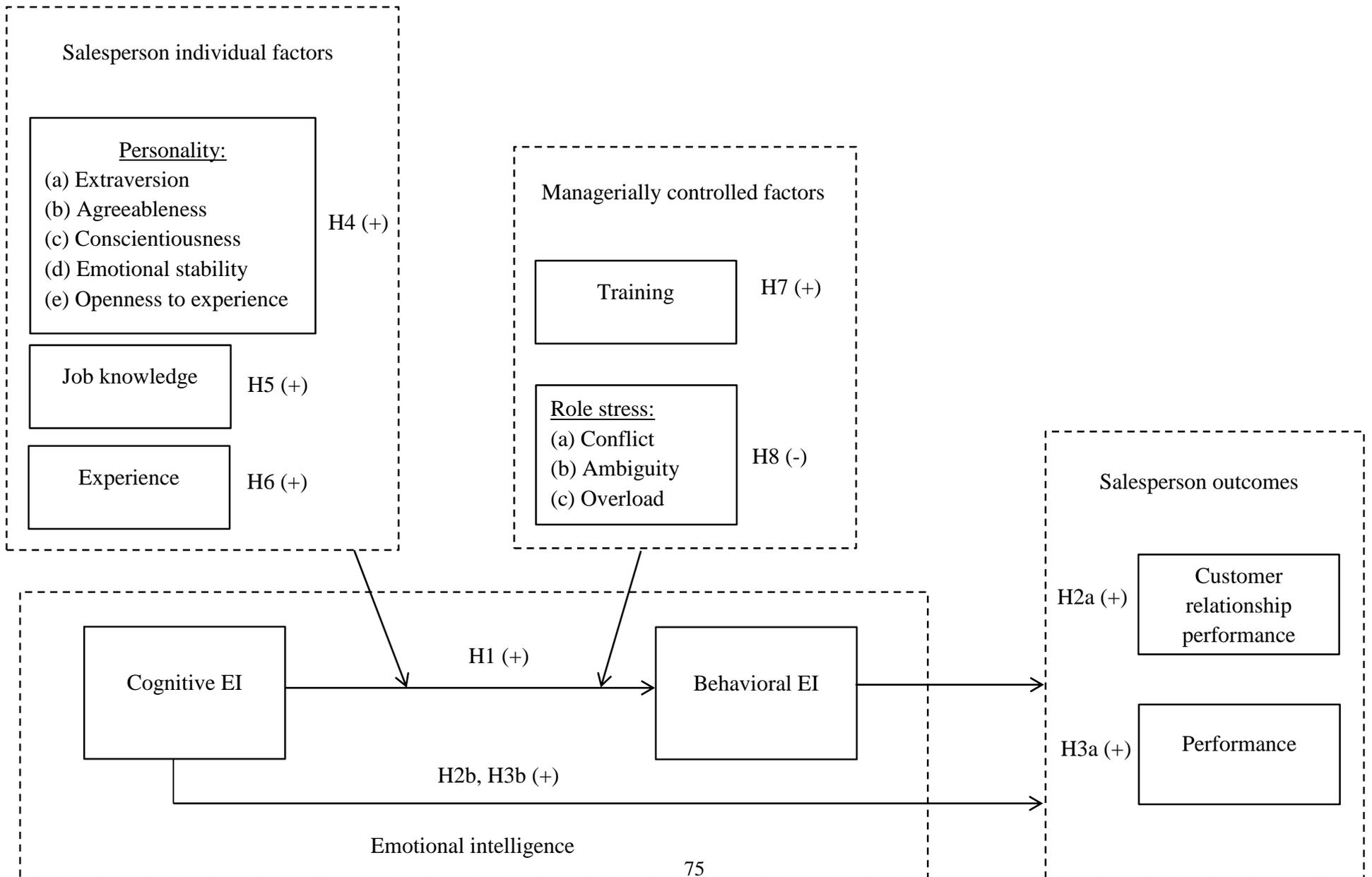
In sum, role overload is expected to overwhelm salespeople, resulting in salespeople who are either spread too thin or too devoid of organizational commitment to devote large amounts of energy to behavioral EI. It is also expected to increase stress levels in salespeople, which exacerbates ego depletion. For these reasons, role overload is expected to negatively impact the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

H8c: The role stress factor of role overload will negatively moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI.

Based on the above discussion, the conceptual model is presented in Figure 4. In sum, EI is expected to display two distinct dimensions, cognitive EI and behavioral EI. EI is expected to

positively influence the salesperson outcomes of performance and customer relationship performance because of the abilities with which it endows salespeople that possess it. The impact of cognitive EI on sales outcomes is expected to be mediated by behavioral EI, since an ability to perceive and intellectually understand emotions intuitively must precede any constructive behavior regarding emotions. Additionally, it is expected that the link between cognitive and behavioral EI can be strengthened or weakened by moderating factors, which either help or hinder a salesperson's ability to translate EI knowledge into effective emotional behavior.

Figure 4: Conceptual Model



CHAPTER V

METHODS

Sample

Respondents were recruited through the Mechanical Turk online panel. Mechanical Turk has been shown to have comparable data quality to other online data collection methods (e.g. Berinsky et al., 2012; Buhrmester et al., 2011; Paolacci et al., 2010). Filters were put into place in order to ensure that respondents worked as salespeople. For example, filters required respondents to identify the nature of their professional role and only retained those who identified themselves as salespeople; the filters further required respondents to be specific about their role and industry. A total of 235 respondents took the survey. Two attention measures were embedded in the survey, and respondents that failed to pass one or both were eliminated from the sample. The final sample size was 203 salespeople. Of this, 56% were men and the average age was 33.1 years old. Just under 10% of respondents had a high school degree, while 34% had a 2-year college degree, and 55% held a Bachelor's degree or higher. The average amount of experience in their current position was 4.75 years with respondents averaging 7.47 years of total sales experience. Respondents worked as salespeople in the following industries: agriculture (1%), cosmetics (3.9%), financial (6.9%), healthcare (4.9%), industrial equipment (3.4%), pharmaceuticals (2.0%), real estate (4.9%), retail (44.3%), services (10.8%), technology (10.8%), and other (6.9%). The average respondent reported that 65% of their total compensation was based on salary. Table 6 presents the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Table 6: Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	Mean	Percentage
Gender		
Male		55.7
Female		44.3
Age	33.1	
Sales experience		
Current position (years)	4.75	
Total (years)	7.47	
Education		
Less than high school		0
High school or equivalent		9.9
2-year college degree		34.5
College degree		16.3
Master's degree		32.0
Doctoral degree		7.4
Industry		
Agriculture		1
Cosmetics		3.9
Financial		6.9
Healthcare		4.9
Industrial equipment		3.4
Pharmaceuticals		2.0
Real estate		4.9
Retail		44.3
Services		10.8
Technology		10.8
Other		6.9
Compensation		
Salary (percent of compensation)	64.91	
Commission (percent of compensation)	33.60	

N = 203

Measures

All measures used in this main study came in entirety or in an adapted form from existing scales. Complete information regarding all measures and items can be seen in Table 7. CFA results and reliabilities are presented in Table 8. The CFA model fit was acceptable ($\chi^2 = 1517.420$; d.f. = 629; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .07; CFI = .90).

Emotional intelligence. EI was measured using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)(Wong & Law, 2002). This scale was chosen based on the results garnered in Study 1 where several well-established EI measures were compared across measurement qualities and explanatory power. This is a 16-item scale measuring four dimensions of EI with four items each. Items such as, “I am a good observer of others’ emotions,” were answered on a 7-point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The first eight items of the WLEIS scale were used to represent cognitive EI because they deal with emotional appraisal in the self and others. Item loadings ranged from 0.57 to 0.88 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach’s alpha ($\alpha = 0.91$) of cognitive EI showed excellent reliability. The last eight items of the WLEIS scale were used to represent behavioral EI because they deal with the use and regulation of emotion. Item loadings ranged from 0.64 to 0.88 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach’s alpha ($\alpha = 0.92$) of behavioral EI showed excellent reliability.

Personality. The five personality factors were measured using the Shortened Big Five scale by Gosling et al. (2003). It consists of ten items, two for each of the big five personality dimensions. Respondents are asked to rate, on a 7-point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, how closely pairs of traits apply to them. Each trait is measured with one item that is reverse coded and one item that is not. For example, emotional stability is represented by a first item “calm, emotionally stable” and a second item “anxious, easily upset.” As each personality factor is a two-item scale, reliability was assessed with the Spearman-Brown coefficient in addition to Cronbach’s alpha (Eisinga et al., 2012). For the trait of extraversion, item loadings ranged from 0.88 to 0.88 and reliability ($\alpha = 0.71$; $r = 0.71$) was good. For the trait

of agreeableness, item loadings ranged from 0.46 to 0.53 and reliability ($\alpha = 0.37$; $r = 0.39$) was poor. For the trait of conscientiousness, item loadings ranged from 0.52 to 0.78 and reliability ($\alpha = 0.56$; $r = 0.57$) was poor. For the trait of emotional stability, item loadings ranged from 0.69 to 0.83 and reliability ($\alpha = 0.72$ $r = 0.73$) was good. Finally, for the trait openness to experience, items ranged from 0.43 to 0.98 and reliability ($\alpha = 0.57$; $r = 0.58$) was poor. In spite of marginal scale properties, for the purposes of the completion of this study, all personality factors were retained for analysis. Furthermore, while the reliabilities in this data were found to be lower than desired, other authors have found similar reliabilities, and have retained the scales for analysis. For example, Correa et al. (2010) used openness to experience after finding a low reliability ($r = 0.29$) while recently Robinson et al. (2014) used personality factors with reliabilities reported as low as 0.36 and 0.4. Additionally, the reliabilities found in this study are not considerably different than those reported for extraversion ($\alpha = 0.68$), agreeableness ($\alpha = 0.40$), conscientiousness ($\alpha = 0.50$), emotional stability ($\alpha = 0.73$), and openness to experience ($\alpha = 0.45$) in the original scale development piece by Gosling et al. (2003). However, results, particularly those involving agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience, should nonetheless be interpreted carefully.

Job knowledge. Job knowledge was measured using a three item scale adapted for this study from a self-report general knowledge scale used by Moorman et al. (2004). Respondents were asked to rate their knowledge regarding their industry, their product(s), and any applicable regulations on a five-point likert scale ranging from poor to excellent. Item loadings ranged from 0.67 to 0.82 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.77$) showed good reliability.

Training. Training was measured using a scale developed by Schillewaert et al. (2005) which was adapted here for general use (the original scale measured training for a specific tool). The scale consists of three items measured on a five-point likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Item loadings ranged from 0.87 to 0.92 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.93$) showed excellent reliability.

Role conflict. Role conflict was measured using a role conflict measure by Singh et al. (1996). The scale consists of three items measured on a five-point likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. With items such as "I receive incompatible requests from two or more people," the items measure the level of conflict a salesperson feels from management or duties, not from customers. This is important because part of the aim of this main study is to discover whether there are things that management can control which would impact salespeople's ability to translate cognitive EI into behavior. Items loadings ranged from 0.50 to 0.81 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.70$) showed good reliability.

Role ambiguity. Role ambiguity was measured using a role ambiguity measure by Singh et al. (1996). The scale consists of three items measured using a five-point likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Similar to role conflict, this scale captures role ambiguity coming from managers, not from customers. Item loadings ranged from 0.70 to 0.87 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.82$) showed good reliability.

Role overload. Role overload was measured using a shortened version of a role overload scale taken from Reilly (1982). The original scale consists of thirteen items, of which four were used for this study in an effort to keep the survey instrument manageable in length for

respondents, thus preempting fatigue. The four items selected for use were the items that had the best item-total correlations in Reilly's (1982) original scale development. Items are measured on a five-point likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Item loadings ranged from 0.74 to 0.90 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.90$) showed excellent reliability.

Performance. Objective performance was measured using a performance scale by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). The exact wording of the three items came from Janssen et al. (2010) and the items were scored on a five-point likert scale ranging from poor to excellent. Items loadings ranged from 0.73 to 0.83 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.82$) showed good reliability.

Customer relationship performance. Customer relationship performance was measured using a scale used in Panagopoulos et al. (2015). The phrasing of the three item scale was adapted to be answered by the salesperson (instead of their manager) and was scored on a five-point likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Item loadings ranged from 0.80 to 0.83 and no items were removed from further analysis. The Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.85$) showed good reliability.

Table 7: Construct Items

Construct	Item	Wording
Training	TRAIN1	My company has extensively trained me for my job.
	TRAIN2	My company provided me complete instructions and practice in my job.
	TRAIN3	I am getting the training I need to be able to do my job.
Job knowledge	KNOW1	How do you rate your knowledge of the industry you are in?
	KNOW2	How do you rate your knowledge of any laws and regulations that apply to your industry?
	KNOW3	How do you rate your knowledge of the product(s) that you sell?
Cognitive EI	EI_SEA1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
	EI_SEA2	I have a good understanding of my own emotions.
	EI_SEA3	I really understand what I feel.
	EI_SEA4	I always know whether or not I am happy.
	EI_OEA1	I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
	EI_OEA2	I am a good observer of others' emotions.
	EI_OEA3	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
	EI_OEA4	I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.
Behavioral EI	EI_UOE1	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
	EI_UOE2	I always tell myself I am a competent person.
	EI_UOE3	I am a self-motivated person.
	EI_UOE4	I would always encourage myself to try my best.
	EI_ROE1	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
	EI_ROE2	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
	EI_ROE3	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
	EI_ROE4	I have good control of my own emotions.
Extraversion	BIG5_1	Extraverted, enthusiastic
	BIG5_6	Reserved, quiet
Agreeableness	BIG5_2	Critical, quarrelsome
	BIG5_7	Sympathetic, warm
Conscientiousness	BIG5_3	Dependable, self-disciplined
	BIG5_8	Disorganized, careless
Emotional stability	BIG5_4	Anxious, easily upset
	BIG5_9	Calm, emotionally stable
Openness to experience	BIG5_5	Open to new experiences, complex
	BIG5_10	Conventional, uncreative
Role conflict	RCONF1	I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.
	RCONF2	I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
	RCONF3	I work with two or more departments who operate quite differently.
Role ambiguity	RAMB1	Clear, planned goals/objectives exist for my job.
	RAMB2	I know exactly what is expected of me.
	RAMB3	I know how my performance is going to be evaluated.
Role overload	ROVER1	There are too many demands on my time.
	ROVER2	I need more hours in the day to do the things expected of me.
	ROVER3	I can't ever seem to get caught up.
	ROVER4	I seem to have to overextend myself in order to be able to finish everything I have to do.
Objective performance	PERF1	How do you rate yourself on meeting standards for job performance?
	PERF2	How do you rate your performance compared to others of the same rank as you?
	PERF3	How do you rate your contribution to unit effectiveness in comparison to others in your work unit?
Customer relationship performance	REL1	I maintain good customer relationships.
	REL2	I satisfy my customers.
	REL3	I provide high levels of customer service.

Table 8: CFA Results and Reliabilities $\chi^2 = 1517.420$; d.f. = 629; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .07; CFI = .90

Construct	Item	Loading	Cronbachs α	Spearman-Brown r	M	SD	Sqrt AVE	CR
Training	TRAIN1	0.87	0.93		3.88	0.96	0.90	0.93
	TRAIN2	0.92						
	TRAIN3	0.91						
Job knowledge	KNOW1	0.82	0.77		4.04	0.66	0.74	0.79
	KNOW2	0.67						
	KNOW3	0.73						
Cognitive EI	EI_SEA1	0.88	0.91		5.72	0.87	0.73	0.90
	EI_SEA2	0.88						
	EI_SEA3	0.83						
	EI-SEA4	0.76						
	EI_OEA1	0.61						
	EI_OEA2	0.63						
	EI_OEA3	0.57						
	EI_OEA4	0.64						
Behavioral EI	EI_UOE1	0.64	0.92		5.78	0.97	0.77	0.92
	EI_UOE2	0.70						
	EI_UOE3	0.70						
	EI_UOE4	0.73						
	EI_ROE1	0.85						
	EI_ROE2	0.88						
	EI_ROE3	0.75						
	EI_ROE4	0.88						
Extraversion	BIG5_1	0.88	0.71	0.71	4.49	1.60	0.88	0.87
	BIG5_6	0.88						
Agreeableness	BIG5_2	0.53	0.37	0.39	5.49	1.15	0.50	0.39
	BIG5_7	0.46						
Conscientiousness	BIG5_3	0.78	0.56	0.57	5.81	1.36	0.66	0.60
	BIG5_8	0.52						
Emotional stability	BIG5_4	0.69	0.72	0.73	5.37	1.37	0.76	0.73
	BIG5_9	0.83						
Openness to experience	BIG5_5	0.98	0.57	0.58	5.28	1.28	0.76	0.70
	BIG5_10	0.43						
Role conflict	RCONF1	0.72	0.70		2.52	0.92	0.69	0.72
	RCONF2	0.81						
	RCONF3	0.50						
Role ambiguity	RAMB1	0.80	0.82		1.90	0.77	0.79	0.83
	RAMB2	0.87						
	RAMB3	0.70						
Role overload	ROVER1	0.74	0.90		2.72	1.07	0.84	0.91
	ROVER2	0.90						
	ROVER3	0.82						
	ROVER4	0.89						
Objective performance	PERF1	0.73	0.82		4.10	0.58	0.78	0.83
	PERF2	0.83						
	PERF3	0.79						
Customer relationship performance	REL1	0.80	0.85		4.51	0.55	0.81	0.85
	REL2	0.83						
	REL3	0.81						

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Convergent and discriminant validity were assessed through an examination of the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). For convergent validity, the AVE should be 0.50 or greater for each construct. All constructs demonstrate convergent validity (AVE values range from 0.50-0.90). For discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE of a construct should be greater than the variance shared with all other constructs. All constructs demonstrate discriminant validity because the square root of the AVE (on the diagonal of Table 6) for each is greater than the variances with other constructs, as represented in the corresponding columns and rows of Table 9, which also shows construct correlations, means, and standard deviations.

Table 9: Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Elcog	0.73													
2. Elbeh	0.71**	0.77												
3. Training	0.29**	0.22**	0.90											
4. JKnow	0.41**	0.35**	0.40**	0.74										
5. Extrav	0.27**	0.29**	0.12	0.21**	0.88									
6. Agreeab	0.43**	0.54**	0.19**	0.29**	0.14*	0.50								
7. Conscien	0.50**	0.62**	0.22**	0.27**	0.23**	0.52**	0.66							
8. EmStabil	0.52**	0.70**	0.10	0.26**	0.30**	0.54**	0.56**	0.76						
9. OpenExp	0.44**	0.31**	0.14	0.28**	0.23**	0.29**	0.32**	0.29**	0.76					
10. RoleConf	-0.13	-0.12	-0.13	-0.15*	0.04	-0.23**	-0.18**	-0.15*	-0.13	0.69				
11. RoleOver	-0.13	-0.12	-0.16*	-0.11	-0.03	-0.20**	-0.20**	-0.16*	-0.11	0.61**	0.84			
12. RoleAmb	-0.43**	-0.36**	-0.52**	-0.36**	-0.12	-0.25**	-0.35**	-0.23**	-0.27**	0.33**	0.27**	0.79		
13. Perf	0.39**	0.39**	0.2**	0.47**	0.16*	0.33**	0.30**	0.24**	0.29**	-0.12	-0.07	-0.25**	0.78	
14. CustRel	0.54**	0.55**	0.28**	0.43**	0.21**	0.39**	0.40**	0.37**	0.25**	-0.12	-0.06	-0.40**	0.55**	0.81
Mean	5.72	5.78	3.88	4.04	4.49	5.49	5.81	5.37	5.28	2.52	2.72	1.90	4.10	4.51
SD	0.87	0.97	0.96	0.66	1.60	1.15	1.14	1.37	1.28	0.92	1.07	0.77	0.58	0.55

N = 203

*p < .05, **p < .01

Numbers on the diagonal represent square root of average variance extracted (AVE).

Common Method Variance

In designing the survey, we sought to reduce common method variance concerns by randomizing measures and by assuring respondents of anonymity to reduce evaluation anxiety and social desirability bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012). In order to further strengthen our confidence that common method bias is not impacting this study, a post-hoc statistical analysis was also used.

Harman's single-factor method was used to test for evidence of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). All items from all constructs were loaded in an exploratory factor analysis and the unrotated factor solution was examined. The solution revealed that a single factor did not emerge. There were 13 distinct factors with eigenvalues over one. Further, the first factor did not account for the majority of covariance among the measures (28.65%). Thus, results suggest that no general factor exists, and therefore common method variance is not a concern.

Nonresponse Bias Testing

In order to test for nonresponse bias, we chose to compare the responses of the first 10% of respondents to those of the last 10% of respondents (Ellis et al., 1970). The last 10% of respondents (or the last 20 respondents) are presumed to be most representative of non-respondents since they took the survey only after a longer period of time, unlike the first 20 respondents who took it the survey very soon after it was posted. Continuous variables were tested using an ANOVA test in the differences of means. The categorical variable of gender was

tested using a chi-squared test. The categorical variable of education was tested using Fisher's exact test because several of the cells have expected values of less than 5 (Mehta & Patel, 1983).

First, we compared demographic data for each group to determine whether there were differences between the two groups. Results indicate that there were no differences in the demographic compositions of the early and late respondents. That is, no particular type of person took the survey early or late. Next, we compared the early and late respondent groups across all key constructs to determine if there were differences in the way that early and late respondents answered survey questions. Results indicate that there were no differences between early and late respondents in terms of major constructs. The results for both comparisons are shown in Tables 10 and Table 11.

Table 10: Nonresponse Bias Testing

Variable	Mean: Early respondents	Mean: Late respondents	Statistical significance of difference (ANOVA)
Demographics			
Age	31.60	30.65	0.72
Experience	5.75	5.05	0.58
Constructs			
Training	4.08	4.07	0.96
Job knowledge	4.23	4.00	0.24
Cognitive EI	6.01	5.88	0.59
Behavioral EI	5.91	5.94	0.93
Role conflict	2.48	2.53	0.87
Role ambiguity	1.83	1.82	0.95
Role overload	2.88	3.14	0.46
Performance	4.35	4.18	0.35
Cust. relationship	4.70	4.48	0.10

Table 11: Categorical Variable Nonresponse Bias Testing

Variable	Count: Early respondents	Count: Late respondents	Statistical significance of difference	
			χ^2	P value
Gender				
Male	10	10	0.10	0.75
Female	11	9		
Education			Fisher's exact test	p value
Less than high school	0	0	0.40	
High school	2	2		
2-year degree	8	7		
College degree	2	4		
Master's degree	5	6		
Doctoral degree	3	0		

Collinearity

In order to assess whether multicollinearity is problematic in the data, the variance inflation factors (VIF) were calculated. Any variable with a VIF above 10 is considered to be problematic (Kutner et al., 2004; Neter et al., 1990). All VIFs were well below this threshold (ranging from 1.17-2.40) thus indicating that multicollinearity is not a problem. Further support for the conclusion that collinearity is not an issue can be seen in high tolerance values. Tolerance indicates the percent of variance in a predictor that cannot be accounted for by the other predictors. Therefore, values less than 0.10 may indicate that a predictor is redundant. In this study tolerance values ranged from 0.31-0.85, which are all acceptable. See Table 12 for complete collinearity test results.

Table 12: Collinearity Test

Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Training	0.66	1.52
Job Knowledge	0.71	1.41
Extraversion	0.85	1.17
Agreeableness	0.59	1.69
Conscientiousness	0.52	1.91
Emotional stability	0.44	2.29
Openness to experience	0.75	1.33
Role conflict	0.57	1.75
Role ambiguity	0.57	1.75
Role overload	0.61	1.65
EI cognitive	0.42	2.40
EI behavioral	0.31	3.23

CHAPTER VI

RESULTS

Hypotheses were tested using regression analysis with SPSS Statistics 21 and the PROCESS Model (Hayes, 2012). First, the main effects were tested. In accordance with what was expected, there was a significant positive relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI ($b = 0.75$; $p < .01$), supporting H1. Behavioral EI was also shown to be significantly and positively related to both outcomes, performance ($b = 0.13$; $p < .05$) and customer relationship performance ($b = 0.20$; $p < .01$), supporting H2a and H3a, respectively. These results are shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Hypothesis Testing, Main Effects

Hypothesized path	Coeff	t	p
Main effects			
Elcog → Elbeh	0.75**	11.37	0.00
Elbeh → Perf	0.13*	2.45	0.02
Elbeh → CustRel	0.20**	4.32	0.00

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; Two-tailed test

Next, we tested whether behavioral EI serves as a mediator between cognitive EI and both performance outcomes. Because the direct and indirect effects of the independent variable will be the same on each dependent variable regardless of whether they are estimated simultaneously or individually (Hayes, 2013, p. 198), two separate mediation analyses were conducted, one with performance as an outcome, and the other with customer relationship

performance as the outcome variable. Both analyses used 95% confidence intervals and 5,000 bootstrap resamples. Results show there was a significant indirect effect of cognitive EI on customer relationship performance through behavioral EI ($b = 0.16$, 95% CI .09 to .24), supporting H2b. The direct effect of behavioral EI on customer relationship performance is significant ($b = .15$; $p = 0.01$). Thus, there is evidence that this relationship is partially mediated. There was also a significant indirect effect of cognitive EI on performance through behavioral EI ($b = 0.11$, 95% CI .03 to .19), supporting H3b. The direct (non-mediated) effect of behavioral EI on performance is significant ($b = 0.18$; $p < 0.00$). Thus, there is evidence that this relationship is partially mediated. Mediation results are presented in Tables 14 and 15 and can be seen diagrammed in Figures 5 and 6, respectively.

Table 14: Mediation Testing Direct and Total Effects

Relationship	Coeff	T	p
Elcog → Perf			
Total effects	0.34**	8.97	0.00
Direct effects	0.18**	3.57	0.00
Elcog → CustRel			
Total effects	0.26**	5.95	0.00
Direct effects	0.15*	2.51	0.01

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; Two-tailed test

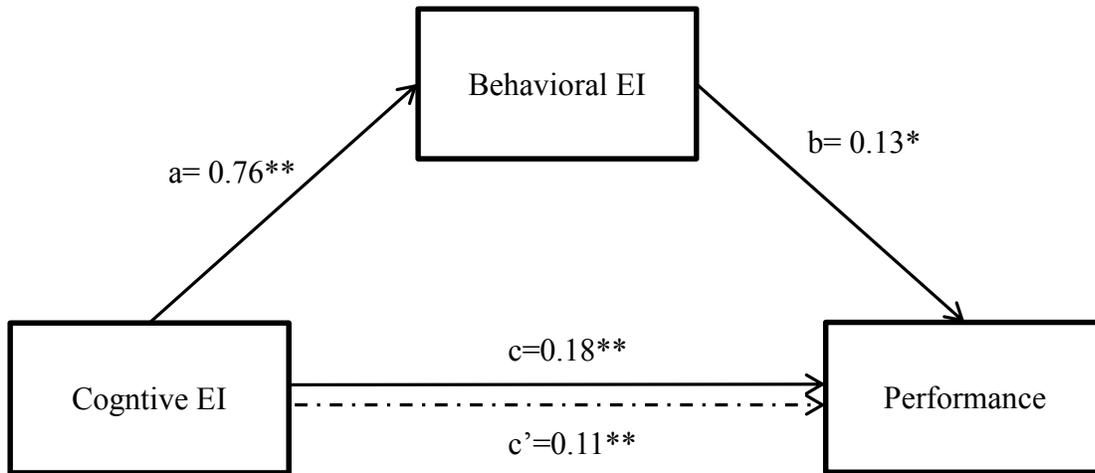
Table 15: Mediation Testing Indirect Effects

Indirect effects	B	P	CI low	CI high
Elcog → Perf	0.11**	0.00	0.03	0.19
Elcog → CustRel	0.16**	0.00	0.09	0.24

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; Two-tailed test

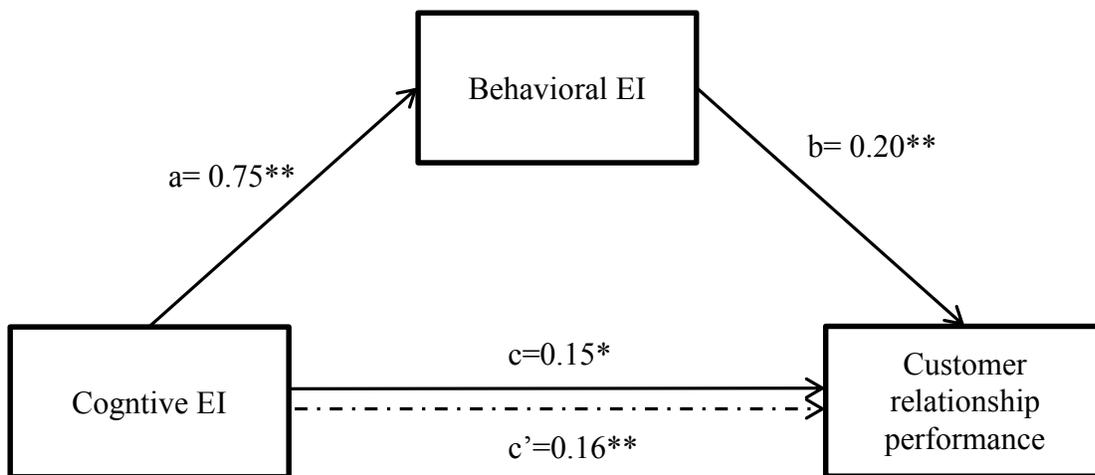
5,000 bootstraps; 95% CI

Figure 5. Mediating Effect: Performance



Note. Dotted line denotes the indirect effect of cognitive EI on performance, whereas the straight line denotes the direct effect
N = 203; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; Two-tailed test

Figure 6. Mediating Effect: Customer Relationship Performance



Note. Dotted line denotes the indirect effect of cognitive EI on customer relationship performance, whereas the straight line denotes the direct effect
N = 203; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; Two-tailed test

In order to assess the magnitude of the mediations, the kappa-squared values were also calculated. The results (performance: $\kappa^2 = 0.12$, 95% CI 0.04 to 0.22; customer relationship performance: $\kappa^2 = 0.21$, 95% CI 0.12 to 0.30) indicate that both were moderate in strength according to the classification of Preacher and Kelley (2011). These results can be seen in Table 16.

Table 16: Mediation Effect Sizes

Indirect effects	κ^2	CI low	CI high
EIcog \rightarrow Perf	0.12	0.04	0.22
EIcog \rightarrow CustRel	0.21	0.12	0.30

5,000 bootstraps; 95% CI

Finally, the hypothesized moderating relationships were tested. Of the big five personality factors, two were shown to significantly moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. Cognitive EI had significant interactive effects with the personality traits of agreeableness ($b = -0.16$; $p < .01$) and emotional stability ($b = -0.09$; $p < .01$) on behavioral EI, supporting H4b and H4d. The remaining personality traits, extraversion ($b = -0.02$; $p = .50$), conscientiousness ($b = -0.02$; $p = .51$), and openness to experience ($b = 0.00$; $p = .91$), had no significant interactive effects with cognitive EI on behavioral EI which indicate no support for H4a, H4c and H4e, respectively. There was no significant moderation indicated with cognitive EI and job knowledge ($b = -0.09$; $p = .18$), experience ($b = -0.02$; $p = .23$), or training ($b = 0.00$; $p = .95$). Thus, H5, H6, and H7, respectively, were not supported. Of the three components of role stress, two were shown to be significant moderators of the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. Both role conflict ($b = -0.13$; $p < .01$) and role overload ($b = -0.10$; $p < .05$) significantly and negatively moderated the relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI, supporting H8a and H8c. The third role stress component, role ambiguity, did not show

significant moderation ($b = -0.00$; $p = .99$), thus H8b was not supported. Complete results are shown in Tables 17 and 18.

Table 17: Moderation Analysis, Salesperson Factors

	JKnow	Exp	Extrav	Agreeab	Consien	EmStabil	OpenExp
Control: Industry	.01	.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01
Constant	5.71	5.72	5.73	5.84	5.71	5.80	5.71
Cog EI	.73**	.77**	.75**	.55**	.57**	.44**	.79**
JKnow	.11						
Exp		.02					
Extrav			.07*				
Agreeab				.24**			
Consien					.31**		
EmStabil						.31**	
OpenExp							-.00
JKnow x Cog EI	-.09						
Exp x Cog EI		-.02					
Extrav x Cog EI			-.02				
Agreeab x Cog EI				-.16**			
Consien x Cog EI					-.02		
EmStabil x Cog EI						-.09**	
OpenExp x Cog EI							.00
R^2	.51	.51	.51	.60	.60	.67	.50
F statistic	51.32	50.59	51.52	75.52	73.53	98.86	49.28
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.04**	.00	.02**	.00
F statistic	1.86	1.38	.41	19.84	.38	10.65	.02

N = 203; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; Two-tailed test

Table 18: Moderation Analysis, Managerially Controlled Factors

	Training	RoleConf	RoleAmb	RoleOver
Control: Industry	.01	.01	.01	.01
Constant	5.71	5.71	5.69	5.70
Cog EI	.79**	.77**	.75**	.78**
Training	.02			
RoleConf		-.02		
RoleAmb			-.10	
RoleOver				-.00
Training x Cog EI	.00			
RoleConf x Cog EI		-.13*		
RoleAmb x Cog EI			.00	
RoleOver x Cog EI				-.10*
R^2	.50	.51	.50	.51
F statistic	49.37	51.24	50.29	51.37
ΔR^2	.00	.01*	.00	.01*
F statistic	.01	5.37	.00	3.97

N = 203; *p < .05, **p < .01; Two-tailed test

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION

The findings of this dissertation have substantial implications for EI research. The main study results show that salesperson emotional intelligence impacts performance and that emotional intelligence manifests and behaves in a much more nuanced way than previously conceptualized. Overall, sales performance outcomes are impacted by cognitive EI through behavioral EI. Furthermore, the positive relationship between cognitive and behavioral EI can be strengthened or weakened with the interaction of other personal traits such as personality factors or situational circumstances such as work environment. All of the main study main effects and mediation hypotheses were supported. Furthermore, four moderation hypotheses were also supported. A summary of results is shown in Table 19.

The dimensional conceptualization of the construct that recognizes distinct cognitive and behavioral components of EI is new. Mediation testing results supported this conceptualization that behavioral EI mediates the relationship between cognitive EI and the outcomes of sales performance and customer relationship performance. This is evidence that (1) EI should be conceptualized and empirically tested using distinct dimensions, (2) that EI can be thought of as consisting of two components: cognition and behavior, and (3) that EI cognition precedes EI behavior. Behavioral EI was shown to be significantly related to both sales performance and customer relationship performance.

Table 19: Results Summary

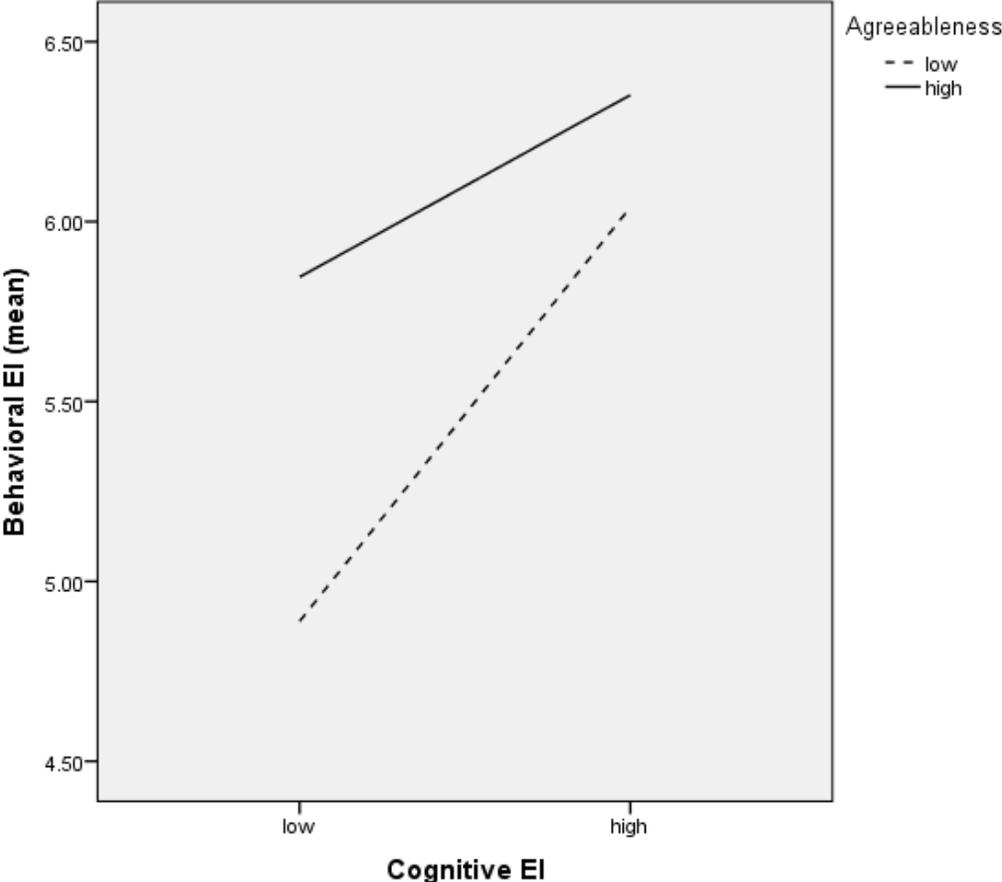
	Hypothesis	Result
	Mediation and main effects	
H1	Elcog → EIbeh	Supported
H2a	EIbeh → CustRel	Supported
H2b	Elcog → EIbeh → CustRel	Supported
H3a	EIbeh → Perf	Supported
H3b	Elcog → EIbeh → Perf	Supported
	Interactions	
H4a	Elcog x Extrav → EIbeh	Not supported
H4b	Elcog x Agreeab → EIbeh	Supported
H4c	Elcog x Conscien → EIbeh	Not supported
H4d	Elcog x EmStabil → EIbeh	Supported
H4e	Elcog x OpenExp → EIbeh	Not supported
H5	Elcog x JKnow → EIbeh	Not supported
H6	Elcog x Exp → EIbeh	Not supported
H7	Elcog x Training → EIbeh	Not supported
H8a	Elcog x RoleConf → EIbeh	Supported
H8b	Elcog x RoleAmb → EIbeh	Not supported
H8c	Elcog x RoleOver → EIbeh	Supported

Importantly, having shown that the impact of behavioral EI on salesperson outcomes is mediated by cognitive EI, it followed to determine whether there is a way to moderate this relationship with the goal of discovering what could increase the likelihood that cognitive EI could be effectively translated into constructive EI behavior. Four moderating relationships were found, two salesperson personality factors, and two role stress factors which management can impact. This is the first study to date to hypothesize and empirically demonstrate that there is moderation between EI dimensions.

First, moderation was found among the salesperson individual factors that were tested. Results show that the personality trait of agreeableness moderates the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. The interaction, plotted in Figure 7, shows that more agreeable salespeople manifest higher behavioral EI at low and high cognitive EI than less agreeable

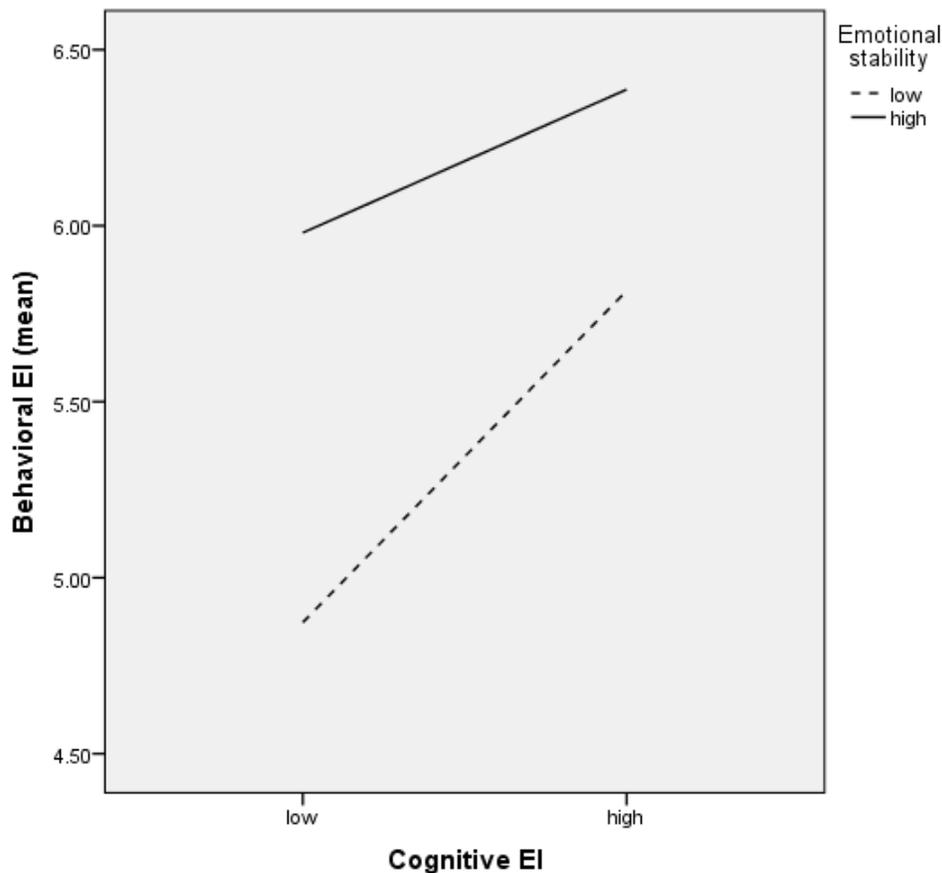
people. However, high levels of cognitive EI help people who are not agreeable much more than those who are highly agreeable.

Figure 7: Interaction Plot: Agreeableness



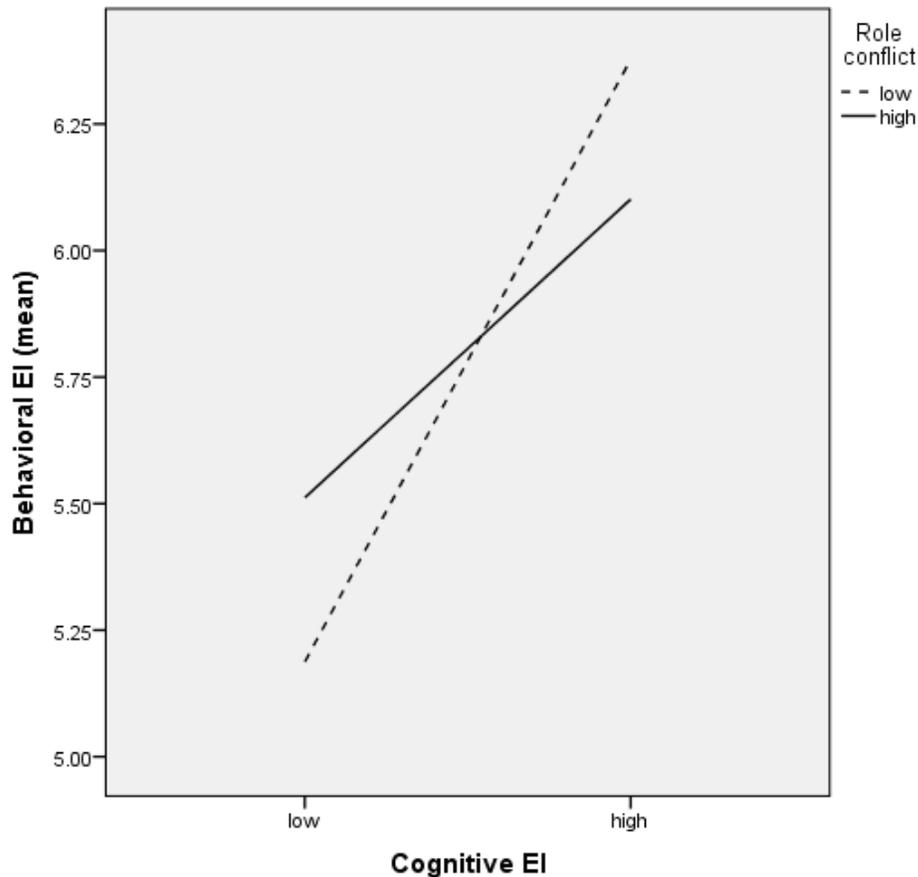
Similarly, the personality trait of emotional stability moderates the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. The interaction plot is shown in Figure 8 and visually depicts that highly emotionally stable salespeople have higher behavioral EI at both high and low levels of cognitive EI. However, high levels of cognitive EI help to compensate for low emotional stability.

Figure 8: Interaction Plot: Emotional Stability



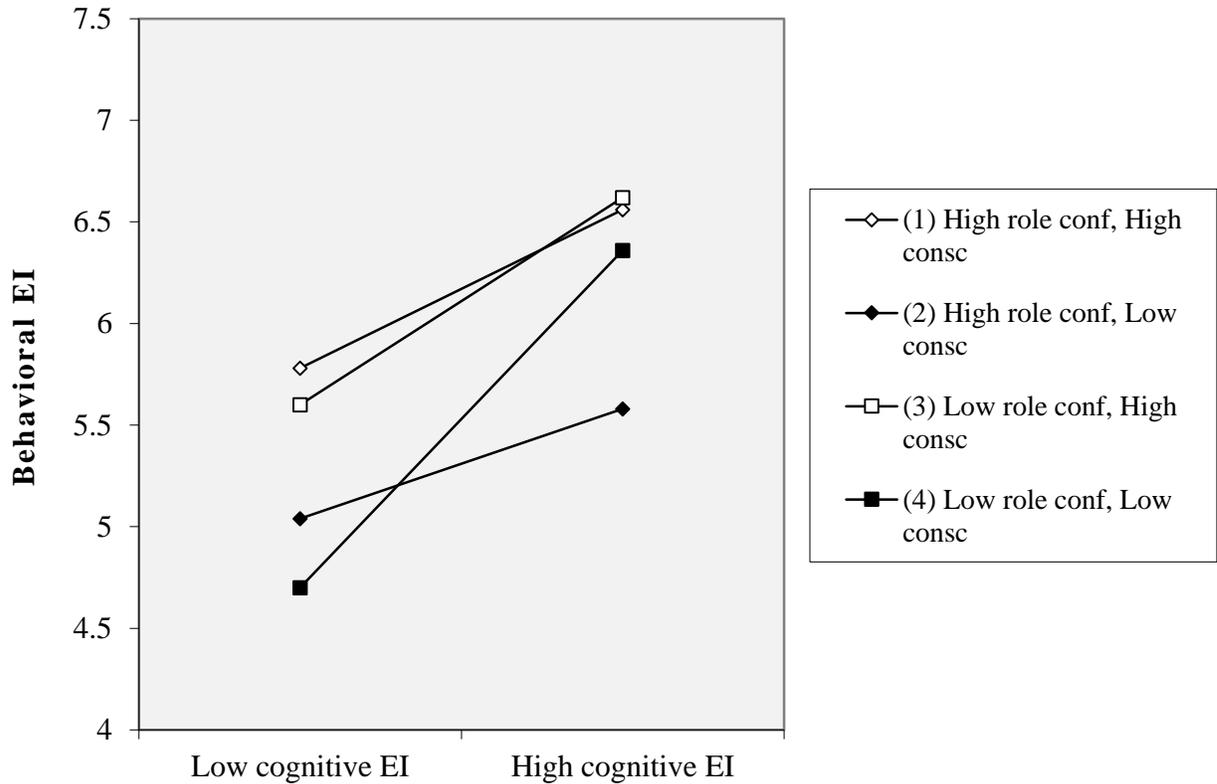
Second, moderation was also found among the managerially influenced factors tested. Results showed that there was an interaction between role conflict and cognitive EI impacting behavioral EI. The interaction plot for this moderation is shown in Figure 9. While it expectedly shows that at all levels of role conflict behavioral EI increases as cognitive EI increases, there is also an unexpected result. That is, among the salespeople with low cognitive EI, it is the salespeople working with high levels of role conflict that show higher levels of behavioral EI. One explanation for this could be a second moderator of this relationship and that a three-way interaction could account for the result.

Figure 9: Interaction Plot: Role Conflict



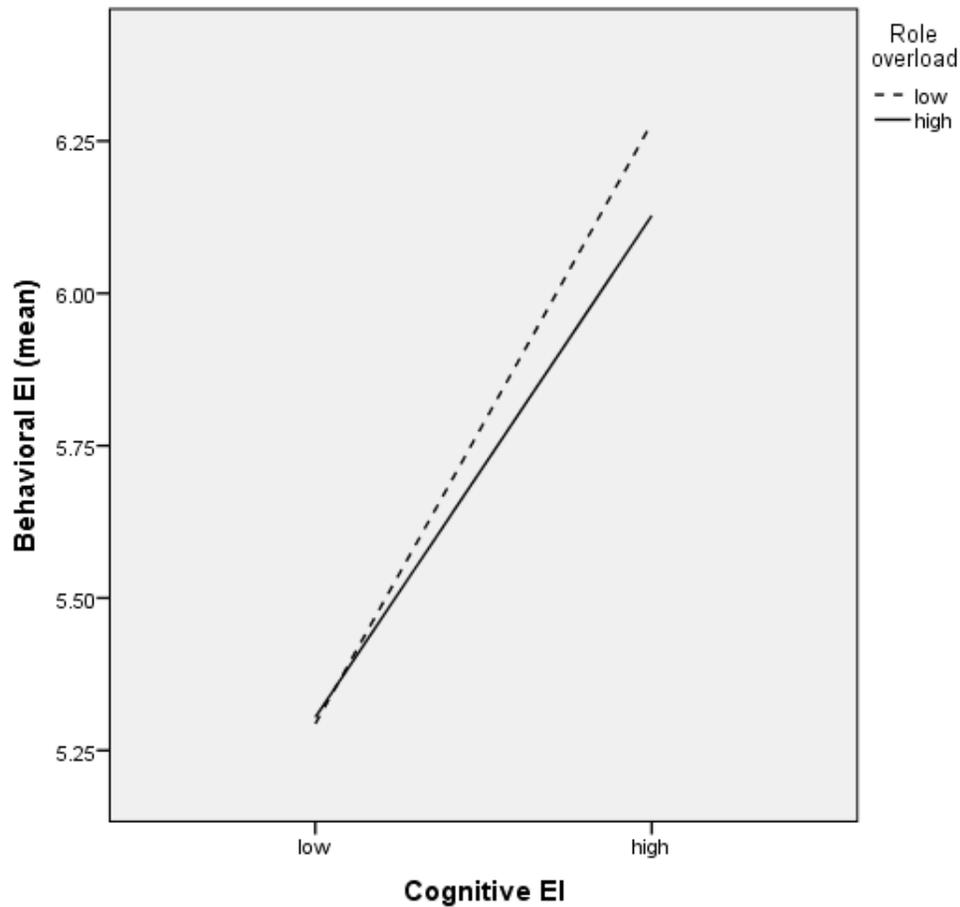
Therefore, a post hoc analysis was done to test whether a three-way interaction was present. A significant three-way interaction, which can be seen plotted in Figure 10, was found between cognitive EI, role conflict, and the personality trait of conscientiousness ($b = 0.11$, $p = 0.01$). This interaction shows that the moderation of the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI by role conflict is impacted by level of salesperson conscientiousness. The interaction plot shows that the surprising result found in H8a appears only at low levels of conscientiousness but not at high levels of conscientiousness. At high levels of conscientiousness, the difference in slopes between high and low role conflict is not significant ($t = -0.38$, $p = 0.71$).

Figure 10: Interaction Plot: Role Conflict and Conscientiousness



This dissertation’s main study also finds that role overload negatively moderates the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. The interaction plot, shown in Figure 11, demonstrates that behavioral EI is lower at high levels of role overload. Thus, salespeople who spend too much time and effort attempting to meet excessively high demands may have fewer mental and emotional resources left over to devote to translating emotional knowledge into action. The interaction plot also visually depicts that that high levels of cognitive EI can help to increase behavioral EI in both low and high role overload situations.

Figure 11: Interaction Plot: Role Overload



Managerial Implications

The findings of this dissertation can be particularly useful to managers in two different areas: during the hiring process and in sales management practices.

First, our main study suggests that there are several characteristics that a hiring manager should look for when selecting new hires in a sales position. This study supports previous research suggesting that highly emotionally intelligent salespeople have an advantage and can be more effective than those with low levels of EI. As such managers should consider including EI

assessments in the hiring process. Moreover, firms should pay attention not just to an overall EI score, but understand the dimensionality of the construct and thus the importance of both cognitive and behavioral EI. This type of testing would be an easy implementation for firms already employing other tests regarding personal characteristics and traits. For example, it is not uncommon for firms to use personality tests as part of their hiring processes, as it is seen as a predictor of job performance (Salgado et al., 2001). This study also supports the idea that personality is important, and that firms should continue using this metric in hiring. Managers should also understand that personality factors can interact with EI

Second, even when management is working with an existing sales force, there are factors management can control to help facilitate better performance. The main study suggests that when management reduces role stress, specifically role conflict and role overload, for its salespeople it may see them translate emotional knowledge into more effective emotional behavior and subsequently, performance. Sales managers can reduce role conflict by ensuring that salespeople either report to one manager or department, or, if this is not possible, by making sure that salespeople are not consistently receiving demands from one department or manager that conflict with those of another. Managers with a sales force that works closely with several departments should consider implementing a formal system which would preempt role conflict by allowing salespeople with incompatible requests to address the conflict and reconcile the two demands before beginning work on either. Sales managers can reduce role overload by keeping expectations achievable for salespeople. While it may be tempting to demand as much as possible from a sales force, managers should take care to assign workloads only after assessing a salesperson's ability and access to resources. This may help ensure that salespeople have enough

cognitive and emotional energy to devote to translating knowledge into constructive behavior and subsequently to sales.

Limitations and Future Research

Personality. A ten item, short version of the Big Five personality scale was used (Gosling et al., 2003) in the main study with the goal of keeping the survey manageable in length in order to avoid respondent fatigue. However, given the marginal reliability of the personality factor agreeableness in this data, future research should consider assessing personality with a longer scale with more than two indicators per personality dimension, such as the 44-item Big Five Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999).

Further, the Gosling et al. (2003) personality inventory is measured such that each personality dimension has two items: one that is positively worded and another that is negatively worded (and then reverse coded to form the composite). This brings up an intriguing possibility, which is that this personality measure may be useful in exploring whether or not respondents react differently to the positively worded items than they do the negatively worded items. It may be that respondents who are optimistic react more strongly to the positively worded items and that those who are pessimistic react more strongly to the negatively worded items, which may help account for the CFA loadings in this data for several of the personality dimensions. Future research that measures optimism against this personality inventory may yield interesting results. The possibility of a link between EI and optimism is evidenced by the mixed model of EI, which includes the trait of optimism in its measurement (Bar-On, 1997; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Data. One limitation of this dissertation is that each study is comprised of single-source data. Although common method bias was not shown to be problematic in the studies, future research could even further minimize this risk by collecting multi-source data. Particularly, it may be useful for future research to access objective performance data from the firm, or from the salesperson's supervisor in order to avoid self-report performance data.

Further, this was a cross-sectional survey, and as such can only make correlational inferences from results since no contiguity information is present. Future research should attempt to address this with longitudinal data, which would help in the assessment of causality. In particular, time-lagged performance data would be beneficial to understanding the impact of salesperson EI on outcomes.

EI outcomes. The main focus and contribution of this dissertation was to show the dimensionality of EI, that behavioral EI acts a moderator between cognitive EI and outcomes, and to explore potential moderators between cognitive EI and behavioral EI. Because of this, the outcomes chosen were few in number and broad. While it was extremely important to first establish whether or not the hypothesized EI mediation did, in fact impact performance and customer relationship performance, future research would benefit from extending these findings to more specific sales outcomes. For example, several EI studies have called for future research into the relationship between EI and adaptive selling (e.g. Kidwell et al., 2011; Kidwell et al., 2007; Rozell et al., 2006), which is a salesperson's ability to change sales tactics and strategies during customer interactions based on the situation (Spiro & Weitz, 1990).

Another potential outcome to be tested in the future is salesperson empathy. Since empathy entails understanding and sharing other people's emotions (Hodges & Klein, 2001), a high EI salesperson should be better equipped to cognize and synthesize emotions in others than

a low EI salesperson. That is, an understanding of emotion allows a salesperson to intellectually know what an emotion which is manifesting in a customer or coworker not only feels like, but what it implies regarding behavioral manifestations, and ultimately what types of behaviors may alleviate a negative emotion or sustain a positive one. In their study of EI in salespeople, Rozell et al. (2006) did not test, but called for future research into the potential relationship between EI and empathy.

A high EI salesperson may also be more customer-oriented. Because high EI individuals tend to be more relationally focused and sensitive to others (Schutte et al., 1998), it is likely that a high EI salesperson be more inclined to prioritize customers, a high EI salesperson should be better equipped to do so effectively. This is because high EI should facilitate customer orientation because it will allow a salesperson to better-read nonverbal cues from customers and therefrom glean the type of solution that might be required. For example, if a customer is displaying frustration during a call, a high EI salesperson will be able to not only perceive this but also use his or her emotional knowledge and emotion management abilities to help mitigate the frustration by acting appropriately.

Finally, high EI salespeople should have better interpersonal communication skills due to an ability to pick up on cues from communication partners and ability to manage their own emotions during information exchange. The understanding and management of emotions should enable a salesperson to, beyond reacting appropriately to the emotions of the customer, act in such a way as to display the correct emotions which the information being delivered calls for (e.g. excitement at a new product, or concern or worry when trying to elicit fear for a product such as insurance). Furthermore, while communication is generally seen as a good thing, there is some evidence that customers become frustrated, or annoyed, at high levels of contact that

becomes bothersome (Drèze & Bonfrer, 2008; Godfrey et al., 2011). High EI salespeople should be better able to gauge the reaction they are getting from customers as communication goes up and mitigate frustration by knowing when to pull back in communication. A high EI salesperson may also be equipped to be more constructive in communications in order to reduce unproductive and superfluous information exchanges. As such, future research should explore whether high EI will lead to better information communication between salesperson and customer.

EI moderators. Finally, this dissertation demonstrates that there are, indeed factors that can moderate the relationship between cognitive EI and the enactment of behavioral EI in a salesperson. Future research would benefit from uncovering more moderators that could significantly impact this relationship.

The control system under which a salesperson is working may have the potential to moderate this relationship. Sales controls, or the way that salespeople are monitored, assessed, and incentivized, are well known to influence salesperson behaviors (e.g. Baldauf et al., 2005; Brown et al., 2005; Cravens et al., 1993). Future research could yield important results by testing whether sales controls impact the ability and/or motivation of a salesperson to convert cognitive EI into behavioral EI. Further, following Panagopoulos et al. (in press), there may be differential interactive effects between cognitive EI and the dimensions of the Oliver and Anderson (1994) index and the Jaworski and MacInnis (1989) control measures.

Self-monitoring, or responsiveness to social cues and situations in order to adjust behavior to align with social appropriateness (Snyder, 1974), is another potential moderating factor which future research could examine. Since a high self-monitor is more concerned with self-presentation and the reactions of other people to their behavior than a low self-monitor

(Sanderson, 2010), it is likely that the level of self-monitoring in a person will influence whether or not he is highly motivated to translate cognitive EI into behavior appropriate to each situation and audience.

Direct relationships between EI and academic ability, or traditional intelligence are not supported in the literature (e.g. Davies et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 1998; van der Zee et al., 2002). However, there is preliminary support for the interactive effect of EI and cognitive ability (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Kidwell et al., 2011) such that a combination of the two is a more powerful predictor than either is alone and also that EI may, in fact, be a better predictor of some outcomes than cognitive ability is. Future research should explore whether intelligence actually moderates, specifically, the relationship between cognitive EI and behavioral EI since it may impact a person's ability to synthesize cognitive emotional knowledge and use it most constructively.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: Selected Literature: Emotional Intelligence in Sales

Article	Sample	EI scale	Dimensionality	Hypotheses	Results
Kidwell, B., Hardesty, D. M., Murtha, B. R., & Sheng, S. (2011). Emotional intelligence in marketing exchanges. <i>Journal of Marketing</i> , 75(1), 78-95.	<p><u>Study 1</u> 69 Real estate agents from a major national real estate company</p> <p><u>Study 2</u> 107 insurance agents from the northeastern US</p> <p><u>Study 3</u> 88 insurance agents from northeastern US</p>	EIME MSCEIT SREIS	<p>(1) perceiving (2) facilitating (3) understanding (4) managing</p> <p>Found different dimensions of EI to influence salespeople in different contexts (e.g. understanding and managing emotion were most useful to real estate agents, whereas perceiving, facilitating and managing were more useful to insurance agents)</p> <p>Facilitating and managing positively related to sales revenue</p> <p>Managing emotion positively related to customer retention</p>	<p>H1: EIME → (+) sales performance beyond EI assessed with MSCEIT and SREIS</p> <p>H2: EI moderates (+) the relationships between customer orientation → manifest influence and moderates the interaction of CO x MI → sales performance</p> <p>H3: EI → (+) sales performance beyond the effects of cognitive ability</p> <p>H4: EI moderates (+) the relationship between cognitive ability → sales performance</p>	<p>H1: supported</p> <p>H2: supported</p> <p>H3: supported</p> <p>H4: supported</p>
Deeter-Schmelz, D. R., & Sojka, J. Z. (2003). Developing effective salespeople: exploring the link between emotional intelligence and sales performance. <i>International Journal of Organizational Analysis</i> , 11(3), 211-220.	<u>Qualitative interviews</u> 11 sales professionals with “strong performance records” from several companies and industries	None	<p>(1) empathy (2) perceiving others’ emotions (3) self-awareness (4) self-regulation (5) self-motivation</p> <p>Gleaned from interviews</p>	RQ: does preliminary evidence suggest high-performing salespeople possess EI?	Interviewed salespeople with strong performance records (measured via awards and recognition) exhibited characteristics associated with EI
Rozell, E. J., Pettijohn, C. E., & Parker, R. S. (2006). Emotional intelligence and dispositional affectivity as predictors of performance in salespeople. <i>Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice</i> , 113-124.	<u>Study 1</u> Salespeople employed by nationwide company specializing in medical devices	Schutte et al. (1998)	<p>Factors: (1) emotional awareness (2) emotional self/other control (3) external emotional control</p> <p>Single construct; no dimensionality in analysis</p>	<p>H1a: The highest levels of performance will be achieved by salespeople who have combination scores placing them in the group with the highest positive affect and lowest negative affect group.</p> <p>H1b: Average levels of performance will be associated with those salespeople who have combination scores placing them in the groups with either a high positive affect score combined with a high negative affect score, or a low negative affect score and a low positive affect score.</p> <p>H1c: the lowest levels of performance will be achieved by salespeople who have combination scores placing them in the group with the lowest positive affect score and the highest negative score.</p>	<p>H1a-c: partially supported – performance scores of best combination was significantly greater than worst combination but middle group was not statistically different from top group. Performance levels do go down with each group.</p> <p>H2: supported</p>

				H2: The highest levels of sales performance will be achieved by salespeople who have the highest levels of emotional intelligence.	
Borg, S. W., & Johnston, W. J. (2013). The IPS-EQ Model: Interpersonal Skills and Emotional Intelligence in a Sales Process. <i>Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management</i> , 33(1), 39-52.	Conceptual	None	Referred to here as “layers” – reflected in propositions (1) perceive and express emotion (2) understand and analyze emotions (3) manage emotions	Propositions (only EI-related below) P4: The greater a salesperson’s (or buyer’s) emotional intelligence, the greater his or her ability to perceive and express emotions accurately in a buyer-seller interaction. P5: The greater a salesperson’s (or buyer’s) emotional intelligence, the greater his or her ability to understand and analyze emotions in a buyer-seller interaction. P6: The greater a salesperson’s (or buyer’s) emotional intelligence, the greater his or her ability to manage emotions in a buyer-seller interaction.	None
Lassk, F. G., & Shepherd, C. D. (2013). Exploring the Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Salesperson Creativity. <i>Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management</i> , 33(1), 25-38.	<u>Study</u> Independent sales representatives for a B2C company in the health and beauty industry (direct selling; multilevel compensation plan)	Wong & Law emotional intelligence scale (WLEIS) (Wong and Law 2002)	(1) self-emotional assessment (2) other-emotional assessment (3) understanding of others’ emotions (4) regulation of others’ emotions Single construct, no dimensionality in analysis	H1: A salesperson’s emotional intelligence is positively associated with his or her creativity. H2: A salesperson’s emotional intelligence is positively associated with his or her job satisfaction and job performance. H3: A salesperson’s creativity is positively associated with his or her job satisfaction and job performance.	H1: supported H2: supported H3: supported
Kidwell, B., McFarland, R. G., & Avila, R. A. (2007). Perceiving emotion in the buyer-seller interchange: the moderated impact on performance. <i>Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management</i> , 27(2), 119-132.	<u>Study</u> Salespeople and sales managers (to evaluate the performance of the salespeople) from B2B firms in diverse fields	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT) (Mayer et al. 2003)	Used only one dimension of MSCEIT (perceiving emotion)	H1: A positive relationship exists between adaptive selling and performance measured as (a) perceived performance and (b) supervisor-rated sales performance. H2: A positive relationship exists between customer-oriented selling and performance measured as (a) perceived performance and (b) supervisor-rated sales performance. H3: The ability to perceive emotions will moderate the relationship between adaptive selling and sales performance measured as (a) perceived performance and (b) supervisor-rated sales performance. H4: The ability to perceive emotions will moderate the relationship between customer-oriented selling and sales performance measured as (a) perceived performance and (b) supervisor-rated sales performance.	H1: (a) supported (b) not supported H2: (a) supported (b) not supported H3: (a) and (b) supported H4: (a) and (b) supported
Manna, D. R., & Smith, A. D. (2004). Exploring the need for emotional intelligence and awareness among sales representatives. <i>Marketing Intelligence & Planning</i> , 22(1), 66-83.	<u>Study</u> 515 professional sales representatives	None	NA	Would listening skills training be beneficial for the sales profession? Would professional sales people have an interest in wanting to learn how to resolve conflict through emotional intelligence training? Should emotional intelligence training be introduced into a sales training program? Do college sales courses prepare students for the sales profession? Would emotional intelligence training benefit the sales profession?	Presented in pie charts with no numbers Vast majority agree or strongly agree with all questions except for student preparation (only about 2/3 agree)

<p>Chen, C. C., & Jaramillo, F. (2014). The double-edged effects of emotional intelligence on the adaptive selling–salesperson-owned loyalty relationship. <i>Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management</i>, 34(1), 33-50.</p>	<p><u>Study</u> Matched dyads (143 consumers with 25 salespeople working for a large financial institution in Chile)</p>	<p>Wong & Law (2002) WLEIS</p>	<p>(1) perception of emotions (2) use of emotions (3) regulation of emotions</p> <p>Separate 3 dimensions and find a mediation relationship among them</p>	<p>H1: Adaptive selling is positively related to salesperson owned loyalty.</p> <p>H2: Salesperson owned loyalty is positively related to loyalty to the service provider.</p> <p>H3: Salesperson owned loyalty is positively related to word of mouth.</p> <p>H4: Loyalty to the service provider is positively related to word of mouth.</p> <p>H5: Use of emotions mediates the impact of emotion perceptions on emotion regulation.</p> <p>RQ1: Is the relationship between salesperson’s regulation of emotions and salesperson owned loyalty negative, insignificant, or positive?</p> <p>H6: Regulation of emotions moderates the positive impact of adaptive selling on customer owned loyalty. This impact is stronger at higher levels of regulation of emotions.</p>	<p>H1: supported</p> <p>H2: supported</p> <p>H3: not supported</p> <p>H4: supported</p> <p>H5: supported (full mediation)</p> <p>RQ1: negative relationship</p> <p>H6: supported</p>
<p>Rozell, E. J., Pettijohn, C. E., & Parker, R. S. (2004). Customer-oriented selling: Exploring the roles of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. <i>Psychology & Marketing</i>, 21(6), 405-424.</p>	<p><u>Study</u> 103 salespeople employed by a nationwide company that specializes in medical devices</p>	<p>Schutte et al. (1998)</p>	<p>(1) emotional intelligence</p>	<p>H1: Customer orientation will be positively associated with EI scores.</p> <p>H2: Customer orientation scores will be positively associated with performance.</p> <p>H2: Customer orientation scores will be positively associated with organizational commitment.</p>	<p>H1: supported</p> <p>H2: supported</p> <p>H2: not supported</p>
<p>Boyatzis, R. E., Good, D., & Massa, R. (2012). Emotional, social, and cognitive intelligence and personality as predictors of sales leadership performance. <i>Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies</i>, 19(2), 191-201.</p>	<p><u>Study</u> Divisional executives (DE) of a financial services company. Compensation of DE and their sales staff entirely based on financial performance</p>	<p>ESCI: Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2007)</p> <p>360° assessment but self-report was thrown out of analysis</p> <p>72 items</p>	<p>(1) emotional and social intelligence (ESI)</p> <p>Assessed as one (composite score of 12 competencies)</p>	<p>H1: ESI competencies as seen by others will significantly predict sales leader performance.</p> <p>H2: Cognitive intelligence will significantly predict sales leader performance.</p> <p>H3: Personality traits will significantly predict sales leader performance.</p> <p>H4: ESI competencies as seen by others will predict sales leadership performance beyond personality and intelligence.</p>	<p>H1: supported</p> <p>H2: not supported</p> <p>H3: not supported</p> <p>H4: supported</p>
<p>Pettijohn, C. E., Rozell, E. J., & Newman, A. (2010a). How do US and UK salespeople compare on the dimensions of emotional intelligence, positive and negative affect, and customer orientation levels?. <i>Marketing Management Journal</i>, 20(1).</p>	<p><u>Study</u> U.S. – 245 salespeople in the healthcare industry U.K. – 107 salespeople in the healthcare industry</p>	<p>Schutte et al. (1998)</p>	<p>(1) emotional intelligence</p>	<p>RQ1: Salespeople in the U.K. will have significantly lower levels of emotional intelligence than will U.S. salespeople.</p> <p>RQ2: Salespeople in the U.K. will have significantly lower levels of customer orientation than will U.S. salespeople.</p> <p>RQ3: Salespeople in the U.K. will have significantly lower levels of sales orientation than will U.S. salespeople.</p> <p>RQ4: Salespeople in the U.K. will have significantly lower levels of positive affect than will U.S. salespeople.</p>	<p>RQ1: not supported</p> <p>RQ2: supported</p> <p>RQ3: supported</p> <p>RQ4: not supported</p> <p>RQ5: not supported</p>

				RQ5: Salespeople in the U.K. will have significantly higher levels of negative affect than will U.S. salespeople.	
Pettijohn, C. E., Rozell, E. J., & Newman, A. (2010b). The relationship between emotional intelligence and customer orientation for pharmaceutical salespeople: a UK perspective. <i>International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Healthcare Marketing</i> , 4(1), 21-39.	<u>Study</u> 107 pharmaceutical salespeople working for a large firm in the U.K.	Schutte et al. (1998)	(1) emotional intelligence	H1: salesperson emotional intelligence levels will be significantly and positively related to salesperson customer orientation. H2: Salesperson PA (positive affectivity) levels will be significantly and positively related to salesperson customer-orientation levels. H3: Salesperson NA (negative affectivity) levels will be significantly and inversely related to salesperson customer-orientation levels.	H1: supported H2: supported H3: not supported

Appendix B: Selected Literature: Dimensionality of Emotional Intelligence

Authors	Measure used	# of dimensions	Dimension labels
Petrides, KV and A. Furnham (2000), "On the Dimensional Structure of Emotional Intelligence," <i>Personality and Individual Differences</i> , 29 313-20.	Schutte 33-item	4	(1) optimism/mood regulation (2) appraisal (3) social skills (4) utilization
Austin, Saklofske, Huang & McKenney (2004), "Measurement of Trait Emotional Intelligence: Testing and Cross-Validating a Modified Version of Schutte Et Al.'s (1998) Measure," <i>Personality and Individual Differences</i> , 36 555-62.	Schutte Modified: added 8 new questions and reverse-worded 9 existing questions.	3	(1) Optimism/mood regulation (2) Appraisal of emotions (3) Utilization of emotions
Ciarrochi, J., F. P. Deane, and S. Anderson (2002), "Emotional Intelligence Moderates the Relationship between Stress and Mental Health," <i>Personality and Individual Differences</i> , 32 197-209.	Schutte 33-item	3	(1) perception (2) managing self emotions (MSE) (3) managing others' emotions (MOE)
Carmeli, A. (2003), "The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Work Attitudes, Behavior and Outcomes: An Examination among Senior Managers," <i>Journal of Managerial Psychology</i> , 18 788-813.	Schutte 33-item	1	(1) emotional intelligence
Ng, Wang, Kim & Bodenhrn (2010), "Factor Structure Analysis of the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Scale on International Students," <i>Educational and Psychological Measurement</i> , 70 695.	Schutte 33-item	4	(1) Emotional regulation of the self (ERS) (2) appraisal of emotions in others (AEO) (3) appraisal of emotions in the self (AES) (4) utilization of emotions in problem solving (UEPS)
Saklofske, D. H., E. J. Austin, and P. S. Minski (2003), "Factor Structure and Validity of a Trait Emotional Intelligence Measure," <i>Personality and Individual Differences</i> , 34 707-21.	Schutte 33-item Reworded the 3 reverse coded questions in the original so that all were scored in the same direction	4	(1) optimism/mood regulation (2) appraisal of emotions (3) utilization of emotions (4) social skills
Brackett, M. A. and J. D. Mayer (2003), "Convergent, Discriminant, and Incremental Validity of Competing	Schutte 33-item	1 – Schutte 4 – MSCEIT	<u>MSCEIT</u> (1) perception (2) facilitation

Measures of Emotional Intelligence," <i>Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin</i> , 29 1147.	Also, Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)	5 – EQ-i	(3) understanding (4) regulation <u>EQ-i</u> (1) intrapersonal (2) interpersonal (3) adaptability (4) self-management (5) general mood
Chan, D. W. (2003), "Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence and their Relationships with Social Coping among Gifted Adolescents in Hong Kong," <i>Journal of Youth and Adolescence</i> , 32 409-18.	Schutte 33-item (Chinese-language version)	4	(1) self-management of emotions (2) management of others' emotions / social skills (3) empathy (4) utilization of emotions
Hakanen, E. A. (2004), "Relation of Emotional Intelligence to Emotional Recognition and Mood Management 1," <i>Psychological Reports</i> , 94 1097-103.	Schutte 33-item	4	(1) optimism (2) mood management (3) appraisal of emotions (4) empathy
Gignac, Palmer, Manocha & Stough (2005), "An Examination of the Factor Structure of the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence (SSREI) Scale Via Confirmatory Factor Analysis," <i>Personality and Individual Differences</i> , 39 1029-42.	Schutte 33-item	4	(1) appraisal of emotions in the self (2) appraisal of emotions in others (3) emotional regulation of the self (4) utilization of emotions in problem solving

Appendix C: Emotional Intelligence: EIME (Kidwell et al., 2011)

In this section, we are interested in emotions expressed in facial expressions and pictures. Please circle the answer that corresponds to the emotion(s) expressed in each face or picture.



1. Indicate how much "sadness" is expressed in the picture to the left:

1. Not at all present
2. Slightly present
3. Moderately present
4. Quite present
5. Extremely present



2. Indicate how much "surprise" is expressed in the picture to the left:

1. Not at all present
2. Slightly present
3. Moderately present
4. Quite present
5. Extremely present



3. Indicate how much "fear" is expressed in the picture to the left:

1. Not at all present
2. Slightly present
3. Moderately present
4. Quite present
5. Extremely present

In this section, we would like you to indicate how useful each emotion might be in response to the scenario that is presented.

How useful might it be to... (check column that applies for each question)

	Not at all Useful	Slightly Useful	Moderately Useful	Quite Useful	Extremely Useful
4. feel "hostility" when interacting with an angry supervisor?					
5. feel "anxiety" when determining the needs of a customer?					
6. feel "guilt" when attempting to persuade someone to make an expensive purchase?					
7. feel "frustration" when negotiating compensation issues with your supervisor?					

In this section, we would like you to circle the emotional response that is the most likely to be felt in the situations described below.

8. Matthew works best when his supervisor lets him do things the way he believes is best. When his supervisor began to micro-manage his activities, Matthew felt ____.

1. pleased
2. disappointed
3. relaxed
4. frustrated
5. guilty

9. A man went into an electronics store feeling rested. Later, he felt anxious. What happened in between?

1. He was approached by an aggressive salesperson.
2. He saw an old friend that he hadn't seen in several years.
3. He was helped by a cashier whom he thought he recognized.
4. He found an alternative product that he liked almost as well.
5. He couldn't find the brand of cell phone he wanted.

10. A customer was interested and ready to make a purchase. Later, he felt embarrassed. What happened in between?

1. The customer received a brief phone call.
2. The customer realized he could not afford to make the purchase.
3. The customer realized that he should compare prices before making the purchase.
4. The customer said that he/she was not interested in making the purchase.
5. The customer continued to search for more information about the product.

11. Happiness is a combination of which group of three emotions listed below:

1. Envy, Joy, Pride
2. Pleasure, Activeness, Arousal
3. Joy, Pleasure, Satisfaction
4. Satisfaction, Joy, Excitement

In this section, we would like you to indicate how effective each action might be in response to the scenario that is presented.

Bill never received clear instructions about how to do his job. One day he found out he was reassigned to a supervisor who had a reputation for setting clear goals and objectives. Bill felt relieved and calm for the first time in a long while. How well would the following behaviors help Bill maintain his feelings?

12. Behavior: He could tell his new supervisor how much he didn't like the previous supervisor.

1. Not at all effective
2. Slightly effective
3. Moderately effective
4. Quite effective
5. Extremely effective

A customer agreed to make a large purchase from you. Later, however, you found out that the customer never had enough money to make the purchase. How well would the following behavior help you reduce your disappointment?

13. Behavior: Call back the customer and yell at him for wasting your time.

1. Not at all effective
2. Slightly effective
3. Moderately effective
4. Quite effective
5. Extremely effective

14. Behavior: Teach the customer a lesson by not returning any of his phone calls.

1. Not at all effective
2. Slightly effective
3. Moderately effective
4. Quite effective
5. Extremely effective

A couple has shown some interest in a product that Bill is selling. Bill is presenting the product well, although the couple is starting to look bored and disinterested. How well would the following behavior help Bill keep their interest and close the sale?

15. Behavior: Bill should accept the fact that the couple probably won't make the purchase.

1. Not at all effective
2. Slightly effective
3. Moderately effective
4. Quite effective
5. Extremely effective

Appendix D: IRB

February 26, 2014

Office for Research
Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects



Catherine Johnson
Department of Management & Marketing
College of Commerce & Business Administration
The University of Alabama

Re: IRB # 14-OR-055 "A Comparison of Emotional Intelligence
Conceptualizations and Measures"

Dear Ms. Johnson:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research

Your protocol has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of documentation of informed consent. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your application will expire on February 25, 2015. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of the IRB Renewal Application. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of the IRB Study Closure Form.

Please use reproductions of the IRB approved stamped informed consent form to obtain consent from your participants.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



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TOLL FREE (877) 820-3066


Carpantato T. Myles, MSM, CMM, CIP
Director of Research Compliance & Research Compliance Officer
Office of Research Compliance
The University of Alabama

Appendix A: Informed Consent and Debriefing

Informed Consent

Thank you for taking the time for this survey. This is a survey regarding emotions and interpersonal interactions, which is being conducted by Catherine Johnson, a doctoral student in Marketing at the University of Alabama and Adam Rapp, a professor of Marketing at the University of Alabama. The survey should take approximately 10-15 minutes.

Please read each question carefully and choose the answer that best reflects how you feel. Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers. All surveys will be kept completely confidential and your name will not be associated with any responses.

This study does not involve any more risks than those encountered in everyday life, nor are there any direct individual benefits associated with taking part in the research. The primary benefit of this research is scientific. The knowledge gained by conducting this study will further our overall understanding of emotions and interpersonal interactions. You will also be debriefed at the conclusion of this study, which contains information that you, as a student, may find interesting.

You must be 19 years of age in order to participate. You do not have to take part in this research project if you do not want to. You can stop participating at any time. Your instructor has agreed to provide extra credit to you for your participation in this study. If you do not want to participate you will be given the opportunity to attain extra credit with another activity comparable in length to this one. If you decide not to participate, or you quit the study, you will not lose any benefits that you have been promised. Data collected during the course of this study is identified by number, and not by name. Your name is never attached to any data. Hence, all data is completely confidential. We are only interested in group results, and any report of these data will involve the reporting of group data.

If you have any questions or concerns about this research project please contact Catherine Johnson at cmjohnson8@cba.ua.edu. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, please contact Tanta Myles, the University Research Compliance Officer at 205-348-8461 and toll free at 877-820-3066. You may also ask questions, make a suggestion, or file complaints and concerns through the IRB Outreach Website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html. After you participate, you are encouraged to complete the survey for research participants that is online there, or you may ask the researchers for a copy of it. You may also email us at participantoutreach@bama.ua.edu.

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UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 2-26-14
EXPIRATION DATE: 2-25-15