Tomas Bata University in Zlín
Faculty of Management and Economics

Doctoral Thesis

IMPACT OF STRATEGIC EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TO MANAGERIAL SELF EFFICACY & CAREER SUCCESS

Vliv strategické emoční inteligence na sebeuplatnění a kariérní úspěch manažera

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ABSTRACT

Organisational capabilities form the core component of business architecture. Human capital defines organizational capabilities and findings suggest that human intelligence is inherently involved in intellectual capital. The pluralistic views of intelligences contributed to the increased attention among psychologists for delimitations of human intelligence. Interests in 'emotional intelligence' (EI) research got prominence through developments in mid-1990's, which lead to the identification of EI as a distinct form of intelligence. Among the many initiatives on EI research, only a few have represented empirically oriented scholarship. Key unresolved issues are the EI assessment techniques and cross cultural validation of EI. Study has attempted to address the above research gap providing empirical findings on the implications of EI sub constructs/domains in the world of work. Career success and occupational self-efficacy (OSE) have been employed as the real life outcomes in examining the intricacies of EI construct. The aim of this study is to examine the impact of strategic EI to career success and OSE of managers in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts using multifarious assessments. Research has ventured into this by examining 'comparable contexts' across socio-geographic contexts. The most advanced domain of EI namely strategic EI (Managing Emotions per se) has been chosen to examine the impact of EI. Study has examined the features and implications in the multifarious assessment outputs of strategic EI of managers in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts, with specific focus on the impact of strategic EI to career success. Sri Lanka and Czech Republic were selected for the study after examination of country profiles, with specific emphasis on socio-demographic indices. Study was focused on the impact of strategic EI on the careers of 186 banking & finance industry professionals in these two countries. Descriptive and inferential analyses have been conducted with multiple comparisons involving a multitude of factors using multifarious EI assessments. Study findings have contributed to new scientific knowledge to the existing theory and practice. Study has drawn special attention to the cross cultural validation of the impact of strategic EI to OSE and career success in varying socio-demographic contexts. It provides guidelines to carry out in-depth analyses of EI research. Study also provides guidelines for scholars and practitioners of the impact of strategic EI in above contexts.

ABSTRAKT

Organizační schopnosti představují významnou část předpokladů pro podnikání. Lidský kapitál je jejich neodmyslitelnou součástí a studie ukazují, že lidská inteligence je podstatnou součástí duševního kapitálu. Pluralitní pohledy na inteligenci přispěly ke zvýšenému zájmu psychologů o přesné vymezení pojmu lidské inteligence. Zájem o výzkum v oblasti emoční inteligence (EI) vzrostl a nabyl důležitosti v polovině 90. let 20. století. Tento vývojový posun vedl k identifikaci EI jako významné formy inteligence. Na počátku výzkumu EI byl uváděn jen malý počet empiricky orientovaných výzkumných studií. Klíčovými nevyřešenými otázkami jsou metody hodnocení EI a platnost daných zjištění napříč kulturami. Předložená práce je zaměřena na vyplnění této mezery ve výzkumu a uvádí závěry empirického zkoumání vlivu a důsledků EI v pracovním životě. Ve výzkumu EI byly použity profesní sebeprosazení (OSE) a profesní úspěch jako charakteristiky profesního života. Cílem předložené studie je prozkoumat vliv strategické EI na profesní úspěch a profesní sebeprosazení (OSE) manažerů z různého sociokulturního a geografického prostředí. Pro výzkum vlivu EI byla vybrána strategická EI (zvládání emocí per se), protože tato charakteristika EI je předmětem zájmu řady publikovaných studií. Předložená studie zkoumá znaky a důsledky strategické EI manažerů z různého sociokulturního a geografického prostředí. Specifickou oblastí zájmu bylo studium vlivu strategické EI na profesní úspěch. Pro naši studii byly po důkladném posouzení vybrány státy Srí Lanka a Česká republika. Důraz byl kladen zejména na sociodemografické ukazatele těchto zemí. Studie je zaměřena na výzkum vlivu strategické EI na kariéry 186 odborníků z oblasti bankovnictví a financí v těchto dvou zemích. Byly provedeny deskriptivní a srovnávací analýzy s použitím různých způsobů hodnocení EI. Výsledky výzkumu přispěly k rozšíření vědeckého poznání v oblasti dosavadní teorie i praxe. Zejména při posuzování vlivu strategické EI na profesní sebeprosazení (OSE) a profesní úspěch v různém sociodemografickém prostředí. Studie přináší také návod k provedení hloubkové analýzy a výzkumu v oblasti EI. Závěry výzkumu mohou sloužit k pochopení vlivu strategické EI ve výše zmíněných oblastech jak pro odborníky zaměřené na teoretické poznání tak také pro odborníky z praxe, event. ve výuce.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AOC	**Affective Organisational Commitment**
CPB	**Citizenship Performance Behaviour**
CZE	**Czech Republic**
EI	**Emotional Intelligence**
EQ	**Emotional Quotient**
IQ	**Intelligence Quotient**
JSCA	**Job Stability as a Career Anchor**
LKA	**Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka**
MI	**Multiple Intelligences**
MSCEIT	**Mayer – Salovey – Caruso EI Test**
OSE	**Occupational Self Efficacy**
RIS	**Relationship with the Immediate Superior**
SREIS	**Self- Rated Emotional Intelligence Scale**
TFL	**Transformational Leadership**

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Organisational capabilities form the core component of business architecture. Human capital defines organizational capabilities and can be categorized into personal attributes. These personal attributes consist of personality traits and psychological attributes of intelligence and skills. Research findings suggest that human intelligence is inherently involved in intellectual capital and in each and every component of it. The pluralistic views of intelligences contributed to the increased attention among psychologists for delimitations of human intelligence. Scholars and practitioners started to experiment on different components of intelligence, other than the established 'IQ', which was considered as the ultimate yardstick of measuring human intelligence. Interests in 'emotional intelligence' (EI) research got prominence, especially due to the developments in mid-1990's. Empirical findings attach EI as a potentially powerful key to occupational success. There are many supportive arguments to identify EI 'distinct' from other recognized components of intelligence. Though there have been many initiatives on EI research, only a few of them have represented empirically oriented scholarship. Although the scholarly work on EI has improved conceptually and empirically, it is still at a developmental stage left with some arguments yet to be comprehensively addressed. Key issues among them are the EI assessment techniques and the cross cultural validation of EI. This study has attempted to address the research gap of empirical findings on the implications of EI sub constructs/domains in the world of work, among comparable samples in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts using multifarious assessments. Career success and occupational self-efficacy (OSE) have been employed as the real life outcomes in examining the intricacies of EI construct.

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of strategic EI to career success and OSE of managers in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts using multifarious assessments. Research has ventured into this by examining 'comparable contexts' across socio-geographic contexts. The most advanced domain of EI namely strategic EI (Managing Emotions per se) has been chosen to examine the impact of EI. Study has examined the features and implications in the multifarious assessment outputs of strategic EI of managers in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts, with specific focus on the impact of

strategic EI to career success. Conceptual framework of the study is based on extensive literature survey of EI and antecedents. It serves the purpose of examining the impact of strategic EI in the world of work. Five socio-demographic factors and five socio-psychological antecedents of career success have been chosen after much deliberation on theory and empirical findings. Sri Lanka and Czech Republic were selected for the study after examination of country profiles, with specific emphasis on socio-demographic indices. The selection of these two countries has been sagacious that there are no extreme differences between them in the world's context. Selection of respondents for the study have been matched on all criteria (viz. gender, age, level of education, occupation, kind of work) that could affect the results in a comparison between two countries. Study was focused on the impact of strategic EI on the careers of banking & finance industry professionals in these two countries. Research sample was selected by using multi-stage stratified random sampling method from eight organisations in Sri Lanka and six organisations in Czech Republic. One to one interviewing was conducted among 186 banking executives (122 from Sri Lanka, and 64 from Czech Republic) in managerial positions.

Numerous descriptive and inferential analyses have been conducted with multiple comparisons involving a multitude of factors using multifarious EI assessments. MSCEIT version 2 has been used as the principal assessment of EI. Multivariate regression analysis, t tests, ANOVA, and MANOVA statistical tests have been employed for inferences in a comprehensive analysis of the empirical results. The moderating and mediating effects of strategic EI on career success have been explored based on composite indices. Causal relationships of strategic EI with major variables have been examined. Study findings have contributed to new scientific knowledge to the existing theory and practice. Study has drawn special attention to the cross cultural validation of the impact of strategic EI to OSE and career success in varying socio-demographic contexts. It has also examined the intricacies of multifarious EI assessments. Study provides guidelines in carrying out in-depth analyses of the phenomenon in future studies. In addition it has also examined the associations of career success and OSE with socio-demographic factors and antecedents across socio-cultural contexts. In practice, the study provides guidelines for researchers, practitioners, and educators of the impact of strategic EI in above contexts.

ROZŠÍŘENÝ ABSTRAKT

Organizační schopnosti představují podstatnou část předpokladů pro podnikání. Lidský kapitál zahrnuje organizační schopnosti, které lze vymezit jako osobnostní charakteristiky a psychologické rysy spojené s inteligencí a dovednostmi. Výzkumy uvádějí, že lidská inteligence je ve své podstatě součástí kapitálu duševního. Pluralitní pohledy na inteligenci přispěly ke zvýšenému zájmu psychologů o přesné vymezení pojmu lidské inteligence a odborníci začali zkoumat různé složky inteligence. Jedná se o další složky, jiné než je kognitivní složka (IQ), která byla považována za hlavní a rozhodující měřítko hodnocení lidské inteligence. Zájem o výzkum v oblasti emoční inteligence (EI) vzrostl zejména v polovině 90. let 20. století. Závěry empirických výzkumů popsaly EI jako potenciálně významný faktor profesního úspěchu. Existuje mnoho argumentů, které podporují fakt, že EI je „odlišná“ od ostatních, již uznávaných složek inteligence. Ačkoliv bylo provedeno mnoho výzkumů EI, jen malý počet studií nabídl empiricky orientovaný výzkum. Přestože se výzkumná práce zaměřená na EI vylepšila koncepčně i metodologicky, je výzkum stále ve fázi vývoje. Klíčovými otázkami jsou metody hodnocení EI a platnost daných zjištění napříč kulturami. Náš výzkum se pokusil vyplnit tuto mezeru a předložit empirické závěry zkoumání vlivu a důsledků EI v profesním životě. Ve výzkumu byly použity profesní sebeprosazení (OSE) a profesní úspěch jako charakteristiky profesního života. Výzkum je zaměřen na posouzení vlivu EI na profesní úspěch a profesní sebeprosazení (OSE) napříč sociokulturním a geografickým prostředím.

Cílem této studie je prozkoumat vliv strategické EI na profesní úspěch a OSE manažerů z různého sociokulturního a geografického prostředí. Pro výzkum vlivu EI byla vybrána strategická EI (zvládání emocí per se), protože tato charakteristika EI je předmětem zájmu řady publikovaných studií. Předložená studie zkoumá znaky a důsledky strategické EI manažerů z různého sociokulturního a geografického prostředí. Specifickou oblastí zájmu bylo studium vlivu strategické EI na profesní úspěch. Pro naši studii byly po důkladném posouzení vybrány státy Srí Lanka a Česká republika. Důraz byl kladen zejména na sociodemografické ukazatele těchto zemí. Koncepční rámec studie je založen na rozsáhlém průzkumu literatury zaměřené na EI Po pečlivém vyhodnocení teoretických poznatků a empirických zjištění bylo vybráno 5 socio-demografických a 5 socio-

psychologických faktorů profesního úspěchu. Výběr respondentů odpovídal stanoveným kritériím (pohlaví, věk, dosažené vzdělání, zaměstnání, pracovní pozice). Všechny tyto faktory mohly ovlivnit výsledky srovnání dvou vybraných zemí. Studie byla zaměřena na výzkum vlivu strategické EI na kariéru odborníků z oblasti bankovnictví a financí v těchto dvou zemích. Vzorek pro výzkum byl vybrán metodou stratifikovaného náhodného vzorku v 8 organizacích na Srí Lance a 6 organizacích v České republice. Individuální pohovory byly prováděny se 186 vedoucími pracovníky z oblasti bankovnictví (122 ze Srí Lanky a 64 z České republiky), kteří jsou na manažerských pozicích.

Při zpracování dat byly provedeny četné deskriptivní a srovnávací analýzy s použitím několika různých způsobů hodnocení EI. Pro hodnocení EI byla jako hlavní metoda použita MSCEIT verze 2. Pro vyvození závěrů byly použity postupy multivariační regresní analýzy, t testy, statistické testy ANOVA a MANOVA. Byl zjištěn významný vliv strategické EI na profesní úspěch. Byla zkoumána kauzální souvislost mezi strategickou EI a hlavními proměnnými. Výsledky výzkumu přispěly k rozšíření vědeckého poznání v oblasti dosavadní teorie i praxe. Zejména při posuzování vlivu strategické EI na profesní sebeprosazení (OSE) a profesní úspěch v různém sociodemografickém prostředí. Studie přináší také návod k provedení hloubkové analýzy a výzkumu v oblasti EI. Závěry výzkumu mohou sloužit k pochopení vlivu strategické EI ve výše zmíněných oblastech jak pro odborníky zaměřené na teoretické poznání tak také pro odborníky z praxe event. ve výuce.

1. INTRODUCTION

Identifying people as a valuable asset to organisations goes as far back to the 17th century. Economist William Petty has argued for the value of workers to be accounted for by actuaries in the calculation of the wealth of a company (Nerdrum and Erikson, 2001). More than a century later came the Adam Smith's writing about the value and influence of workers' knowledge and skills on the production process and output of a firm (OECD, 1999). Smith viewed education as an investment and advocated higher wages for knowledgeable and skilled workers. The succession of management theories that followed includes the Classical Management Theory, which was introduced in the late 19th century. It suggested the breaking down of jobs into elements and to be cost accordingly. It advocated to train workers in very narrow tasks and to pay based on their 'work-load'. Then in 1916, Fayol introduced the principles of successful management. It premised on the subordination of individual worker's interests to the organizational interests (Howell and Dipboye, 1986). It followed the well-known scientific management approach of Frederick Taylor, which focused on maximising the organizational productivity through specialisation and the efficient use of physical and human resources, and it became the dominant style of management for a long time. (Buchanan and Huczynski, 1997). The Hawthorne Studies, conducted by Elton Mayo from 1927 reshaped management theory and practice. This school of thought gave rise to the human relations movement. It indicated the effectiveness of social factors at work for productivity more than the strict management control of methods of workers. Informal group dynamics, close attention at work, peer relationships, and feelings of self-worth and independence were identified to be important factors in organisations (Howell and Dipboye, 1986; Wren, 1987). These findings generated a widespread debate about work group behaviour and productivity. Scholars from a wide range of disciplines were involved and interested about this so-called "Hawthorne Effect". "Sociologists, philosophers and psychologists joined economists and accountants in the quest to explain the complexities of organisations" (Carson, Ranzijn, Winefield, & Marsden, 2004, p.444). The field of organizational theory emerged post World War II.

By the late 1960s, the emergence of the discipline 'organisational behaviour' focused on the behavioural aspects of individuals (employees) and the underlying

psychological theories (Steers, 1988). This paid close attention to the aspects of personality, leadership, motivation, attitudes and group behaviour of employees (Howell and Dipboye, 1986). Organisational behaviour has led to the thinking of the 'value of people' in the organisational context. This was further emphasized with the establishment of the knowledge management era in 1990's. The importance of 'Intellectual Capital theory' followed. Carson et al. (2004) found "considerable affinity" between the school of organisational thought (and behaviour) and the Intellectual capital theory.

1.1 Intellectual Capital in the world of work

In an increasingly competitive world of work, the concepts of employability and career development have continued to evolve in line with changing career and employment models. Business capabilities form the core component of business architecture. It provides a context to assess an organisation's assets for their alignment with business goals and objectives (Bedford, 2013). The architecture of business practices focuses on the organisational leverage of its assets, especially intellectual capital, to achieve business goals. With the introduction of knowledge economy, intellectual capital has emerged prominent among business practitioners and academics as well (Bullen et al., 2006). Intellectual capital encompasses all knowledge resources that contribute to the competitiveness of an organization (Edvinsson and Malone, 1997; Guthrie, 2001; Harvey and Lusch, 1999; Robinson and Kleiner, 1996; Stewart, 1997; and Vallejo-Alonso et al., 2013). It represents the intangible value included in the know-how of employees and their relationships, management staff, and other stakeholders, including customers. Intellectual capital encompasses not only the contents of employees' minds but also the complex intangible structure that surrounds them and makes the organisations function (Falzagic, 2007). Intellectual capital consists of human, structural, and relational capital (Allee, 1999; Ferrier, 2001; Fischer, 2001). Carson et al. (2004) emphasise the synergistic role effects of human, structural, and relational capitals. They rather indicate intellectual capital "is that sum plus the interaction of human and structural, structural and relational, and human and relational capitals, respectively" (Carson et al. 2004, p.450). The context of intellectual capital in an organisational environment has been depicted in figure 1.1 below (Andriessen, 2005).

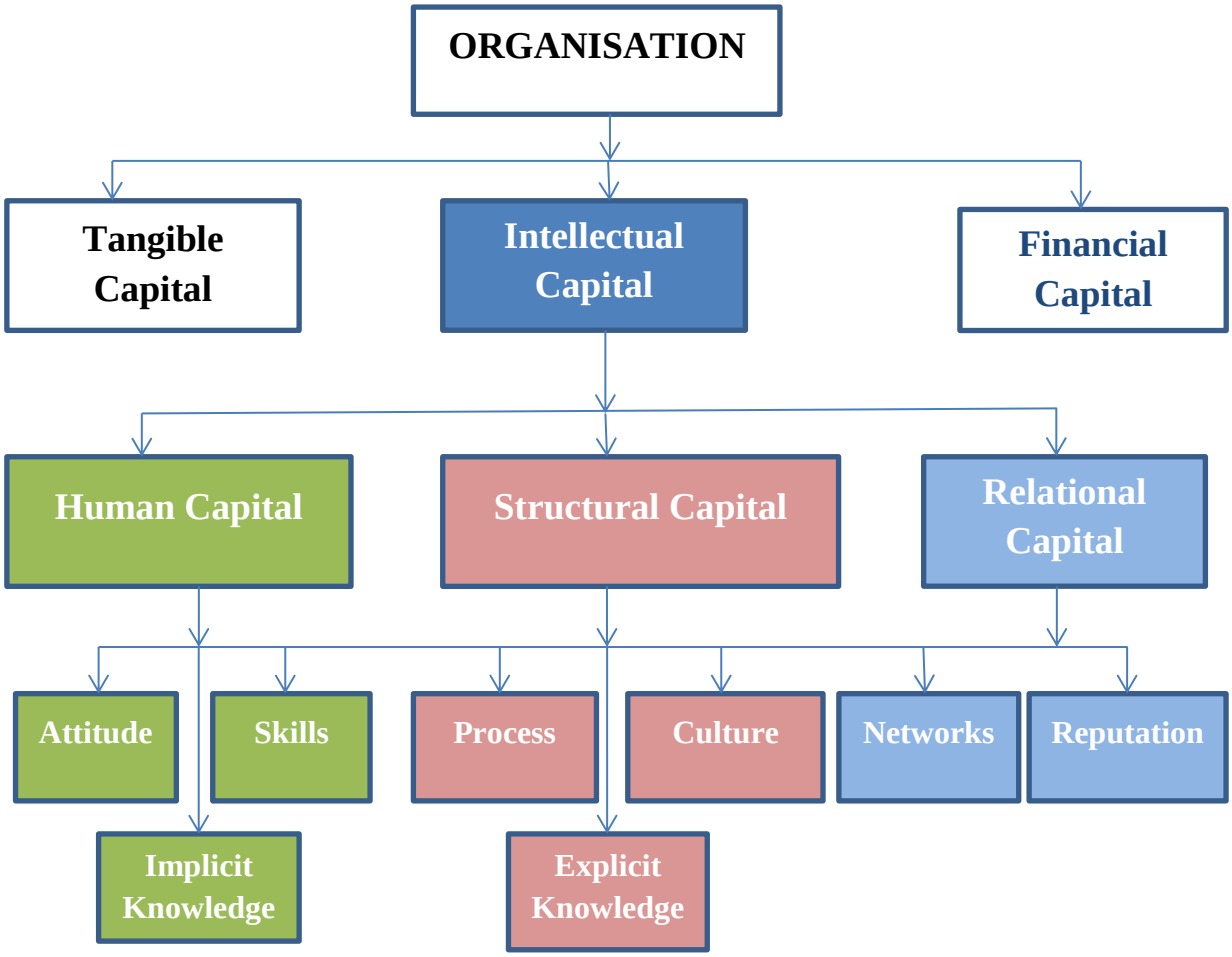


Figure 1.1: Intellectual Capital in Organisational context

Source: Daniel Andriessen, 'Making Profit from Intellectual Capital,' Intellectual Capital Conference, Jakarta, March, 2005

Lynn (2000) has defined human capital as 'an inventory of the skill sets and knowledge' of individual employees in an organisation. Organisations strive to sustain their advantage by creating human capital in them through a combination of employees' knowledge, skills, capabilities, commitment and ideas (Snell and Bohlander, 2007; Ulrich et al., 1999). Structural capital has at times been referred to as organisational capital. As depicted in figure 1.1, structural capital consists of explicit knowledge within the organisation, its culture, and process. It includes intangible assets, viz. information systems, distribution networks, work team strategies, competitive market intelligence, and knowledge of structures, systems

and the market (Mouritsen et al., 2001).Relational capital consists of organisational networks, and the reputation it has acquired over the years. Relational capital refers to the 'value of an organisation's external relationships with the organisations and people with whom it does business – its suppliers and customers' (Carson et al., 2004, p.447). Importantly, human, structural, and relational capitals (in other words intellectual capital) are inherently formulated, and driven in organisations by employees. Due to the complexity in the measurement of intellectual capital in organisations, it has been represented by proxies such as qualifications obtained, or an employee's length of service (Ferrier, 2001; Nerdrum and Erikson, 2001). Development of established, empirically tested, measurements and models that facilitate effective management of intangible assets is a long felt need among practitioners and scholars over the world (Bontis, 2001).

1.2 Human Intelligences

Literature suggests that human capital can be categorized into personal attributes. These personal attributes consist of personality traits and psychological attributes of intelligence and skills (the former largely non-modifiable, and the latter being potentially modifiable). The main personality factors identified are the "big five" are neuroticism/emotional stability, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness) and the locus of control (of outcomes) (Carson et al., 2004). Structural capital (often used to refer processes and procedures) belongs to the organisation in context. However, structured capital in essence is 'captured human capital' that relies on the intelligence and skills of organisation's employees (Carson et al., 2004). Relational capital includes the relationships an organisation has with its key stakeholders, based on its reputation and channel of networks. These relationships are created and maintained by employees of an organization. Relational capital depends on the intelligence and skills of employees in developing the relationship networks. It is evident that human intelligence is inherently involved in intellectual capital, and in each and every component of it, as discussed above. The term 'Intelligence Quotient 'or what is famously called as 'IQ' dates back to the beginning of the 20th century. The famed French psychologist Alfred Binet is credited with the introduction of the term IQ, which has captured the world's attention like other Parisian fashions (Siegler, 1992). Oxford dictionaries (2014) define it as "A number representing a

person's reasoning ability (measured using problem-solving tests) as compared to the statistical norm or average for their age, taken as 100". Along with Binet's work, the contribution of the contemporaneous work of English psychologist Charles Spearman on 'g', is note-worthy. It served as the principal catalysts to conceive that all forms of intellectual activity stem from a unitary ability in problem-solving (Perkins & Tishman, 2001). Spearman suggested that all mental performance could be conceptualized in terms of a single general ability factor (g), and a large number of narrow task-specific ability factors. Many IQ factor models represent cognitive abilities as a three-level hierarchy. There are a large number of narrow factors at the bottom of the hierarchy, a few broad and general factors at the intermediate level, and the single g factor at the apex, representing the variance common to all cognitive tasks. Scholars and practitioners started to use (and believe in) IQ as the ultimate yardstick with the growing acceptance and reputation it has enjoyed over the years. And the search for more advanced or the 'perfect measure' of intelligence began to gather momentum. Spearman's theory of general intelligence (or 'g') remains the predominant conception of intelligence within academic psychology (Deary, Strand, Smith, & Fernandes, 2007; Jensen, 2008). It is the basis for more than 70 IQ tests in circulation used in the employee recruitment tests used by majority of the organisations across the world. (e.g. Stanford-Binet Intelligence Sales Fifth Edition, 2003; Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scales Fourth Edition, 2008 etc.). Sophisticated versions of IQ tests e.g. Scholastic Assessment Test (better known as SAT) are being used to select 'highly intelligent' students for degree programmes to date. IQ itself had been defining the 'eligibility yardstick' for millions of aspiring candidates across the world, in different walks of life.

Howard Gardner, a Harvard psychologist, challenged the above commonly held belief in 1983, through his theory of multiple intelligences (MI). In his book *Frames of Mind* (Gardner, 1993) he introduced the MI theory, indicating that our cultures have narrowed down the definition of 'Intelligence'. MI theory identifies intelligence as 'a combination of heritable potentials and skills' (Gardner, 1993). They can be developed overtime in diverse ways. He argued of the existence of at least seven basic intelligences. He opinioned that: "It is of the utmost importance that we recognize and nurture all of the varied human intelligences, and all of the combinations of intelligences. We are all so different

largely because we all have different combinations of intelligences" (Howard Gardner, 1987 as cited in Armstrong, 2000, p.01). Later an 8th 'intelligence category' was also added to the MI list. These intelligence categories are indicated in Table 1.1 below. They are diverse and varied in nature.

Table 1.1: Gardner's Multiple (eight) Intelligences

Intelligences	**Description**
Linguistic	An ability to analyze information and create products involving oral and written language such as speeches, books, and memos.
Logical-Mathematical	An ability to develop equations and proofs, make calculations, and solve abstract problems.
Spatial	An ability to recognize and manipulate large-scale and fine-grained spatial images.
Musical	An ability to produce, remember, and make meaning of different patterns of sound.
Naturalist	An ability to identify and distinguish among different types of plants, animals, and weather formations that are found in the natural world.
Bodily-Kinesthetic	An ability to use one's own body to create products or solve problems.
Interpersonal	An ability to recognize and understand other people's moods, desires, motivations, and intentions
Intrapersonal	An ability to recognize and understand his or her own moods, desires, motivations, and intentions

Source: Davis, Christodoulou, Seider, and Gardner (2012)

Gardner argued that for example 'an individual born with a high intellectual potential in bodily-kinesthetic sphere will master the intricate steps of a ballet performance with relative ease', whereas it will take so many hours for an average person to achieve that level. Gardner's observations of individuals excelling in diverse domains such as music, athletics, politics, research, and entrepreneurship etc led to his pluralistic conception of intelligence. He had focused on research findings from evolutionary biology, neuroscience, anthropology, psychological

studies etc. in his broader characterization of intelligence in MI theory (Gardner, 1999). Gardner has not focused on the creation and interpretation of psychometric instruments for the assessment of intelligence (Gardner, 1999). MI theory has come under criticism for 'too broad definition' of intelligence from educators and psychologists (Armstrong, 2000). Another criticism is that the list of eight different intelligences represents more of personality traits, talents and abilities of individuals (Armstrong, 2000). It also lacks empirical support. MI theory is not the only theory to have a pluralistic view of intelligence. Among the other notable theories supporting a pluralistic view of intelligence are: Thorndike (1920; Thorndike, Bregman, Cobb, & Woodyard 1927) theory of intelligence as a sum of three parts (viz. abstract, mechanical, and social intelligence), Thurstone's (1938, 1941) intelligence as seven abilities, Guilford (1967; Guilford & Hoepfner (1971) conceptualizing of intelligence as four content categories , five operational categories, and six product categories, Sternberg's (1985,1990) triac theory of intelligence (viz. analytic, creative, practical), and Ceci's (1990,1996) multiple cognitive potentials (Davis et al., 2012). MI theory remains the best known of these pluralistic theories as of date. Both the sources of evidences on which Gardner relied upon, along with the enthusiasm with which MI was embraced by the scholars would have contributed to the flaws in the theory (Shearer, 2004). However MI principles have been incorporated into their mission and curriculum by many academic institutes over the world, with many books already published in many languages on the relevance of MI theory to educators (Chen, Moran, & Gardner, 2009). Perhaps the single most contribution of MI theory is to enhance the awareness among scholars and practitioners of other forms of intelligences, and to reduce their dependency on 'IQ' as the ultimate yardstick in assessing the intelligence of an individual.

The pluralistic views of intelligences contributed to the increased attention among psychologists for delimitations of human intelligence. Amidst this interest and enthusiasm, there were many psychologists experimenting on different components of intelligence, other than the established 'IQ'. McClelland's 1973 paper "Testing for Competence rather than Intelligence" (as cited in Goleman, 1998/2006) had previously challenged the IQ debate. He argued of a 'competency' based approach for career success. He referred 'competence' as a "personal trait or set of habits" leading to effective job performance (as cited in Goleman,

1998/2006, p.16). In this background, Mayer and Salovey are credited with the pioneering work on Emotional Intelligence (EI). Later, Goleman made it popular among a wider audience. However, there are two references to EI prior to the work of Mayer and Salovey. The initial and the notable one of them is Mowrer (1960, pp.307-308, as cited in Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, 2002, p.62) has then concluded that "the emotions…do not at all deserve being put into opposition with 'intelligence'…., they are, it seems, themselves a higher order of intelligence". Personal intelligences (Interpersonal and Intrapersonal) in Gardner's MI theory also have a resemblance to EI. 'A framework for an emotional intelligence, a formal definition, and suggestions about its measurement' were first elaborated in two articles published by Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey in 1990, and Salovey & Mayer in 1990 (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In mid-1990's '*Emotional Intelligence*', the best-selling book of Daniel Goleman (1995), made a huge impact, especially in creating awareness in the branch of intelligence called 'Emotional Intelligence' (EI). Interests in EI soared as Goleman (1995) famously argued EI as a better predictor than analytical intelligence of success in school, workplace, and home. It resulted in a rapid increase of research initiatives, with an improved importance and acceptance attached to EI. Before long, there were many proponents identifying EI as a potentially powerful key to success. Many attach EI with occupational success (Kleinberg, 2000; Rozell, Pettijohn, & Parker, 2002), supportive of argument to identify EI 'distinct' from other recognized components of intelligence (Ciarrochi, Chan, Caputi, & Roberts, 2001).

1.3 Research Gap

As of today, the scholarly work on EI has improved conceptually and empirically. There have been many initiatives on EI research, with numerous publications, and a plethora of executive development initiatives involving EI. However, many of them have represented little empirically oriented scholarship. There has been a great interest in the development of measures to assess the competencies involved in EI. Many of them encompass varying psychometric properties, and contain self-reported personality constructs. They have reported poor discriminant and construct validities (Davies, Stankov, and Roberts, 1998). A discrepancy that needs to be addressed is in the findings having differences in results based on the measurement of EI, i.e. an ability-based measure, or a trait-

based measure of EI (Parker et al, 2009). EI is at a developmental stage and there are arguments, which have not yet been comprehensively addressed. There are improved EI measurement tools, but they have basic disagreements in the assessment techniques. Palmer et al. (2009) indicated the importance of 'assessing EI using a multi-measurement approach, rather than simply measuring EI with a single inventory' as a future need in EI research (p.116). Gignac and Palmer et al. (2009) indicates the significance of Multitrait-Multimethod (MTMM) validity of EI measurement tools through multifarious measurements of EI. Sub constructs/domains of EI have been defined with validated assessment tools. The measurements of these EI sub constructs/domains and their implications in the world of work have very little empirically oriented scholarship. For example, the most advanced sub construct of EI is 'Managing Emotions', which belongs to the branch of 'Strategic EI' (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). However, there are limited empirical findings of the impact of this construct per se. Gignac indicates the added significance of measuring sub domains of EI multifariously emphasizing 'in the event that the sub-factors of the ability-based measure of EI were found to have correlated more strongly with the self-report based inventory congruent sub-factors, in comparison to the remaining ''heterogenous'' sub-factors' (2009, p.35). Boyatzis has identified 'cross cultural validation' among the three standout initiatives for future research and applications in EI competency research (2009). Ekermans (2009), Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2008), and Papadogiannis et al. (2009), opine the need of future cross cultural EI research. There is a research gap of empirical findings on the impact of EI sub domains in the world of work in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts using multifarious assessments. The significance (and impact) of findings is further enhanced by focusing on the most advanced sub domain of EI namely, Managing Emotions (hereinafter referred to as strategic EI).The focus on its singular impact for managerial success multifariously contributes to knowledge and practice. Study aims to fulfill the aforementioned research gap examining its impact on managerial self-efficacy and career success.

1.4 Examining impact across subcontinents

Study aims to examine the sociocultural and geographic connotations of EI domains using multifarious measurements. Two countries, situated in Southeast Asia and Central Eastern Europe, are selected for this purpose. These two

subcontinents have varying socio-cultural and geographic aspects compared to the rest of the world. The European continent (refer figure 1.2), is 'separated' in east from Asia by the Ural Mountains, the Ural River, the Caucasus Mountains, in south east by the Caspian Sea and the Black Sea. In south, the Mediterranean Sea separates Europe from the African continent and its western borders are defined by the Atlantic Ocean and to the north by the Polar Sea. The northernmost point of mainland Europe is on Cape Nordkinn peninsula in Norway. Europe's southernmost point is on the Atlantic end of the Straits of Gibraltar in Spain, and its westernmost point is at cape Cabo da Roca in Portugal (Factbook, 2013).

Figure 1.2: Political Map of Europe *(Source: Nations Online Project)*

Southeast Asia (refer fig. 1.3) is a sub region of Asia, geographically situated east of the Indian subcontinent, south of China and north of Australia, between the Indian Ocean (in west) and the Pacific Ocean (in east).

Figure 1.3: Political Map of South East Asia countries and regions *(Nations Online)*

1.41 Sri Lanka and Czech Republic: An Overview

An empirical investigation called-for two 'comparable countries' having different sociocultural and geographic templates. Czech Republic and Sri Lanka were chosen for the study. A brief description and the rationale of choosing these two countries are mentioned below.

Fig 1.4 Sri Lankan Flag (Factbook)

Sri Lanka is a developing country. It is an island state. It is located to the southwest of the Bay of Bengal and 31 km south east of the southern coast of the Indian subcontinent. Sri Lanka shares maritime borders with Maldives and India. Sri Lanka was ruled by Great Britain from 1815 and gained independence in 1948. Sri Lanka was formerly known as Ceylon by the British. In 1972, it became a

Republic of the Commonwealth in 1972, and was renamed as "Free, Sovereign and Independent Republic of Sri Lanka". In 1978, it was changed to the "Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka". The culture of Sri Lanka is over 2,500 years long.

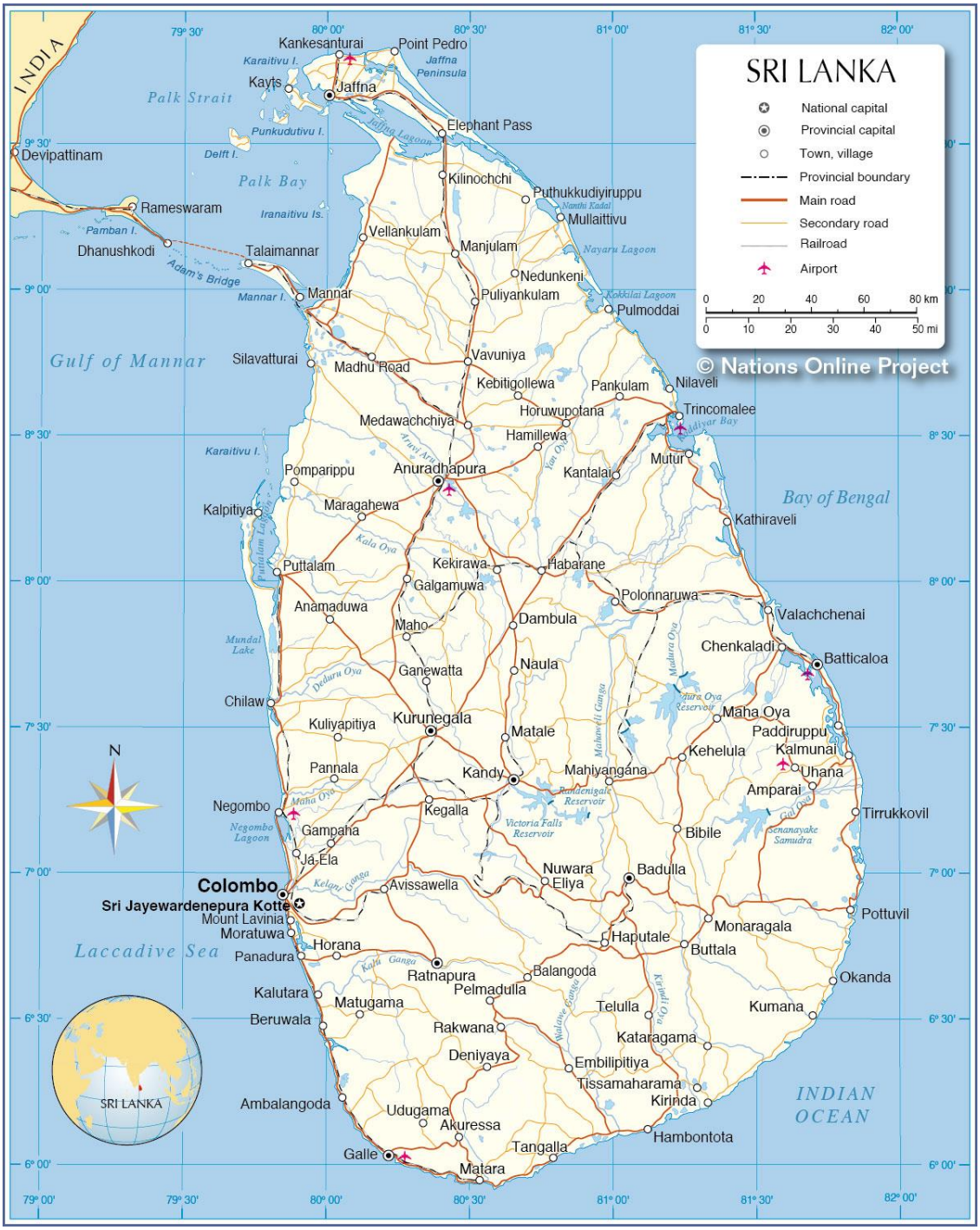


Figure 1.5: Political map of Sri Lanka
Source: Nations Online Project, 2014

Sri Lankan culture is influenced primarily by Buddhism, Hinduism and other religions. Sri Lanka is the home to two main traditional cultures: the Sinhalese and the Tamil (centred in the city of Jaffna). British colonial culture has also influenced the locals. Sinhalese constitute the largest ethnic group (74.88%) of the total population (Dept. of Census and Statistics, 2012). Sri Lanka has minority ethnic groups, and sub cultures. It claims a democratic tradition. Sri Lanka successfully overcame a three decade long civil war in 2009. Country has emerged as a fast growing economy, and a sought after tourist destination in the world. Its economy was formerly driven by a plantation based (Tea, Rubber etc.) agriculture. In 2013, major contributors to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) were services (58.1%), Industry (31.1%), and Agriculture (10.8%) sectors (Central Bank of Sri Lanka (CBSL), 2014). Global Competitiveness Report 2013-2014 of the World Economic Forum, has described Sri Lanka's economy as 'transitioning from the factor-driven stage to the efficiency-driven stage'. Central Bank of Sri Lanka (CBSL) remains optimistic of the 'growth momentum' of the economy (2014, p.5). Sri Lanka is the only South Asian country to be currently rated 'high' on the Human Development Index (Human Development Report, 2013).Country has a long history of international engagement. Sri Lanka is a founding member of SAARC and a member of the United Nations, the Commonwealth of Nations, G77, and the Non-Aligned Movement. In Fig. 1.5 is a map of the Sri Lanka indicating major cities.

Figure *1.6 Czech Republic Flag* (Source: Factbook)

Czech Republic is a land locked country situated in Central Europe, among Germany, Poland, Slovakia, and Austria. Before the World War I, it was part of the Austria-Hungary Empire. In 1918 the Czechs and Slovaks joined and formed the independent Czechoslovakian Republic. It was invaded by Germans in 1939. At the end of the World War II, Czechoslovakia was influenced by Soviet Union and became a member of the Warsaw Pact. The collapse of Soviet Authority in 1989 helped Czechoslovakia to become a sovereign state again. It was obtained through a peaceful revolution known as the 'Velvet Revolution'. On January 01, 1993, Czechoslovakia was separated into its former two national components, viz. Czech Republic, and Slovak Republic. Czech consists of the historical territories of Bohemia and Moravia, and a small part of Silesia. (Factbook, 2013)

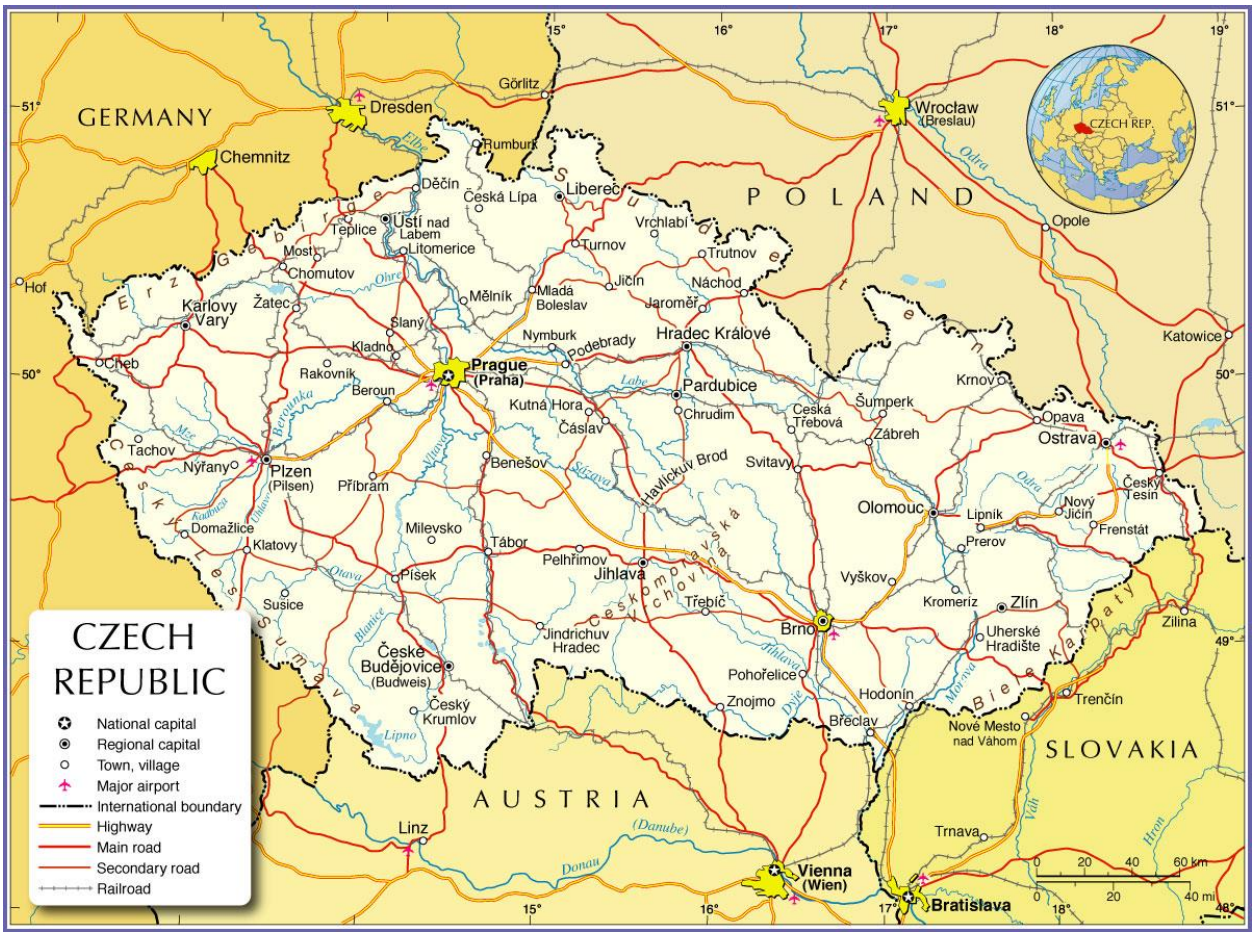


Figure 1.7: Political map of Czech Republic
Source: Nations Online Project

In 2006, Czech Republic became the first former member of Comecon to achieve the status of a developed country (Velinger, 2006). Czech has a developed and a stable market economy closely integrated with the European Union (EU) (IMF, 2014). Auto industry is leading, contributing almost a quarter of the manufacturing sector along with upstream suppliers. Czech has a healthy and a conservative financial system. The relatively small and the export-driven economy gets influenced by the economic fluctuations of its main exporters, led by Germany (Factbook, 2014). Czech National Bank (CNB) reported a GDP of USD 191B, and USD150B of goods and services of exports in 2013.Czech is among the most peaceful democracies in the world. It has a pluralistic parliamentary representative democracy. Czech is among the top nations in Human Development (Human Devt Report, 2013). It is also among the advanced category among nations over the world in many socio-demographic indices. However, the country remains less

cosmopolitan with Czechs being the largest ethnic group. There are a significant proportion of citizens, who are not followers of any religion. Czech Republic has healthy relations over the in world organisations and became a member of NATO in 1999. It obtained EU membership in 2004, and has membership in the OECD, the OSCE, the Council of Europe and the Visegrád Group etc. In Fig. 1.7 is a map of the Czech Republic indicating major cities.

Czech Republic and Sri Lanka belong to the developed and developing countries, respectively. They have many sociocultural differences. They do not share a common language, history, ethnicity, climate, or geography. The selection of these two countries has been sagacious that there are no extreme differences between them in the world's context. Nevertheless, these two nations also indicate underlying similarities. In Table 1.1 is a comparison between these two countries specifying on people, society and the related parameters. Czech is among the 'top nations' in the rankings of 'socio-demographic indices'. Their difference with Sri Lanka's 'rankings' is not significant in the context of other nations of the world. Culturally, the two countries are positioned between the 'East' and 'West' cultures. Czech remains the closer to the 'West' having definitive differences, and similarities with Sri Lanka. Here the Hofsted's cultural analysis of the two countries provides further insights. Despite being a 'developed state', Czech labour is relatively cheap (as cited in Velinger, 2006). A research of this nature needs to test the impact of the research construct in focus (here Managing Emotions) in sociocultural conditions offering differences and similarities within a comparable context. As we peruse the major sociocultural parameters of Czech Republic and Sri Lanka, the two countries present many differences, amidst some similarities, making it a 'comparable' model. The case is further supported by their geographic locations (both regional, and especially country specific) making this a 'unique' comparison for a study of this nature. The selection of these two countries has fulfilled the prerequisites to enrich the empirical findings, and enhance the contribution to knowledge and practice. Details of the samples of respondents are given in 3.2, as they need to be matched on all criteria (viz. gender, age, level of education, occupation, kind of work) that could affect the results in a comparison between two countries (Hofstedes', Minkov, Vinken, 2008).

Table1.2 Sri Lanka and Czech Republic: Facts in Brief

Parameter	SRI LANKA (LKA)	CZECH REPUBLIC (CZE)	Source
Official Name	Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka	Czech Republic	The World Factbook, 2013
Geographic Coordinates	7 00 N, 81 00 E Southern Asia: Island in the Indian ocean south of India	49 45 N, 15 30 E, Central Europe: land locked by Austria, Slovakia Poland&Germany	
Size of the Country	65,610 km² (122 compared to World)	78,867 km^2 (116 compared to World)	
Nationality	Sri Lankan	Czech	
Population	21.2 million People	10.6 million People	Human Development Report, 2013
Life expectancy at birth	75.1 years	77.8 years	
Total dependency ratio (ages 15 – 64)	50.6 %	42.9 %	
Age composition of the population (%)	0-14 years: 24.7, 15-24 years: 14.9, 25-54 years: 42.1, 55-64 years: 8.7, 65 years and over: 8.4	0-14 years: 14.9, 15-24 years: 10.6, 25-54 years: 43.6, 55-64 years: 17.5, 65 years & over: 17.6	The World Factbook, 2013
Ethnic Groups	Sinhalese: 82.0%, Tamil: 9.4%, Moor: 7.9% (2001 Census)	Czech 64.3%, Moravian 5.0%, Slovak 1.4%, Unspecified 27.5% (2011 est.)	Department of Census & Statistics, Sri Lanka (DC&S-SL), 2014
Religions	Buddhists:76.7%, Hindu 7.8%, Islam 8.5%, Christian:7.0%, (2001 Census)	Catholic(R)10.4% Protestant 1.1%, Unspecified 54% None 34.5%, (2011 est.)	The World Factbook, 2013

Parameter	Sri Lanka	Czech Republic	Source
Languages used: (ability to read and write)	Sinhala: 79.4%, Tamil: 26.5%, English: 30.5% (2012 est.)	Czech 95.4%, Slovak 1.6%, Other 3.0% (2011 Census)	DC&S-SL, World Factbook, 2013
Unemployment rate	4.4%	6.8%	CBSL, CNB
GDP (in $ billions)	102.9	252.8	Human Development Report 2013
GDP per capita ($)	4,929	23,967	
Major Industries	Processing of Tea, Rubber, Coconut & Tobacco. Telecom, Textiles, Banking & Insurance, IT, Tourism, Shipping, Construction etc.	Motor vehicles, Metallurgy, Machinery & equipment, Glass, Armaments	The World Factbook, 2013
Labour Force by occupation (as a %)	Services: 42.4, Agriculture: 31.8, Manufacture: 25.8	Services: 60.0, Manufacture:37.4, Agriculture: 2.6	
Human Development Index[*1] (HDI)	High (0.715), Global rank of 92	Very High (0.873), Global rank of 28	Human Development Report 2013
Inequality adjusted HDI[*2]	Value of 0.607, Global rank of 101	Value of 0.826, Global rank of 37	
Adult Literacy rate	91.2	Not available	
Mean years of schooling	9.3 years	12.3 years	
Population at least with secondary education	73.9%	99.8%	
Gender Inequality Index[*3]	0.402 value with a global rank of 75	0.122 value with a global rank of 20	Human Development Report 2013
Labour force (from ages 15 and over) participation rate[*4]	Males - 76.3% Females – 34.7%	Males – 49.6% Females – 68.2%	

Parameter	Sri Lanka	Czech Republic	Source
Employment to population ratio (ages 25 and over)	58.2 %	59.7 %	Human Development Report 2013
Satisfaction with job	84.7%	79.9%	
Global Competitive-ness Index[*5]	Global rank of 65	Global rank of 46	The Global Competitive-ness report 2013-2014
Basic requirements	Global rank of 77	Global rank of 55	
Efficiency Enhancers	Global rank of 69	Global rank of 37	
Innovation and Sophistication	Global rank of 42	Global rank of 36	
Prosperity Index[*6]	'Upper Middle rank' Global rank of 60	'High rank' Global rank of 29	The 2013 Legatum Prosperity Index™
Economy	Global rank of 74	Global rank of 38	
Entrepreneurship & opportunity	Global rank of 88	Global rank of 27	
Governance	Global rank of 48	Global rank of 35	
Education	Global rank of 44	Global rank of 24	
Health	Global rank of 76	Global rank of 27	
Safety & Security	Global rank of 121	Global rank of 23	
Personal freedom	Global rank of 60	Global rank of 50	
Social Capital	Global rank of 35	Global rank of 46	
Cultural dimensions			The Hofstede Centre, 2014
Power Distance	80 (Hierarchical)	57 (Hierarchical)	
Individualism	35 (Collectivist)	58 (Individualistic)	
Masculinity	10 (Feminine)	57 (Masculine)	
Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)	45 (Intermediate preference to UA)	74 (High preference to UA)	
Pragmatism	45 less Pragmatic	70 Pragmatic	
Indulgence	Not Available	29 rather Restrained	

Note *1 – HDI: A composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development—a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living.

Note *2 - Inequality adjusted HDI: HDI value adjusted for inequalities in the three basic dimensions of human development.

Note *3 - Gender Inequality Index: A composite measure reflecting inequality in achievements between women and men in three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market.

Note *4 - Labour force participation rate: Proportion of a country's working-age population that engages in the labour market, either by working or actively looking for work, expressed as a percentage of the working-age population.

Note *5 – Global Competitiveness Index: Competitive ability of a country is measured using 12 pillars, viz. Institutions, Infrastructure, Macroeconomic environment, Health and primary education, Higher education and training, Goods market efficiency, Labour market efficiency, Financial market development, Technological readiness, Market size, Business sophistication, and Innovation.

Note *6 - Prosperity Index: The Index seeks to redefine the concept of national prosperity to include, as a matter of fundamental importance, factors such as democratic governance, entrepreneurial opportunity, and social cohesion.

1.5 Research Problem

As discussed above in 1.3. It is topical to focus on the impact of strategic EI in an individual's career success and growth across cultures. The recommended standard to judge an intelligence (including EI) is to employ it as a predictor of a real life outcome (American Psychological Association (APA) Public Affairs Office, 1997). The impact of strategic EI can be examined through its causal and correlational effects to occupational self-efficacy (OSE) and career success. Mayer & Salovey (1997) identified 'Managing Emotions' as the most advanced sub construct of EI. Goleman classified 'managing one's emotions and handling encounters well' as highly significant competencies of EI (1998/2006), and as the basis for self-mastery (Goleman, 2011a). Examining the impact of strategic EI (Managing Emotions per se.) in cross cultural environments (viz. Czech and Sri Lankan), using a selectively multifarious criterion, fills a hitherto unfulfilled area. Study has examined beyond the controlling variables (socio-demographics), and

routine antecedents. The relatedness with a combination of factors has been focused. They are age, gender, career experience, education level, marital status, citizenship performance behaviour (CPB), transformational leadership (TFL), affective organizational commitment(AOC), relationship with immediate superior (RIS), and job stability as a career anchors etc. Using multifarious EI measurements, study attempts to investigate on the issue of *"What is the impact of strategic EI (managing emotions) on managerial self-efficacy, and career success in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?"*

1.6 Key Research Questions

Study poses the following research questions.

- What are the major features, and implications in the multifarious assessment outputs of Strategic EI among comparable groups?

- What are the major features, and implications in the assessment outputs of Strategic EI in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts among comparable groups?

- What are the major associations of socio-demographic factors with Strategic EI of comparable groups in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts?

- What is the relationship between Strategic EI and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- What is the relationship between multifarious Strategic EI measurements and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- What is the relationship between Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- What is the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- What is the relationship between Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- What is the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- What is the relationship between Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- What is the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- Is there a moderating effect of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- Is there a moderating effect of multifarious measurements of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- Is there a mediating effect of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

- Is there a mediating effect of multifarious measurements of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts?

1.7 Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to contribute to theory and practice by examining the impact of Strategic EI (Managing Emotions per se) to OSE and career success of managers in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts using multifarious

measurements. Research has examined the above in 'comparable contexts' (i.e. Czech and Sri Lankan bank managers). This study aims to achieve the following specific objectives:

1.7.1 To examine the features, and implications in the multifarious assessment outputs of Strategic EI among comparable groups, i.e. bank managers.

1.7.2 To examine the major features, and implications in the assessment outputs of Strategic EI in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts among comparable groups

1.7.3 To analyse the major associations of socio-demographic factors with Strategic EI of comparable groups in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts?

1.7.4 To analyse the relationship between Strategic EI and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts

1.7.5 To analyse the relationship between multifarious Strategic EI measurements and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts

1.7.6 To analyse the relationship between Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

1.7.7 To analyse the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

1.7.8 To analyse the relationship between Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

1.7.9 To analyse the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

1.7.10 To analyse the relationship between Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

1.7.11 To analyse the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

1.7.12 To examine whether there is a moderating effect of Strategic EI to career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts and to analyse it.

1.7.13 To examine whether there is a moderating effect of multifarious measurements of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts and to analyse it.

1.7.14 To examine whether there is mediating effect of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts and to analyse it.

1.7.15 To examine whether there is a mediating effect of multifarious measurements of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts and to analyse it.

Note: The antecedents included the following variables, viz. Job safety & security (stability) as a career anchor, transformational leadership style, CPB, relationship with immediate superior, and affective organisational attachment from the perspective of the respondent.

1.8 Synopsis of the Thesis

Thesis has been organized into seven chapters, namely: 1) Introduction 2) Literature Review, 3) Research model and Hypotheses, 4) Methodology, 5) Analysis and Results, and 6) Contributions to Theory and Practice. First chapter gives an overview of the study. It briefly describes the background and context of the study. It has specified on the research gap, context of the study, research problem, key research questions, and objectives of the study. Second chapter discusses the theoretical and empirical literature. It has elaborated on the concepts and practices of key variables, further rationalizing the content, and depth of the study. The extensive and comprehensive literature review is an attempt to further validate and bridge the theoretical background of the study with empirical findings.

Third chapter presents the logical relationship of the main constructs of the study based on the literature review in Chapter Two. The definitions of the main variables and hypotheses of the study have been further discussed in order to demonstrate the relationship among the main constructs of the research framework. A detailed discussion of the research approach and methodology is provided in Chapter Four. It explains the rationale behind selecting research methods, context and sample in detail. The main measurement instruments have been explained along statistical techniques and tools used in data analysis. Chapter five presents the analysis of data and discussion of the results. It also explains the data analysis procedure, testing assumptions for normality and descriptive statistics respectively. Factor analysis and inferential procedure have been described with reference to testing the hypotheses of the study. Chapter six presents the contribution of the study to science and practice. It specifies the theoretical perspectives and practical aspects. This chapter has indicated major limitations and future research directions.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter gives an overview of the concept of EI. The theoretical approaches (models), measurements, and applications of EI are discussed. It is followed by an overview of career success and OSE concepts. At the end is a discussion of socio-demographic factors and antecedents, namely Job stability (as an anchor), citizenship performance, transformational leadership, relationship with immediate superior and affective organizational commitment.

2.1 The Construct of Emotional Intelligence

Scientific references of EI date to the 1960s. A German psychologist in his psychotherapy treatments identified the dissatisfaction of stay-at-home mothers as a deficit in EI (Leuner 1966). Occasional references of the concept have appeared thereafter (Payne 1986). The renewed openness in MI theory has also followed (Gardner 1993). First scientific articles on EI have been published surrounding this interest (Mayer et al 1990, Salovey & Mayer 1990). The interest in exploring EI concept grew dramatically by a popularization of the topic through Goleman's best-selling book, '*Emotional Intelligence*' in 1995. Goleman mentions the euphoria his writings generated on the importance of EI concept as follows: "I found myself on a global odyssey, talking to thousands of people, from CEO's to secretaries, about what it means to bring emotional intelligence to work" (1998/2006, p4). His book has exposed the 'business costs of emotional ineptitude'. Goleman was quite critical of the widely embraced 'IQ mystique', which suggested that what matters for success is intellect alone. Goleman famously argued that "IQ takes second position to emotional intelligence in determining outstanding job performance" (1998/2006, p5). The aforementioned vignette of Daniel Goleman is an indication of the great interest and attention generated on EI during the late 1990's. The excitement surrounding the identification of a new intelligence prompted many enthusiasts to use the term. But more often it happened in markedly different ways (Bar-On 1997, Elias et al 1997, Goleman 1995, Mayer & Salovey 1993, Picard 1997). It is pertinent to examine the conceptualization of EI and its existence in the context of human anatomy.

2.1.1 Conceptualization and Development of EI Theory

EI is a scientific concept that is parallel to other terms such as verbal-comprehension intelligence or broad-visualization intelligence etc. (Carroll 1993). Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined EI as *'the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth'*. Intelligence is a type of mental ability pertaining to the handling and reasoning of different information (Carrol, 1993). There are differences in the interpretation of intelligence. There are also alternative views of emotion (Averill & Nunley, 1993). Two main theoretical approaches exist in assessing emotional intelligence (Papadogiannis, Logan, & Sitarenios, 2009). One approach is known as the ability model ('cognitive-emotional ability') framework. It views EI as a traditional intelligence and comprises of a set of skills that combines emotions with cognition (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008). The Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002) is the pre-eminent ability measure of EI (Papadogiannis et al., 2009). The other approach is known as the mixed-model framework comprising of self-report instruments that measure a combination of cognitive, personality and affective attributes (Matthews et al 2004, Mayer et al 2000, McCrae 2000, Neubauer & Freudenthaler 2005, Papadogiannis et al., 2009). Instruments that subscribe to this framework includes; Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997), Trait Emotional Intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue; Petrides, 2009), Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSREIT; Schutte et al., 1998) Self-related Emotional Intelligence Scale (SREIS: Brackett, Rivers, Lerner, Salovey, & Shiffman, 2006), and Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI; Sala, 2002) etc. Boyatziz (2009) suggested a further division to the mix models framework. He reclassified them as internal and behavioural. Those three categories (along with the EI ability model framework) can be identified in the comparison of major theoretical approaches of EI as depicted in table 2.1. However, researchers (Petrides and Furnham, 2003; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki , 2007; Papadogiannis et al., 2009) have conceptually distinguished the mixed model framework (mainly trait EI; trait emotional self-efficacy) and ability EI model (cognitive-emotional ability), as the major theoretical approaches of EI. There are differences of opinions about the measurement methods based on above EI approaches.

Table 2.1: Major theories (and measures) of EI

Theoretical basis	Authors	Measurement distinctions
Ability	Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso	MSCEIT – direct performance assessment of emotional processing, & scenario testing; consensus & expert scoring models (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002, Salovey & Mayer, 1997)
	Shutte et al.	Self-report measure based on MSCEIT model (Schutte et al., 1998)
	Brackett et al.	Self-report measure based on MSCEIT model (Brackett et al., 2006)
Behavioural*	Boyatziz & Goleman	ESCI-360, functional approach inductively derived from effective performance, called competencies (outcome-oriented & realistic) (Boyatzis & Goleman, 1996; Wolff, 2008)
	Bar-On	EQ-i: 360, originally a self-report, 360 was introduced in 1997(Bar-On, 1997)
	Dulewicz et al.	EIQ, 360 of competencies (Dulewicz et al., 2003)
	Bradbury	EQA, a 360 skill assessment modeled after Goleman & Boyatzis model (Bradbury & Su, 2006)
Internal (self) perception*	Bar-On	EQ-i, originally a self-report, internally process driven model (more behavioral in its 360 form (Bar-On, 1997)
	Petrides & Furnham	TEIQue, a self-assessment of trait EI based on a content analysis of major models (Petrides & Funham, 2003, Petride, 2009)
	Genos (Gignac)	Genos EI Inventory, a self-assessment of EI behavior based on work place (Gignac, 2010)
	Shutte et al.	Self-report measure based on MSCEIT model (Schutte et al., 1998)
	Brackett et al.	Self-report measure based on MSCEIT model (Brackett et al., 2006)
	Wong & Law	WLEIS, a self-assessment based on the MSCEIT model (Law et al., 2004)

Note: * indicates mixed model approach

Source: Based on the classification in Boyatzis, 2009, p.756

Ability tests focus 'actual emotion-related cognitive abilities (referring to maximum-performance) and, therefore, ought to be measured by performance tests' whereas, 'trait EI encompasses affect related behavioural tendencies and self-perceived abilities', which are 'supposed to be best measured through self-report' (Freudenthaler, 2009, p.5). Cognitive emotional ability measure has been de-merited, specifically for assessing emotional knowledge rather than the actual emotional abilities that capture what individuals are capable of doing (Brody, 2004; Wilhelm, 2005; Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2007; Mikolajczak et al. 2008). Whereas, self-report trait EI measures aim to capture how much of this EI potential translates into practice (Petrides & Furnham, 2003; Freudenthaler, 2009). Self-report measures have been de-merited for the influence of an individual's self-concept to the accuracy of EI measurement outcome (e.g., Brackett et al., 2006, Mayer et al., 2000; Matthews et al., 2004).

2.1.2 Ability model framework of EI

EI ability model framework: (cognitive-emotional ability). This approach views EI as a set of cognitive-emotional abilities best measured by maximum performance tests or problems. Mayer et al. (1999) identified three standards inherent in 'intelligence'. They are:

i.) It should reflect a 'mental performance rather than preferred ways of behaving' (p.269-270)

ii.) Tests of it should show positive correlation with other forms of intelligence

iii.) The measures should increase with experience and age

Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade (2007) view intelligence as a general term that refers to a hierarchy of mental abilities. Basic and discrete, mental abilities are at the lowest level of this hierarchy. Broader, cohesive, groups of abilities are at the middle level and the highest hierarchy level involves abstract reasoning across domains (Mayer et al., 2007). Further they view 'emotion' as a state of integrated feeling involving physiological changes, motor preparedness, cognitions about action and inner experiences (Mayer et al., 2007). Mayer et al. (2007) opine the necessity to focus on the ability of EI in exploring it. They view EI representing abilities that 'join intelligence and emotion' to enhance thought. Thereby the primary focus of EI is to reason about emotions and to use emotions to enhance thought. Further, EI ability

model can be differentiated into two based on the focus on specific abilities (focus on a particular skill that is fundamental to EI) or based on the integrative approach (consisting of all the specific EI skills) identifying EI as a cohesive, global ability (Mayer et al., 2007). The key element in integrative models (of EI) is the joining together of several specific abilities so as to obtain an overall sense of emotional intelligence. There are fewer established EI ability models (MSCEIT, Izard's Emotional Knowledge Test ((Izard et al 2001) etc. compared to the trait models.

The four-branch model of EI (Mayer & Salovey 1997; Salovey & Mayer 1990) is the most established ability (and integrative) EI approach. It views overall EI as joining abilities from four areas: accurately (a) perceiving emotion (b) using emotions to facilitate thought, (c) understanding emotion and (d) managing emotion (Mayer & Salovey 1997; Mayer et al. 2003). For example, in perceiving emotion, a person's ability to recognize basic emotions in faces is likely to precede the ability to detect the faking of emotional expressions (Mayer & Salovey 1997, p. 10). As skills grow in one area (i.e., perceiving emotions), skills in other areas, (i.e. understanding emotions) grows. The four-branch model has been measured by a series of instruments; the established of all has been the MSCEIT of Mayer et al. (2002). It is the successor to Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS; Mayer et al., 1999).

Table 2.2: Four-branch EI model of Mayer and Salovey

Branch name	Brief description of skills involved
Perceiving Emotions (Branch 1)	The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others (as well as in objects, art stories, music, and other stimuli).
Facilitating Thought (Branch 2)	The ability to generate, use, and feel emotion as necessary to communicate feelings or employ them in other cognitive processes.
Understanding Emotions (Branch 3)	The ability to understand emotional information, how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions, and to appreciate such emotional meanings.
Managing Emotions (Branch 4)	The ability to be open to feelings, and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth.

Source: MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002/2012, p.7

MSCEIT Version 2.0 (hereinafter referred to as MSCEIT) has 144 items, which is composed of eight individual tasks, and two tasks are used to measure each branch of the model as depicted in table 2.2. Emotional perception is measured for example, by asking participants to identify emotions in faces (e.g. figure 2.1) and landscapes. Emotional facilitation is assessed, in one subscale, by asking participants to identify which emotions promote which kinds of thoughts and activities. Emotional understanding is measured via understanding how emotions blend together (e.g. 'Which two emotions together are closest to contempt? a.) sadness and fear, b.) anger and disgust, etc.). Emotional management is measured by presenting test-takers with vignettes describing the social situation and asking them how emotions might be managed in those situations (Mayer et al 2002).

Figure 2.1: Illustrations of faces displaying different emotions
Source: Anonymous

MSCEIT initially experimented with three different criteria, viz. target, expert, and consensus, to determine the 'correct' answer to questions coming under each task level in respective branches (refer table 2.3). MSCEIT avails the two criteria's of expert and consensus (general) for users (Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, 2002). Expert criterion: experts on emotions i.e. psychotherapists read the test items and provide answers. The extent to which test taker's answers match the experts' they would be scored as correct. Consensus (general) criterion involves norming the test based on the large, heterogeneous sample of test takers. Test taker receives credit for endorsing 'right' answers matching the larger group (Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, 2002). There is a debate about the merits of expert and

consensus criteria. Initially 'consensus criterion' was recommended over the 'expert criterion' (MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002, p.33). However, empirical findings have proved 'expert criterion' to be more reliable than 'consensus criterion' (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003). Further, the use of 'expert criterion' has a better justification in the interpretation of outcome (David Caruso, co-author of MSCEIT, personal communication, June 11, 2014).

Table 2.3: Structure and levels of MSCEIT (Version 2.0)

Overall scale	Two Areas of the MSCEIT	Four Branches of the MSCEIT	Task Level	
Emotional Intelligence	Experiential Emotional Intelligence (EEIQ)	Perceiving Emotions (PEIQ)	Faces	(Section A)
			Pictures	(Section E)
		Facilitating Thought (FEIQ)	Facilitation	(Section B)
			Sensations	(Section F)
	Strategic Emotional Intelligence (SEIQ)	Understanding Emotions (UEIQ)	Changes	(Section C)
			Blends	(Section G)
		Managing Emotions (MEIQ)	Emotional Management	(Section D)
			Emotional Relations	(Section H)

Source: MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002/2012, p.8

A common (and perennial) criticism about the MSCEIT ability EI model is the logic of scoring, specially the mechanism of selecting the 'correct' answer of respondents feeling of emotional situations. Petride in particular, has gone to the extent of mentioning that MSCEIT scores are 'psychologically invalid' and 'counterproductive' to incorporate in further analyses like correlations, and factor analysis (2009, p.86). MSCEIT is merited with handling socially desirable responding issues (Mayer, et al, 2000). Palmer is of the view that the maximum performance approach results reflect more of individual differences in emotional knowledge, rather than EI (2007).

2.1.3 Mixed model framework of EI

The family of concepts of EI mixed models is larger than the family of mental ability model. Mixed models are also a member of a family of concepts like that of the mental ability model (Goleman 1995, Roberts, 1998). Mixed models framework focuses on a combination of cognitive, personality and affective attributes (Papadogiannis, 2009). These models encompass broader definitions of EI that include 'non-cognitive capability, competency, or skill' (Bar-On 1997). They also accommodate behaviours that are seen 'emotionally and socially intelligent' as components of the model (Bar-On 2004). Mixed models include 'dispositions from the personality domain' (Petrides & Furnham 2003, p. 278-280). Most measures in this category assess primary EI attributes such as *accurate emotional perception*, in combination with broader scales that are related to EI. Mayer et al.(2007) cites instances of incorporating broader EI related characteristics in mixed models for example, '*happiness*, *stress tolerance*, and *self-regard* (Bar-On 1997), *adaptability*, *(low) impulsiveness* and *social competence* (Boyatzis & Sala 2004, Petrides & Furnham 2001) etc. These broad scales have the advantage of predictive ability, but lack the primary focus on EI.

Among the three pioneering (and competing) EI models there are two mixed models along with the Mayer and Salovey's (1990, 1997) ability EI model. Goleman's (1995) model consists of five broad areas, namely; a.) knowing one's emotions, b.) managing emotions, c.) motivating oneself, d.) recognizing emotions in others, and e.) handling relationships (Goleman, 1995). His list of specific attributes under each category was fairly extensive. Goleman's claims of EI's ability to predict life's success (1995, p.36) are rather controversial. Bar-On's (1997) EI model consists of personality characteristics related to life's success. Bar-on has identified five broad areas, namely; a.) intrapersonal skills, b.) interpersonal skills, c.) adaptability, d.) stress management, and e.) general mood. Unlike Goleman, Bar-on has been cautious in his claims (of life's success) of EI model. Further, his Emotional Quotient inventory limits predicting only of the 'potential to succeed' rather than 'success itself' (Mayer et al., 2000). There have been notable developments and improved mixed EI models, with recent claims (Boyatzis, 2009, Petride, 2009) of superiority over the Ability model/s. Mixed

models can be sub divided as EI trait models and EI competency models based on their usage in practice (refer table 2.1).

a.) EI as a trait (trait emotional self-efficacy): The theory of trait emotional intelligence demonstrates how the various ‘‘EI’’ models, meaningfully refer to established personality traits (Petrides, Furnham et al., 2007). These are primarily self-report measures examining the trait emotional intelligence or self-efficacy of the respondents.

Table: 2.4 Bar-On model of Emotional Intelligence

Major Areas of skills	Specific skills
Intrapersonal skills	Emotional self-awareness
	Assertiveness
	Self-Regard
	Self-Actualization
	Independence
Interpersonal skills	Interpersonal relationships
	Social responsibility
	Empathy
Adaptability scales	Problem solving
	Reality testing
	Flexibility
Stress management scales	Stress tolerance
	Impulse
	Control
General mood	Happiness
	Optimism

Source: Bar-On, 1997

Bar-On defined that EI consists of ‘an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in copying with environmental demands and pressures’ (1997, p.14). His EI model (refer table 2.4) indicates a broader spectrum of skills that have been organized into five major areas of skills. The trait emotional intelligence model (TEIQue) has extended EI

related ideas in a framework incorporating 15 specific facets (Petrides, 2009). They are: Adaptability, Emotion control, Low impulsiveness, Self-motivation, Trait empathy, Assertiveness, Emotion expression, Relationships, Social awareness, Trait happiness, Emotion appraisal (self and others), Emotion management (others), Self-esteem, Stress management, and Trait optimism (Petrides, 2009). Trait intelligences or trait self-efficacies emphasizes integrating faux intelligences, social-cognitive and self-concepts into mainstream personality hierarchies (Petrides, 2009). Self-report questionnaires of EI have to deal with the issue of socially desirable responding (Paulhus, 2002). Self-report measures present partial measures of trait EI that share large amounts of variance. This is viewed as an advantage of trait EI theory that can provide 'a context for the interpretation of the results' (Petride, 2009, p.87). Petrides further argues that 'results can be linked to mainstream differential psychology research' only through the trait EI theory perspective (2009, p.87). A notable contrast with the ability EI model is the expansion of the framework beyond the core EI by incorporating related areas.

b.) EI as a competence

Boyatziz and Saha (2004) have interpreted of a five point criteria that has to be inherent in 'intelligence'. They are;

i.) It should be behaviourally observable

ii.) It should be related to a biological functioning, especially involving neural-endocrine functioning.

iii.) It should be related to a real life (eg. Job) outcome.

iv.) It should be sufficiently different from other related personality constructs of human behaviour

v.) The measures of the concept should possess sound convergent and discriminant validity as a psychological construct.

Above interpretation of intelligence has only a partial similarity with that of Mayer et al. (1999). The 3rd criterion of Mayer et al.s' interpretation agrees with the last three criteria of Boyatzis & Saha's (2004) interpretation. However, the other criteria differ as Boyatzis & Saha have approached EI as a competency intended to measure the impact on life's outcomes. This approach is in agreement with Goleman's EI competency framework, which is depicted in figure 2.2 below.

Figure 2.2: The competency framework

Source: Leadership:The power of EI (Goleman, 2011b)

Goleman has organized his recent competency framework into four major domains, viz. self-awareness, self-management, Social awareness, and relationship management. He has further expanded the 'Emotional competency inventory' (Boyatzis & Goleman, 1996) by incorporating a 'Social' component to the 'competency framework'. The 360 degree assessment of this model is named as 'Emotional and Social Competency Inventory' (ESCI) (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2007). The focus has shared between emotional and social competencies, resulting further reduction of primary focus on EI. There are many criticisms to this competency model due to the lack of consensus on the interpretation of 'intelligence'. An additional component on Cognitive intelligence competencies (consisting of Systems thinking, and Pattern recognition) has been added to the special version of ESCI, named as ESCI-University version (Boyatzis, 2009).

2.1.4 The Anatomy of Emotional Intelligence

The brain is identified as the most complex living organ in human body. Researchers suggest that human brain consists up to a trillion nerve cells, coordinating the physical actions and mental processes. Brain is the controlling centre that regulates every aspect of human behavior. The United States Brain Injury Resource Center (BIRC) elaborates that brain has many parts including the cerebral cortex, brain stem and cerebellum (1998). Brain plays the main role in an individual experiencing everything about him/herself and the environment (BRIC, 1998). Further, it has been described as the "three pound universe" (BRIC, 1998). Brain is thought to "house the seat of the self, the place where the sense of self resides" (BRIC, 1998, Brain map). Through many research including patients who have brain injuries, it has been found that there are specific areas in the brain to deal with emotions. BIRC has identified '*Frontal Lobes*' of the human brain to regulate 'emotional response and stability', and the '*Cerebellum*' to regulate human 'perception, discrimination and emotional response' (BIRC, 1998).

Above findings draw an important relationship with Gardner's MI theory. Gardner argued that each intelligence category carries a 'distinct set of capacities'. Further, he added that each of these intelligences has a 'unique underlying set of brain areas' to govern and regulate the specific intelligence (Goleman, 2011a). Reuven Bar-on worked with a brain research group at the university of Iowa medical school. They have used neuropsychology to identify the brain areas for specific behaviours and mental functions: lesion studies, using patients having brain injuries. They have identified brain areas specific for emotional abilities, which were similar to the BIRC findings mentioned above (Bar-On, 2003). Similar studies conducted on mapping the human brain areas have also confirmed that EI is associated with distinct brain areas (Takeuchi et al, 2011; Takeuchi et al, 2013). These findings are in proof of that EI is governed by unique brain areas and that EI is distinguishable from IQ and other personality traits (Goleman, 2011a).

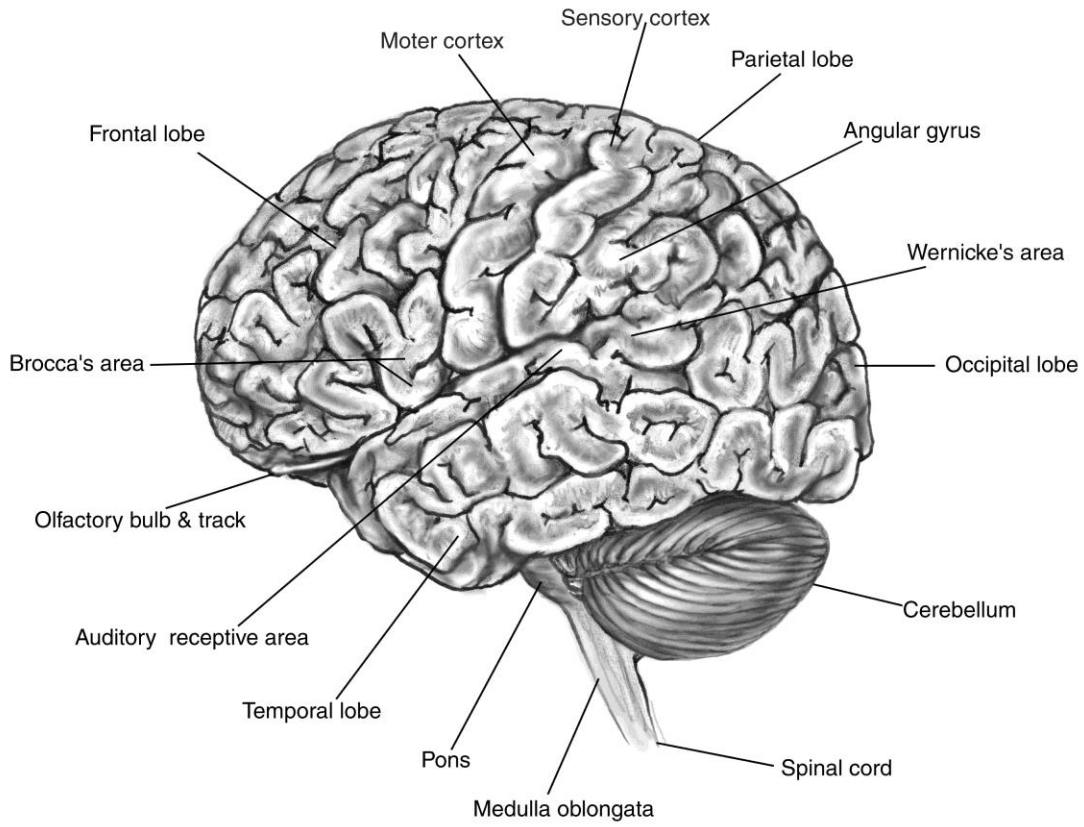


Figure 2.3: Map of the Human Brain
Source: McKenzie Illustrations, Brain Injury Resource Center, 1998

Figures 2.1 and 2.2 illustrate the main areas in a human brain, and a cross section of it respectively. The right '*Amygdala*' (situated in the right brain hemisphere) has a neural hub located in the midbrain regulating emotions (Goleman, 2011a). Bar-On's study in 2003, also reported the regulation of emotional self-awareness by the right '*Amygdala*'. The right '*Somatosensory Cortex*' regulates self-awareness, and empathy (Goleman, 2011a). '*Insula*', the node for brain circuitry sensing the overall bodily state, is located in the right hemisphere and regulates empathy (Goleman, 2011a). '*Anterior Cingulate*' is located at the front of brain fibres surrounding the '*Corpus callosum*'. '*Anterior Cingulate*' manages impulse control of a person (Goleman, 2011a). '*Ventral medial strip*' is located in the *prefrontal cortex*, and regulates problem solving, managing of impulses, feelings expression, and relationships with others (Goleman, 2011a). *Cortical* and *Subcortical* areas of human brain further regulate

emotions. The '*Neocortex*' is responsible for complex mental operations. It includes cognition as well (Goleman, 2011a).

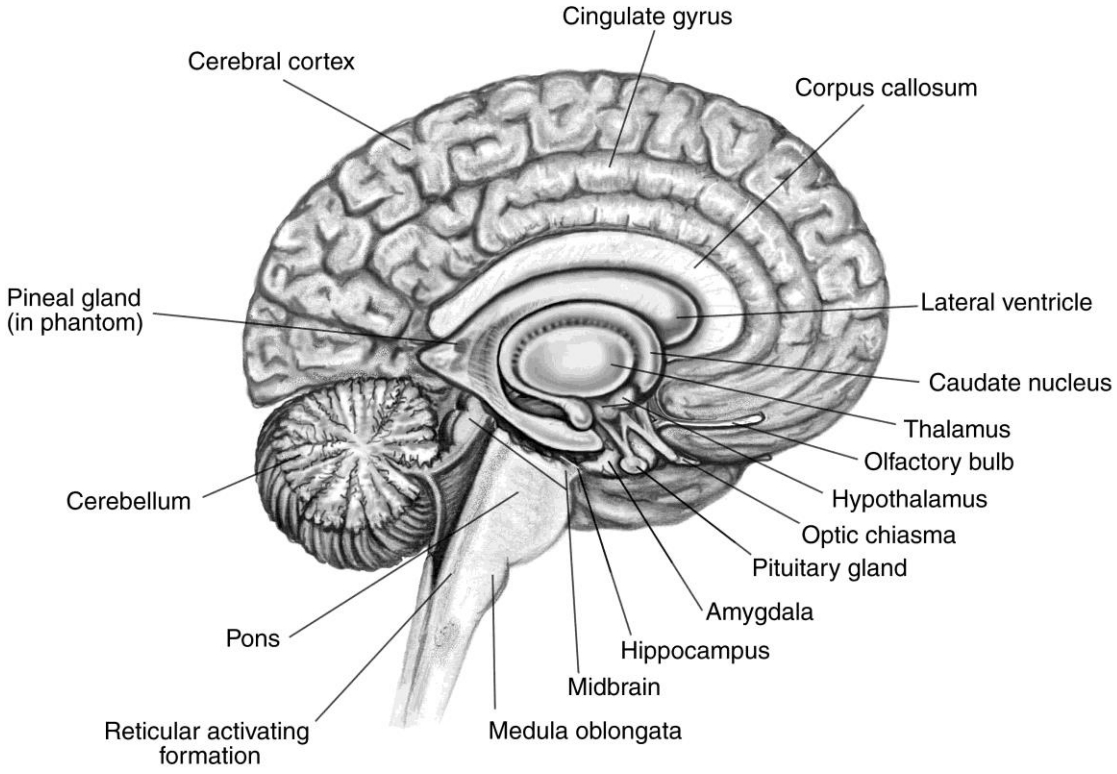


Figure 2.4: A Cross Section of Human Brain
Source: McKenzie Illustrations, BIRC, 1998

The '*subcortical*' areas deal with basic mental processes (Takeuchi et al, 2011; Takeuchi et al, 2013). There are many scientific evidences of the human anatomy relating to the existence of specific and specialized brain areas to regulate EI. Handling of emotions can lead to positive or negative outcomes. They are inherently related to the anatomy and functioning of brain. Goleman (2001a) gives the following example. In that, the '*prefrontal cortex*' is the key neural area for self-regulation that guides people when they perform at their best. The '*dorsolateral zone*' of the '*prefrontal area*' regulates attention, cognitive control, reasoning, decision making, voluntary action and response flexibility. Conversely, '*amygdala*' is a trigger point for emotional distress, fear and anger, and can lead to regretful actions. There are empirical findings to support the impact of brain injury

related to deprivation of emotional behaviours of people from many walks of life (BIRC, 1998; Goleman, 2011a). Sociopaths are reportedly having deficits in brain areas especially in "the *anterior cingulate*, the *orbitofrontal cortex*, the *amygdala* and *insula*, and in the connectivity of these regions" (Goleman, 2011a, p67). Human brain consists of circuitry involving emotional centres, which contribute to superior performance and excellence at work such as self-mastery. Research in the anatomy of human brain has strongly established the existence of EI with numerous supportive evidences. These findings have scientifically validated the existence of EI, as a distinct human faculty.

2.2 Career Success and OSE

Career development of employees has been linked to their self-efficacy, as a positive indicator of career success.

2.2.1 Occupational Self Efficacy

Bandura (1977 defined Self Efficacy as the "conviction that one can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce certain outcomes" (p.193). He elaborated self-efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura 1986, p. 391). Individuals hold self-beliefs that allow them to apply self-control over who they are, and what they want to be. Self-awareness and self-management are the basis for self-mastery. Awareness and management of an individual's internal states leads to outstanding performances. Emotional self-management leads to competences of focused drive to achieve goals, taking initiatives, and developing adaptability (Goleman, 2011a). In the human brain self-regulation of emotion is regulated by the interaction between the '*prefrontal cortex*' and the emotional centres in the midbrain, especially circuitry converging on the '*Amygdala*' (Goleman, 2011a). "The interaction between these two neural areas creates a neural highway that, when in balance, is the basis for self-mastery" (Goleman, 2011a, p.30).

Occupational Self Efficacy (OSE) reflects the conviction or the confidence of a person's ability to fulfill his or her job related behaviour at a perfectly

acceptable level to the employer. However, OSE has shown to be less stable in comparison to overall self-efficacy. This is due to the fact that OSE might be influenced by the previous experience.Self-efficacy has been shown to directly relate to job performance (Judge, and Bono, 2001; Stajkovic, and Luthans, 1998). The necessity of a specific, and a sufficiently broad instrument was addressed by the concept of OSE, dealing with self-efficacy as a domain-specific assessment (Rigotti, Schyns & Mohr, 2008, p. 239). Schyns and von Collani (2002, p.221) have indicated that OSE is also broad enough to allow comparison between different types of jobs or professions. This qualifies it as an effective tool for investigations in the context of work and organisations. Schyns and von Collani (2002, p.238) observed a positive correlation between OSE and job satisfaction, as well as organisational commitment. Rigotti et al. (2008, p.251) in a study involving five European countries found positive correlations among OSE, job satisfaction, and job performance. Abele and Spurk (2009, p.59) found that OSE measured at the career entry level of a person had a positive impact on his/her salary and job status three years later. When examined after seven years from the career entry level of a person, there was a positive relationship of his/her OSE with salary change and career satisfaction. This indicates that the level of OSE before entering the labour market might be important for the career development of professionals. As a result the relationship between OSE and preparedness for change can be considered in the context of organizational change processes. Self-efficacy had positively influenced adaptation to change as a positive predictor of self-initiated change in organisations (Armenakis et al., 2000, 650). Self-efficacy is quite relevant in the organizational context as it is related to performance (Judge and Bono, 2001, p.86). It has been found that people with a higher sense of self-efficacy persist longer in the face of obstacles and set themselves more challenging goals. Researchers (Heckett and Betz, 1981, p.335; Osipow et al, 1993, p.18) have found significant differences of behavioural and response patterns in OSE between men and women. Ridgeway (1997, p.230) has found a lack of involvement of women in decision-making, especially in critical areas to reflect a more subtle and covert form of gender discrimination prevalent in the western society. In a study conducted by Gupta and Sawhney (2010) among the private and public sector executives in India, it was found that “private sector males had a higher OSE over females and public sector executives”(p.21).

Two kinds of relationships between transformational leadership and self-efficacy are discussed in leadership literature and research. Schyns (2001) has suggested of self-efficacy as a precondition for employees to be able to embrace transformational leadership. However, some others (Shamir, House, and Arthur, 1993; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996) have asserted that transformational leaders influence their subordinates' self-efficacy. Schyns (2001) examined the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and occupational self-efficacy. Results indicated a positive relationship between transformational leadership and OSE. She had dual interpretations: 'Self-efficacy could be a precondition for the perception of transformational leadership, and transformational leaders might enhance their followers' self-efficacy'. Houses and Shamir (1993) were of the opinion that leaders with transformational style increase the self-efficacy of followers by expressing their confidence towards them. It is found to have different effects on self-efficacy depending on the organizational climate. Schyns (2001) found a positive effect between transformational leadership and self-efficacy. Thus, transformational leaders had enhanced the self-efficacy of employees in conducive organizational climates. Bandura (1977) identified mastery (experience) as a factor influencing self-efficacy. The positive correlation between task demands and occupational self-efficacy (Schyns, 2001) confirms the above theory. Herein the task demands had played a dominant role than leadership for occupational self-efficacy. Further, Schyns tested the moderating effects of task and climate to the relationship between the transformational leadership and occupational self-efficacy. Results indicated that the effect of transformational leadership on self-efficacy is negative for low task demands. Schyns (2001) interpreted that this finding suggests that transformational leadership 'might be asking too much of employees' in the case of low task demands. This may pose more of a 'threat' than a 'challenge' resulting in the diminishing of employee self-efficacy. Schyns and Sanders (2005, pp. 520) found that the relationship between self-rated transformational leadership and self-efficacy is lower for women.

2.2.2 Career Success

In the post industrial revolution era, growth in the manufacturing and finance sectors resulted in the emergence of the organizational career. Jobs became more structured and roles became more defined in organizations (Bridges, 1994). With

employment contracts becoming longer term, employees were more focused on developing their careers. Employees, who are focused on investing and enhancing their worth, increase opportunities of rewards, managerial advancements, and career growth (Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999). The term 'career' is broadly applied and is commonly considered to be the lifelong sequence of role-related experiences of individuals (Hall, 2002). Researches have defined 'career' from different points of view. Greenhaus (1987) describes career as a series of jobs held during an individual's lifetime. Hall (2002) describes career as an identification with and involvement in one's profession. It can be viewed as an approach for individuals to obtain the achievement and power (Lau & Shaffer, 1999). The evolution of research related to career theory has seen a major transformation in the definition of career success itself, from objective focus to subjective interpretation of career success (Heslin, 2005). Career success has been defined as 'the accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes resulting from one's work experiences' (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001, p.20). It is viewed as a series of 'positive psychological or work-related achievements' resulting from career experiences throughout a person's life (Melamed, 1995, Judge, 1994, and Tharenou, Latimer, and Conroy, 1994,). Jaskolka, Beyer, and Trice (1985, p.190) opinioned that career success is 'a value judgment' and that whether a career is considered successful depends on the 'objectivity of the assessment'. Career success is of concern both to individuals, and organizations as the employees' success ultimately contributes to organizational success (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, and Barrick, 1999). Researchers continue to examine the factors that facilitate employees' career success (Thomas et al., 2005; Boudreau, Boswell, and Judge, 2001; Seibert and Kraimer, 2001; Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999).

Numerous measures have been utilized to examine a person's career success. They include the more objective 'extrinsic career success' and the subjective 'intrinsic career success' (Judge et al., 1995). Importance of subjective career success dates back at least to Thorndike's (1934) recognition of job satisfaction as an important component of career success (Heslin, 2005). Subjective career success has been related to 'an individual's reactions to his or her unfolding career experiences' (Hughes, 1937, 1958 as cited in Heslin, 2005). Subjective career success deals with intrinsic measures of individual attitudes on their job (Gunz & Heslin, 2005). Intrinsic variables capture individuals' subjective judgments about their career attainments, such as job and career satisfaction (Burke, 2001; Judge et al., 1999). Some individuals rely more on how much satisfied they are in their

career (Greenhaus et al., 1990), or job (Judge et al., 1995) in seeing their 'career successfulness'. Previous development of theory has singularly focused on the perspective of extrinsic outcome alone (Super, Thompson & Lindeman, 1988). Subsequent studies have revealed the significance of subjective career success assessment from psychological achievements perspective (Heslin, 2003; Breland, Treadway, Duke & Adams, 2007; Lau & Shaffer, 1999). Career success literature indicates the tendency of people to conceptualize and evaluate career success mainly in relation to self-referent criteria, such as personal career aspirations (Heslin, 2005). There is a presumption that the sense of satisfaction in job and career to have adequately capture the dimensions upon which people make career decisions (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990). Heslin (2005) indicates the inherent assumption that people are similar in concerns regarding the objective success, compared to subjective measures. Objective career success has been defined to be directly 'observable, measurable, and verifiable' by any impartial third party, whereas the subjective career success is only experienced by the employee in his/her career (Hughes 1937, 1958 as cited in Heslin, 2005).

The objective career success involves observable, measurable and verifiable attainments such as pay, promotion and occupational status' (Dries, Pepermans, and Carlier, 2008,). Compared to perceptual and evaluative criteria in subjective assessments, objective assessments are neutral in empirical outcome (Dette, Abele and Renner, 2004). They have been established as the "hallmarks of career success" across generations all over the world (Nicholson, 2000). They have been identified extending beyond the managerial and professional contexts (Greenhaus, 2003; Sullivan, 1999). The widely used measurements in research are: monthly salary before taxes, hierarchical status (e.g., Abele and Spurk, 2009), and salary progression (Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999). There is evidence (Judge et al., 1995) of positive correlations of objective and subjective career success, though these two constructs could be empirically distinct. There are many studies that have increasingly explored both elements interdependently (Arthur, Khapova & Wilderom, 2005). This is partly due to the difference in concept between the subjective and objective success, with different causes although they are related to a certain extent (Nabi, 2000). Recent studies have moved in the direction of career success assessment by incorporating both subjective and objective elements (Nor Wahiza, 2011).

2.3 Career success and Socio-demographic factors

2.3.1Age

Age has a direct relationship with career success (Judge et al., 1995). Employees' age is related to their career exploration (Taveira et al., 1998; Ketterson and Blustein, 1997), and younger employees have a greater willingness for self and environmental exploration to advance in careers. They get involved in career strategies; viz. expertise development, self-nomination, and networking (Nabi, 2000). Age of employees has recorded a positive relationship with on the job proactivity (Veldhoven, and Dorenbosch, 2008) and a negative relationship with developmental proactivity (Warr and Fay). Proactivity has been viewed as central to enhanced employment participation and improved flexibility (Parker et al. 2006). Proactivity has been categorized as on-the-job-proactivity (addressing routine job inefficiencies), and developmental proactivity (acquiring new knowledge and skills to further careers by scanning new work environments). Younger employees tend to get more involved in organizational competency development programmes due to independency, high learning skills, ability to work under pressure, and greater attention-to-detail. Elderly employees are seen to be less motivated and flexible at work by some employers (Warr and Fay, 2001). Maurer et al. (2003) found a negative relationship between the age and learning preparedness of employees in USA. These prejudices invariably discriminates employees as they age in organisations (Boerlijst and Van der Heijden, 2003). However, age has a positive relationship with career management process in a study conducted among the middle and top level employees in a manufacturing plant in India (Birasnav and Rangnekar, 2012). This is a deviation from some studies (Campion et al., 1994; Noe, 1996). In the aforementioned study, Indian organization focused on maintaining organizational hierarchical structure by replacing a vacant position with an aged employee having a long tenure in the organization. It is pertinent to focus on the career development of employees, as the world (especially in Europe and North America) is facing demographic developments, making elderly workers an increasingly substantial part of global workforce in future (Ilmarinen, 2006).

2.3.2 Gender

Women's participation in the labour force has risen over the past three decades, and especially women in western countries have made impressive progress in careers as managers (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). However, this cannot be generalized to the rest of the world. Gender researchers have made little progress of the different dynamics of gender inequality in different cultures (Syed and Pio, 2010). In Middle Eastern countries for example, women have only recently begun to join the ranks of managers in limited numbers (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Increase of women in the workforce could be an indication of decreasing discrimination and gender stereotyping. It can also be attributed to factors including women attaining higher education and a greater demand in the job market. (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). It has been found that in Middle Eastern countries gender discrimination barriers continue to restrict women to lower management levels in organizations (Metcalfe, 2008). A Bangladesh case study revealed that women are still faced with 'social prejudices and taboos favouring marriage and motherhood over professional careers' (Rahman, 2005). Women who aspire to managerial positions are also constrained by family-related issues compared to their male counterparts (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Early sex-role socialisation experiences leads to the lack of strong expectations of efficacy by women for many career-related behaviours (Hackett & Betz, 1981). Work expectations, interests, perceptions of self-efficacy, and career options, are greatly influenced by the socialisation processes of women and men (Astin, 1984). Findings have revealed that the strongest predictors of career options for male and female college students are vocational interests and occupational self-efficacy (Michie & Nelson, 2006). This is quite significant to women's aspirations for top-level positions in non-traditional career fields (Nauta et al., 1998). Schaefers et al. (1997) found no significant differences in objective measures of academic ability between genders. However, they found that self-efficacy, work interests, and environmental barriers have outweighed the academic ability in women's career persistence in a technical major. Research revealed of instances that masculine image discouraging women from pursuing technical and non-traditional careers like the engineering profession (Wyer, 2003). Studies reveal that even in the West, 'traditional work role expectations concerning women's efficacy for highly technical careers still persist' (Michie & Nelson, 2006). For women to advance in technical and non-traditional careers, organizations 'must proactively

address gender role biases and create work environments that build self-efficacy expectations' for both genders (Michie & Nelson, 2006).

2.3.3 Educational level

Human capital has been defined as 'the combined knowledge, skill, innovativeness, and ability of the company's individual employees to meet the task at hand' (Bontis, 2001, p.05). Organizations tend to reward employees with high human capital, and high job status, and long organizational tenure improves an employee's degree of social capital (Lin and Huang, 2005). Investing on their human capital, especially education, and experience, enhances the productivity and extrinsic rewards of employees (Davenport, 1999). Organizations have been using qualifications obtained by an employee as a proxy to measure human capital (Ferrier, 2001; Nerdrum and Erikson, 2001). Research has found a direct relationship between education (qualifications) level and career success of employees. The screening theory identifies the experience of abstract conceptualization, and improved decision making skills empowering educated employees with superior career planning skills, and higher potentials with career outcomes (Rosenbaum, 1984). Janssen (2001), and Lin and Huang (2005) found strong relationships between employees' educational level and their innovative job performance. The above relationship existed both for self-rated and supervisor rated job performance. Highly educated employees acquire desirable qualifications that give them access to more job opportunities (Markham et al., 1987). Aforementioned human capital variables have been predictors of job performance (Janssen, 2001), and career success (Wayne et al., 1999; Judge et al., 1995). The developmental activities learnt through the process of education give more self-directedness to the highly educated employees (Segers et al., 2008).

2.3.4 Career experience

Human capital theory explains that longer the career experience, the higher the possibility of age-earning profiles of the employees. With experience employees get the opportunity to develop skills and capabilities that increase their work quality and productivity. This can lead to monetary rewards in the form of salary increment that act as motivational factors. Poon (2004) revealed that work experiences increasingly generate achievements (real or perceptive) in an

employee's career success. Ng et al. (2005) suggested salary as one of the constructs in determining a career success. Sulis (2009) discovered that white collars workers enjoyed higher pay for their experience and longer service period. Similar results have been surfaced by Cingano (2003 as cited in Sulis, 2009) in a study in two provinces in Italy. Mincer (1962) found the same outcome of positive association between experience and tenure to salary. Lin and Huang (2005) have found career experience related with the growth of individual development potential. They opined that the longer an employee serves a company, the higher is the employee's comprehension of the nature of the work. This elevates an employee to be an informal reference or counselor. Those in the managerial positions with longer duration of service get recognized as advisors. They develop the capabilities to solve work related problems and influence the social network which eventually supports their self-development. Staffs with longer tenures in managerial positions are assumed to enhance knowledge and problem solving at work (Friedman & Krackhardt, 1997). The study by Tu et al. (2006) among Chinese managers found that the superiority in holding a post has nothing to do with career satisfaction. In the study, only middle-management level was significantly related with career satisfaction. Factors such as time and stress that affect the senior managers' personal interests may have mitigated their career satisfaction at work place.

2.4 Antecedents of Career Success

Career success has many antecedents. Personality factors have been related to successful organizational leadership, team performance, citizenship behaviour, and to job satisfaction (Muchinsky, 2003). Personal initiatives refer to behavioural orientation of an employee that makes him go beyond assigned tasks, and develops an ownership of work through self-started goals, having a long term perspective on career (Frese, and Fay, 2001). Personal initiative is important for developing careers. It overlaps with the construct of employability (Van der Heijde, and Van der Heijden, 2006). Taking initiatives on their own by employees has been identified as an important aspect for the growth of careers (Fay, and Kamps, 2006). Modern job structures have become complex in nature. An active approach to comprehend the present tasks and long term needs of the organisations is necessary

(Frese and Fay, 2001). Proactivity has been defined (Unsworth, and Parker, 2003, p.177) as 'a set of self-starting, action orientated behaviours aimed at modifying the situation or oneself to achieve greater personal or organizational effectiveness'.

2.4.1 Citizenship Performance Behaviour (CPB)

Organizations have started to pay increased attention on Citizenship Performance Behaviour (CPB) that explores the performance related behaviours going beyond the assigned tasks and responsibilities for which employees are usually held responsible. CPB has been conceptualized by Smith and Organ (1983) as the 'discretionary behavior that goes beyond one's official role' (as cited in Borman, 2004). Further, it is intended to help other people in the organization or to show conscientiousness and support toward the organization. Williams and Anderson identified two broad behavioural categories in CPB, namely; those immediately benefitting particular individuals, and those that benefit the organization as a whole (1991). Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie defined CPB as the 'individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization'(2006). Citizenship performance goes beyond task performance and technical proficiency. It supports the organizational, social and psychological context that serve as the critical catalyst for the accomplishment of tasks (Borman, 2004). **V**an Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, and Christ have summed up CPB by the notion that 'the more an individual gets identified with his career, the more he will think and act on behalf of his career' (2004). Organ has defined CPB as a discretionary behavior directed at individuals or at the organization as a whole, which goes beyond existing role expectations, and benefits the organizationa and/or is intended to benefit it (1988). Organ's definition address the three main feactures: i.) It must be voluntary, that is neither role prescribed nor part of the formal duties, ii.)It should benefit the orgazation from the organizational perspective iii.) It should be mulitidimentional nature (Somech & Zahavy, 2004). Borman, (2004) has mentioned in literature that Research on CPB has forcused four major themes, viz. supervisor's use of CPBin making judments about subordinates, personality as a predictor of CPB, Link betweeen CPB and organiational effectiveness, and the influence of organizational characteristics on citizenship performance. Coleman, and Borman, (2000)

investigated the merits of CPB as 'behaviours such as excelling at your job, putting extra effort in and engaging in self-development to improve your own effectiveness' (In. Maarleveld, 2009, p.3). Podsakoff et al. (2000) noted four major categories of antecedents of CPB; viz.; task characteristics, organizational characteristics, leadership behaviours, and individual characteristics. Organ and Ryan viewed employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceptions of leader supportiveness among the antecedents of individual characteristics (1995). Researchers have also linked job task characteristics to correlate with the CPB of an employee (Maarleveld, 2009, p.5). Porapot identified citizenship performance as a 'crucial aspect of performance' in the workplace, and highlighted the importance of efforts at 'enhancing post-educational employability' (2011). Evidence for the relevance of CPB to academic settings comes from examining how grades are associated with pro-social, Citizenship-like behaviours, such as group work and conflict resolution (Jones & White, 1985). One factor that may mask the role of employability within education is the substantial difference between performance assessment in academic and workplace settings. Role of citizenship performance in academic settings has yet to be properly assessed (Poropat, 2011). Graydon and Murphy (1995) found a significant relationship between grades obtained and socially facilitated activities of respondents. Poropat emphasized the importance of promoting citizenship performance in education to enhance the post-educational employability, in identification of the crucial role it plays in workplace (2011).

There are few established measurement scales to measure CPB. It has been measured by Podsakoff *et al.* with a seven point scale consisting of 24 items (1990). The statements of the scale have been grouped into five categories namely; altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. For example, a conscientious employees may require little supervision, and employees exhibiting altruism and courtesy could save the organization a great deal of time and costs in training and 'crisis' mamangement respectively (VanYperen, Van Den Berg, & Willering, 1999). A scale to measure CPB at team level has been developed by Cox (1994). It includes team work as an additional component to measure the citizenship behavior. This manipulation of the tool is little different to the tool developed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990). Later, Podsakoff *et al.* have developed an extensive scale consisting of nearly 30 forms of potentially different

behaviors into seven themes viz. helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development to measure CPB (2000). There has been a number of meta-analysis of citizen performance construct that followed (Hoffman et al., 2007; Lepine et al., 2002).The relatively recent and established Porapot & Jones (2009) scale to measure CPB has been specifically designed to be unifactorial in line with recent meta-analysis.

2.4.2 Transformational Leadership (TFL)

After decades of debates, leadership scholars have found it difficult to come up with a common definition for leadership. Leadership in general can be understood as a process in that 'an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal' (Northouse, 2013, p.5). There are many theories that address different aspects of leadership, but there is little cohesion among them that help us understand how they all tie together (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995). Klein et al. (1994) argue that 'greater attention to levels issues will increase the clarity, testability, comprehensiveness, and creativity of organizational theories' (p. 224). Nowhere may this be more apt than in the area of leadership. MacGregor Burns is credited with introducing the Transformational leadership style. Transformational leadership improves followers' commitment by influencing their needs, values, and self-esteem (Bass and Avolio, 1995/2004). Further, its' approach was found to be fundamentally morally uplifting (Avolio, 1999). Bass and Avolio (1995/2004) classified those behaviours into four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. They have described the aforementioned four key aspects of transformational leadership as follows (Bass and Avolio (1995/2004) :

Idealized Influence: Subordinates view them in an *idealized* way, and as such, these leaders wield much power and influence over their followers. They influence subordinates wanting to identify with their mission. These leaders develop strong feelings, trust, and confidence about them among their subordinates.

Inspirational Motivation: They have the ability to articulate in simple ways, to have shared goals and mutual understanding of priorities. They provide visions of

what is possible and how to attain them. They enhance meaning and promote expectations about the responsibilities in hand (Bass, 1988).

Intellectual Stimulation: Ability to help subordinates to think about old problems in new ways, by encouraging questioning their beliefs, assumptions, and values. They are also encouraged to question leadership direction when appropriate, so that they can develop the capacity to solve future problems unforeseen by the leader.

Individualized Consideration: It focuses on understanding and sharing in subordinates' concerns and developmental needs. Each individual is treated uniquely, and treated to having their future benefit in mind.

Higher levels of performance, extra effort, and higher satisfaction, can be expected from subordinates when managers display transformational leadership. For example, Jung, Chow and Wu found a direct relationship between transformational leadership and organizational innovation in 32 Taiwanese companies (2003). Yukl reported transformational leadership having positive relationships with subordinate satisfaction, motivation, and job performance (1999). Northouse (2013) findings suggested the effectiveness of transformational leadership in a variety of different situations (2013). Transformational leaders arouse and inspire colleagues at work sharing with them a vision of what can be accomplished through extra personal effort (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Employees get a large amount of information day in day out from a variety of sources. Thornton expressed that managers got to 'create an environment where employees have the necessary information they need to do their job, where they feel respected and valued and where communication is truly a priority' (2001, p.25). When supervisors effectively communicate their vision, Managers win the confidence and trust of subordinates when they effectively communicate their vision (Pavit, 1999). Sharbrough, Simmons & Cantrill found a positive relationship between a manager's use of motivational language and the perceived effectiveness in the eyes of their subordinates (2010). Madlock explored the influence of a manager's communication competence and relational leadership to the job satisfaction of subordinates (2008). A manager's willingness to communicate effectively with subordinates contributes to organisational success (Bartoo & Sias, 2004). Two kinds of relationships between transformational leadership and self-efficacy are

discussed in leadership literature and research. Schyns has suggested of self-efficacy as a precondition for employees to be able to embrace transformational leadership (2001). However, some others (Shamir, House, and Arthur, 1993; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996) have asserted that transformational leaders influence their subordinates' self-efficacy. Schyns examined the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and occupational self-efficacy (2001). Results indicated a positive relationship between transformational leadership and occupational self-efficacy. Schyns has dual interpretations: 'Self-efficacy could be a precondition for the perception of transformational leadership, and transformational leaders might enhance their followers' self-efficacy' (2001). Shamir and House were of the opinion that leaders with transformational style increase the self-efficacy of followers by expressing their confidence towards them (1993). It is found to have different effects on self-efficacy depending on the organizational climate. Schyns and Sanders found that the relationship between self-rated transformational leadership and self-efficacy is lower for women (2005, pp. 520). Schyns found a positive effect between transformational leadership and self-efficacy (2001). Thus, transformational leaders had enhanced the self-efficacy of their employees in the respective organizational climates. Bandura identified mastery (experience) as a factor influencing self-efficacy (1977). The positive correlation between task demands and occupational self-efficacy (Schyns, 2001) confirms the above theory. Task demands have played a dominant role than leadership for occupational self-efficacy. Further, the moderating effect of task and climate to the relationship between the transformational leadership and occupational self-efficacy was tested. Results indicated that the effect of transformational leadership on self-efficacy is negative for low task demands. Schyns interpreted that this finding suggests that transformational leadership 'might be asking too much of employees' in the case of low task demands (2001). This may pose more of a 'threat' than a 'challenge' resulting in the diminishing of employee self-efficacy.

2.4.3 Relationship with the immediate superior (RIS)

A taxonomic approach helps to reflect the multi-faceted nature of leadership situations. It provides a more balanced understanding of the leadership process. Leadership can be assessed in multiple domains: the leader (charisma), the follower

(follower innovative role expectations; follower's attitude toward innovation), and the dyadic leadership relationship (LMX). Results showed that these three variables in combination generated significant predictable variation in innovative behaviour (leadership outcome) beyond any of the three taken alone (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Expanding the leadership concept to the dyadic relationship between the leader and follower brings more insights and meaning to the concept (Hollander, 1978; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). Follower is an integral component in the leadership process (Meindl, Erlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Kelley, 1988). LMX operationalizes a relationship-based approach to leadership. Effective leadership processes occur when leaders and followers are able to develop mature leadership relationships bringing many benefits (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). Leadership models (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991) have recognized the utility of high-quality relationships in organizations and described a process for accomplishing this through dyadic partnership building. LMX theory challenged the assumption of leaders using an average style to follower groups. It focused on the differences that might exist in the relationship between the leader and each of his followers. LMX theory 'conceptualizes leadership as a process that is centered on the interactions between leaders and followers' (Northouse, 2013, p.161). Each linkage or relationship between the superior and his subordinate tends to differ in quality. Thus, the same superior 'may have poor interpersonal relations with some subordinates and open and trusting relations with others'. 'The relationships within these pairings, or dyads, may be of a predominantly in-group or out-group nature' (Lunenburg, 2010, p.1). Superior initiates either an in-group or an out-group exchange with his/her subordinate during the initial phase of the dyadic relationship. Sometimes, this can evolve after a while in their relationship. Subordinates who have secured a place in the in-group are more likely to be invited to participate in decision making process and are given more flexibility of their roles with added responsibility. 'In-group members, in many respects, enjoy the benefits of job latitude (influence in decision making, open communications, and confidence in and consideration for the member). The subordinate typically reciprocates with greater than required expenditures of time and effort, the assumption of greater responsibility, and commitment to the success of the organization' (Lunenburg, 2010, p.1). Empirical findings suggest that the perception of similarity felt by employees (subordinates) to be a more important factor than the actual demographic similarities (age, gender, and ethnicity)

(Murphy & Ensher 1999). A sharp distinction between the employees belonging to the in-group and the out-group may not be desirable, as the out-group subordinates might resent their relatively inferior status and differential treatment (Yukl, 2010). It highlights the significance of having a favourable perception of the follower in a subordinate's relationship with the immediate superior.

Supervisor-subordinate relationship has been found to motivate employees (Kazoleas & Wright, 2001) and to influence their job satisfaction (Lamb & Mckee, 2005; Madlock, 2008). It also enhances their perceived external prestige (Smidts, Pruyn & Vanriel, 2001), and trust (Thomas, Zolin & Hartman, 2009). The importance of establishing a mutual communication channel with the immediate superior has been a predictor of job satisfaction (Siaz, 2005). Failures in the communication system hamper motivation at work (Kazoleas & Wright, 2001). Subordinates' satisfaction with communication is an important ingredient of the psychological contract, and closely linked to whether employees feel valued by their managers and organisations (De Ridder, 2006). The satisfaction in the relationship between supervisors and subordinates has been found a 'major indicator of efficiency and organisational effectiveness' (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2004). The impact of managerial communication competence on employee job performance is well documented (Payne, 2003). Supervisor-subordinate relationship plays a critical role in behavioural intentions, such as intention to leave (Scott et al., 1999). Subordinates view their immediate supervisor as one of the most important of all informational sources (Bartoo & Sias, 2004). Subordinates who have effective interactions with their immediate superiors have shown greater motivation, satisfaction, productivity, and commitment to the organisation (Gupta & Sharma, 2008).

2.4.4 Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)

There are a number of definitions and measures on organizational commitment (Luthans, 2011). Organizational commitment is an attitude that is determined by a number of internal (employee specific) and external (mainly organizational specific) factors (Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman, & Garden, 2005). It is most often defined as (1) a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organization; (2) a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the

organization; and (3) a definite belief in, acceptance of, the values and goals of the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982, Luthans, 2011). There are many models explaining organizational commitment. The three-component model proposed by Mayer and Allen has been receiving empirical support across cultures (Snape & Redman, 2003). The three dimensions proposed by Mayer and Allen are as follows (1991):

1.) Affective commitment: An employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.

2.) Continuance commitment: An employee's attachment to continue to work in the incumbent organization as against leaving it.

3.) Normative commitment: An employee's obligatory feelings towards an organization.

As a result of the high mobility of employees their relationships with organizations are rather short term than stable personal bonds. Since the employees' retention is doubtful, organization are less likely to invest employee on training and develop (Olfen & Cremer, 2007). Organizational attachment is defined as an individuals' psychological and behavioral involvement in a member social group (Tsui & Egan, 1992). The term commitment is used to describe an affective orientation toward the organization. Buchanan (1974) described commitment as a partisan affective attachment to the goals and values, and to the organization. Researchers have described commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). The term emotional attachment denotes the closeness with which an individual identifies himself with a group. Intuitively, emotional attachment reflects how 'close' a person feels to others in a group and how much integrated that person is with its members, and the happiness to be a member of that group (Paxton & Moody, 2003). Popper and Lipshitz have referred to it as a 'partisan affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization apart from its instrumental worth' (1992). Employees choose to remain committed to an organization because they want to do so (Meyer, Allen and Gellatly, 1990). Hazan and Shaver indicate that adults show mainly two types of attachment styles as secure attachment and insecure attachment (1987,1990). Adults with secure attachment, emphasises trust and comfort with closeness.

Popper & Amit, (2009) have indicated that secure attachment style influence the potential to lead and that capacity is essential for a leader to be successful in his or her role. Further, having a secured and autonomus attachment with the organization is positively relatd to sef-esteem, trait emotioanl intelligance, extraversion, agreeablenss, conscientiouness and job performance (Neustadt, Premuzic, & Furnham, 2011). Having a secure attachment with an organization was found to mitigate employee burnout among a wide range of participants across occupational and social strata (Pines, 2004). Further, having an insecure attachment positively correlated with burn out (Pines, 2004). Insecure attachment styles inculde avoidant style and ambivalent style. Insecure style is chracterized with reluctantace to trust and they prefer to maintain a emortioanal distance with others. Morover, insecure adults show more anger, resentment, suspicion an have relatively low self –esteem (Berson, Dan, & Yammarin, 2006). A study with employees of plastic manufacturing company in Lithuania indicated that organizational and job related variables contribute in similar proportions to the variance in employee attachment. Intrinsic job characteristics, opportunities for promotion and communication have been the only signifiant contributors to employees affective commitment (Gaiduk, Gaiduk, & Fields, 2009). The extent to which perceived organizational support and perceived external prestige are related to organizational attachment is moderated by occupational proxies of cosmopolitan–local role orientation (Fuller, Hester, Barnett, & Relyea, 2006).

2.4.5 Job stability as a career anchor (JSCA)

Schein and Mannen (2013, p.1) identify a person's 'self-image of competence, motives, and values' to reflect one's 'career anchor'. Knowing ones career anchor helps to make choices that match with his/her interests. Career anchor defines employability in relation to the basic dimensions of career identity, career insight, and career resilience (Jones, 1993 as cited in Clarke, 2008). Career anchor relates specifically with a person's career identity. Career identity indicates 'the extent to which career is central to a person's self-identity' (Clarke, 2008, p.273). Individuals who are high on career identity have the knowhow to further their career plans. Employers are best advice to consult these individuals and to provide support. There are eight career anchors (Schein & Mannen, 2013).

i.) Technical/Functional Competence: competence in a technical or functional area.

ii.) General Managerial Competence: ability to integrate the efforts of others and to be overall responsible and accountable for results.
iii.) Autonomy/Independence: opportunity to define own work in own way.
iv.) Security/Stability: seek employment security or tenure in a job or organization.
v.) Entrepreneurial Creativity: opportunity to create own enterprise.
vi.) Service/Dedication to a cause:pursue work that achieves something of value.
vii.) Pure Challenge: opportunity to work on solutions to seemingly unsolvable problems.
viii.) Lifestyle: balance and integrate personal needs, family needs and career requirements.

JSCA is 'to achieve a sense of having stabilized your career so that you can relax' (Schein & Mannen, 2013, p.12). JSCA could involve financial security, employment security, or geographic stability. Employees tend to 'trade-off' their loyalty and willingness to satisfy the employer to ensure above forms of security. Individuals having JSCA 'build their entire self-image around the management of security and stability' (Schein & Mannen, 2013, p.12). These individuals can still reach higher positions in the organizational hierarchy, though that is not their priority. Erlinghagen (2008) and Clark & Postel-Vinay (2009) opined 'job security' refers to the situation where employees perceive the continuance of their employment not to be under threat. The importance of job security is used to express the degree to which employment continuity is assessed as important when choosing a job. These two notions, perceived job security and its importance, are subjective and they have to be distinguished from objective indicators of insecurity such as levels of layoffs and dismissals or measurements of job tenure (De Witte and Näswall, 2003).

In psychological literature job insecurity has primarily been analysed as a purely cognitive phenomenon including some sense of powerlessness in face of this threat (Ashford et al., 1989; Greenhalgh). This perceived likelihood of job loss depends on immediate organizational circumstances. More recently, the affective job insecurity has been conceptualized as worry or anxiety regarding the outcome or evaluation of job loss (Sverke and Hellgren, 2002). Moreover, previous works argue that cognitive job insecurity is a major determinant of affective job insecurity (Borg and Elizur, 1992). Following Anderson and Pontusson (2007), it is proposed

that individuals take into account several objective factors when estimating the probability that they might keep their current job. The importance attached to job security is likely to depend on these factors. Perceived job security and its importance are supposed to be the outcome of an individual assessment process in which both microeconomic and macroeconomic factors and labour market institutions have been taken into account (Coleman, 1986). Perceived job security is linked to demographic, economic and employment factors. Age has been found to be inversely related to perceived job security (Postel-Vinay and Saint Martin, 2005), probably because unemployment costs increase with age given the decrease in the re-employment rate. Studies do not find any effect of gender (Erlinghagen, 2008). While according to the OECD (2003), perceived job security increases with education level. Another set of factors that is expected to affect perceived job security is the family situation. As stated by Bockerman (2004), marital status is likely to influence perceived job security. Being married can be considered by employers as a positive signal of stability, which is likely to increase perceived job security. The presence of children living within the household may also affect perceived job security. Working hours could be reduced due to parental childcare responsibilities with an accordant decrease in perceived job security (Anxo, 2003). Other factors affecting subjective job security are related to employment history, such as previous spells of unemployment, seniority, or temporary contracts. Several studies show that previous periods of unemployment reduce perceived job security (Erlinghagen, 2008). Individuals who have experienced a period of unemployment may be 'scarred' by their experience. A long tenure in an organization is seen as a favourable signal increasing perceived job security. Bockerman (2004) and Postel-Vinay & Saint Martin (2005) find that workers having higher seniority of service feel more protected. Temporary employees report lower job security than permanent employees (Erlinghagen, 2008). According to Davis and Haltiwanger (1999), the turnover decreases with the size of the firm, so that the perceived job security is expected to be negatively related to the firm size. With regard to economic sector, the perception of job security has been found to be lower within manufacturing industries than in the service sector (Bockerman, 2004).

3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter discusses the conceptual framework in demarcating the scope of the study. Based on the study framework hypothetical relationships have been developed among the main variables. This provides the rationale to focus on research methodology in the succeeding chapter. First section of the chapter presents the conceptual framework with a discussion on major variables. It is focused on addressing the research problem defined in chapter 1.5. Operational definitions of major variables are presented in the second section so as to focus on the research aim. Hypotheses of the study are presented in the last section to focus on the objectives of the research.

3.1 Development of Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is the structured form of the variables used in a study to accurately address the defined research problem based on the underlying objectives of the study (Smyth, 2004). Consequently, the conceptual framework is developed based on the literature review to demonstrate the relationships among the key variables of the study. The conceptual framework of the study is depicted in figure 3.1 below. This study attempts to empirically investigate the impact of Strategic EI as discussed in chapter one. Public Affairs Office of APA has recommended that employment of an intelligence to predict a real life outcome as the standard way of judging it (1997). This study focuses on examining the impact of Strategic EI through its causal and correlational effects to (OSE) and career success. Conceptual framework has been developed to serve this primary focus. It has incorporated socio-demographic factors and major antecedents contributing to OSE and Career success of managers. Number of predictor variables and relationships in the framework has been chosen sagaciously not to over complicate the multi method analysis of EI's impact. Research antecedents have been selected judiciously focused on both utility and topicality of research contributions. Study does not have the intention of presenting any definitive universally acceptable framework of career success. It is beyond the scope of this doctoral research. Nevertheless, such an attempt is neither practical, nor accurate, due to the involvement of a multitude of contextual factors involved in career contexts. OSE has been involved as an additional construct relating to careers.

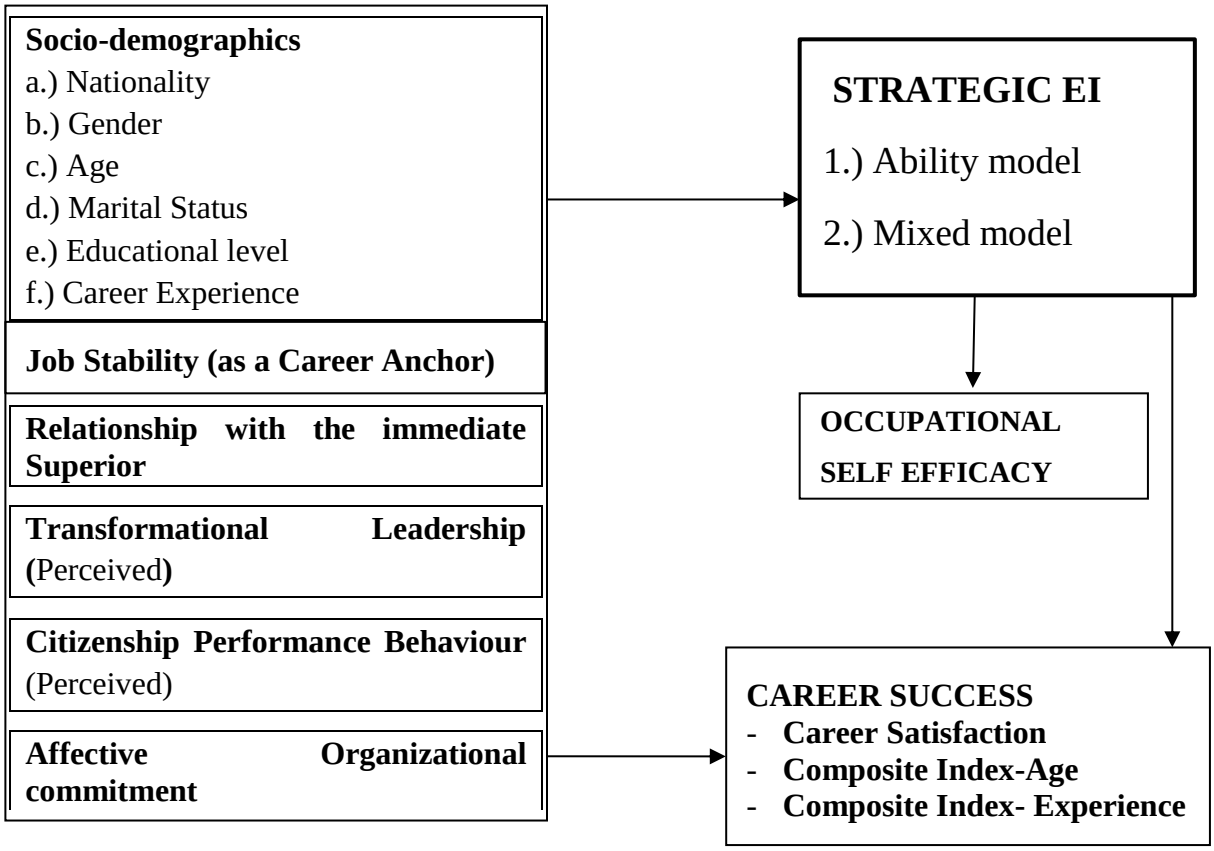


Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework of the Study

Source: Developed based on empirical findings and literature review

Socio-demographic factors act as control variables in assessing the impact of Strategic EI. Age, gender, career experience, educational level, marital status, and nationality have been selected as the socio-demographic factors in the study. Lernatowicz and Roth indicated that age, gender, and marital status could have an impact on the measures of cultural orientations in cross cultural research (1999). Role of gender has been found influential with respect to the assessments of EI (Freudenthaler, Neubauer, & Haller, 2008, Brackett et al., 2006), leadership behaviour (Schyns & Sanders, 2005), relationship with OSE (Gupta, and Sawhney, 2010, p. 21), and Career success.

CPB, RIS, TFL, OAC, JSCA are the career antecedents involved in the study. As discussed in chapter two, these antecedents have indicated associations with career success. These relationships are particularly important to analyse the moderating and mediating effects of Strategic EI, if any. As indicated by Sekaran (2009), moderating variables modify the relationship between independent (e.g. career success antecedents) and dependent (e.g. career success) variables. Above has been a primary factor for their inclusion in the framework. Podsakoff et.al (2000) noted four major categories of antecedents of CPB; viz.; task characteristics, organizational characteristics, leadership behaviours and individual characteristics. Organ and Ryan (1995) saw employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceptions of leader supportiveness (which are focused in the conceptual framework in figure 3.1), among the antecedents of individual characteristics. Study examines the interactions of TFL with OSE, career success, and strategic EI. From the beginning of meta-analysis on leadership behaviours (Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam, 1996) TFL has recorded the most significant (positive) impact of leadership style among the varying leadership styles (Users either with subjective measurements, or with objective measurements (MLQ Manual, 2004, p.6). Career anchors, RIS, and AOC have been empirically associated with career success and OSE. Purpose of examining them in research framework is to analyse the influence of Strategic EI, and to compare their behaviour in Asian and European contexts.

Measurement of career success has been defined and enhanced through the inclusion of composite career success indices, and a career satisfaction index to the research framework. In addition the construct of OSE has been examined for the relationship with Strategic EI. Salovey at al. opined that EI 'refers to the ability to process emotion-laden information competently and to use it to guide cognitive activities like problem-solving and to focus energy on required behaviors' (2002, p. 159). The impact of EI is measured using three established instruments discussed in chapter four. Two of those EI measurements are self-report based, and the other is ability based. Strategic EI (i.e. Managing emotions), has been empirically evidenced as 'strategic behaviour' (Kilduff, Chiaburu, & Menges, (2010, p.131) and considered as the most advanced EI component (Matthews et al., 2004). Analysing the impact of Strategic EI to managerial success, through a multifarious criterion, in varying cultural connotations makes a topical research proposition. The conceptual framework facilitates the analysis of numerous interactions among the defined study variables.

3.2 Definitions of variables

All major variables of the conceptual framework have been defined here. Accordingly, the research design is based on the operational definitions given in the table 3.1

Table 3.1 Operational definitions of the main variables

Concept (variable/construct)	**Definition**
Self-Efficacy	'Conviction that one can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce certain outcomes' (Bandura, 1977, p.193)
Occupational Self Efficacy	'People's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances' (Bandura, 1986, p. 391) 'The competence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job'(Rigotti, Schyns & Mohr, 2008, p. 239)
Managing Emotions	'The ability to be open to feelings, and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth' (MSCEIT V2.0 Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002, Users' manual, p.7)
Emotional Management	'The ability to incorporate own emotions into decision making' (MSCEIT V2.0 Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002, Users' manual, p.20)
Emotional Relations	'The ability to incorporate emotions into decision making that involves other people' (MSCEIT V2.0 Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002, Users' manual, p.20)
Managing Emotion (Self)	Identified by Brackett et. al 2006 (p.783)* as the equivalent to 'Emotional Management' of MSCEIT V2.0
Social Management	Identified by Brackett et. al 2006 (p.783)* as the equivalent to 'Emotional Relations' of MSCEIT V2.0
Emotional Self-Management	'Emotional Self-Management measures the relative frequency with which an individual manages their own emotions at work, successfully'.(Genos EI Inventory, Technical Manual (2nd Edition), 2008 p.12)
Emotional	'Emotional Management of Others measures the relative

Management of others	frequency with which an individual manages the emotions of others at work, successfully'.(Genos EI Inventory, Technical Manual (2nd Edition), 2008 p.13)
Emotional Self-Control	'Emotional Self-Control measures the relative frequency with which an individual controls their strong emotions appropriately in the workplace'.(Genos EI Inventory, Technical Manual (2nd Edition), 2008 p.13)
Career Success	'the accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes resulting from one's work experiences' (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001)
Career Satisfaction	'The extent to which individuals believe their career progress is consistent with their own goals, values and preferences' (Erdogan, Kraimer and Liden, 2004; Heslin, 2003; Seibert and Kraimer, 2001).
Career achievement	Progress in the career (organizational) hierarchy within a given period of time
Career Anchor of Security and Stability	'Concern for financial security, or employment security or geographic stability in the sense of being in an area where you feel you can always find a job' (Schein, 2013, Career Anchors Self-Assessment (4rd ed), p.12)
Career Experience	Experience (years) a person has obtained in his work life.
Transformational Leadership	'A multi-dimensional and exceptional leadership' (Bass, 1985), 'Leaders shifting the values, beliefs, and needs of their followers' (Luthans, 2011, p.430) 'Through transformational leadership, goals and objectives are established to develop others into leaders and/or a collective leadership group, such as in self-directed teams' (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1996).
Citizenship Performance Behaviour	'Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization'(Organ, 1988, p.4)
Cultural dimensions	'System of societal norms and standards for the value systems shared by major groups of the population'. (Yoo, and Donthu, p.10)
Leader-Member-Exchange	'Leaders and their followers develop dyadic (two-person) relationships that affect the behavior of both' (Luthans, 2011, p.422)

Affective commitment	'Commitment based on emotional ties the employee develops with the organization primarily via positive work experiences'. (Jaros, 2007, p.7)
Gender	Differences of Sex; i.e. being a male or a female
Age	The length of time that a person has lived (The Oxford online dictionary)
Civil Status	'Relating to marriage or the relations between husband and wife' (The Oxford online dictionary)
Nationality	'The status of belonging to a particular nation' (The Oxford online dictionary)
Qualifications obtained	A pass of an examination or an official completion of a course, especially one conferring status as a recognized practitioner of a profession or activity. (Oxford online)

***** The SREIS was developed to map onto the emotional abilities measured by the MSCEIT.

Source: Developed by author based on extensive literature review

3.3 Hypotheses development

A hypothesis is defined as 'a tentative explanation that accounts for a set of facts and can be tested by further investigation' (The American Heritage College Dictionary, 2002). Hypotheses guide the examination of relationships among study variables. Development of hypotheses forms an important aspect of defining testable relationships. Ellet (2007) indicates that a hypothesis for a practical problem is developed by accumulation. He opines 'when a possible cause is identified, it is tested for substantial evidence that is supportive of its hypothesis' (Ellet, 2007, p.14).

Chapter one has discussed the research gap this study aims to fulfill. Subsequently, the research problem and key issues of the study have been identified. Fifteen specific objectives have been defined in chapter 1.7 based on that. These objectives provide direction to address the research problem. Hypotheses have been developed based on those specific objectives of this study. Accordingly, there are 15 testable hypotheses in the study. They have been organized into nine categories to facilitate relevance and comprehension. They are mentioned below with reference the underline specific objectives.

Specific objective: 1.7.1

H1: There is a significant relationship among the multifarious measurements of Strategic EI among managers.

Specific objective: 1.7.2

H2: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.3

H3: There is a significant relationship between the socio-demographic factors and the Strategic EI of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.4

H4a: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.5

H4b: There is a significant relationship between multifarious Strategic EI measurements and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.6

H5a: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.7

H5b: There is a significant relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.8

H6a: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.9

H6b: There is a significant relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.10
H7a: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.11
H7b: There is a significant relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.12
H8a: There is a moderating effect of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.13
H8b: There is a moderating effect of multifarious measurements of strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.14
H9a: There is a mediating effect of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Specific objective: 1.7.15
H9b: There is a mediating effect of multifarious measurements of strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

3.4 Summary

This chapter has focused on the development of conceptual framework, presenting operational definitions of variables, and development of hypotheses. A brief description has been given on the design of conceptual framework providing rationale for the selection of study variables. Six socio-demographic variables and five antecedents have been specified as the predictor variables. Career success has been identified as the principal outcome variable. Career success has been defined through multiple indices formulated for this study. Additionally, OSE has been specified as an outcome variable. Strategic EI has been identified in multiple forms of predictor, moderator, mediator, and as an outcome variable as well. Operational definitions have been allocated to specify the meaning of each construct in the research model, subsequently. Finally, fifteen hypotheses have been developed to demonstrate the relationship among major constructs in the framework based on the underlying specific objectives.

4. METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodological choice, sample design, research instruments, method of data collection and the statistical techniques employed in data analysis. Development of the conceptual framework and hypotheses were discussed in the previous providing rationale with justifications. Underlying methodological directions of the study have been selected based on the research objectives and the conceptual framework.

4.1 Research Design

Malhotra, Agarwal, & Peterson (1996) opined that conceptual framework helps to organize data for the analysis of correlational and causal relationships among main variables of the study. Sekaran and Bougie (2011) suggested that any research in the field of business can be conducted through descriptive, correlational and causal aspects. Further the unit of data collection could be defined either on individual, group, departmental, organizational or on industry level (Malhotra & Grover, 1998).

The nature of this study followed the ontology of internal realism. It has adopted the underlying epistemology of positivism. Aims of the study were more focused on exposure than discovery. Starting points were propositions (through specific objectives), which have been converted into testable hypothesis. Methodological design included multi-surveys, i.e. among Czech and Sri Lankan managers. Data were numerical and involved correlational analysis and regression interpretations. Outcome of the study involved testing existing EI theories and contributing to the generation of empirical literature. Study has been designed based on cross-sectional research method, on deductive approach with managers as the unit of analysis.

4.2 Sample Design

Managers occupying similar positions in the same industry were selected from Czech Republic and Sri Lanka. Being employed in the same industry is an important condition to ensure the comparability between the two groups of

managers. Managers, employed in the Banking and Finance industry were selected for the study. There were many reasons for the choice of the industry. Main among them were the nature of operations that provided adequate examination of study variables, existence of managerial layers, familiarity with the industry, and having access to their Human Resources departments. The selection of institutions intended to involve managers practicing in established organizations, with exposure to organizational careers.

4.2.1 Sri Lankan Banking and Finance institutions

Sri Lanka's banking sector together with authorized finance companies can be grouped into three main categories.

a.) Licensed Commercial Banks (LCBs),
b.) Licensed Specialised Banks (LSBs), and
c.) Licensed Finance Companies (LFCs)

They come under the regulatory supervision of Central Bank of Sri Lanka (CBSL). The banking sector in Sri Lanka consists of 24 LCBs and 9 LSBs as end December, 2013 (CBSL, 2014). LCBS dominates the financial system and are the most important category of financial institution in the banking sector. Banks play a central role providing liquidity to the entire economy. Banks are responsible to provide payment services that facilitate financial transactions. There are 48 LFC's in Sri Lanka. They are also authorized to carry out specified banking activities (CBSL, 2014). Sri Lankan Banking & Finance sector is dominated by locally owned organizations.

Sri Lankan sample of managers were selected from eight institutions. A two-stage stratified random sampling was used in selecting those organizations. The criteria used in the stratification were: a.) Ownership of the institute (i.e. Public, or Private entity), b.) Statutory structure of the organization (i.e. Commercial bank or a Finance company). Institutions that were chosen for the study consisted of six LCB's and two LFC's. Four among those six LCB's ranked among the six largest LCBs in the country, inclusive of the two state banks. The two other LCB's are ranked in the 'middle' category. The two LFC's are ranked in the top category among them. The particulars of aforementioned institutions are indicated below.

Table 4.1: List of Sri Lankan Banking and Finance organizations

Name of the Organization	Address of the registered office
1.) Bank of Ceylon - LCB	"BOC Square", Bank of Ceylon Mawatha, Colombo 01
2.) Commercial Bank of Ceylon PLC - LCB	"Commercial House", 21, Sir Razik Fareed Mawatha, P.O. Box 856, Colombo 01.
3.) Nations Trust Bank PLC - LCB	242, Union Place, Colombo 02.
4.) People's Bank - LCB	75, Sir Chittampalam A Gardiner Mawatha, Col. 02.
5.) Sampath Bank PLC - LCB	110, Sir James Peiris Mawatha, Colombo 02
6.) Seylan Bank PLC - LCB	90, Galle Road, Colombo 03
7.) Lanka ORIX Finance PLC - LFC	100/1, Sri Jayawardenapura Mawatha, Rajagiriya
8.) People's Leasing & Finance PLC - LFC	1161, Maradana Road, Colombo 08

Source: Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2014

4.2.2 Czech Banking and Finance institutions

In Czech Republic, Monetary Financial Institutions" (MFIs) include central bank, commercial banks, money market funds and credit unions (Czech National Bank, 2014). They are also monitored by the European System of Central Banks. In a complete contrast to the Sri Lankan sector, the Czech Banking & Finance sector is dominated by subsidiaries of foreign owned organizations. They are registered in the Commercial Registry of the City Court in Prague. Mangers from six organizations were selected. A two- stage stratified random sampling was used in selecting those organizations. The criteria used in the stratification were slightly modified as: a.) Ownership of the institute (i.e. Foreign, or Local entity), b.) Statutory structure of the organization (i.e. Commercial bank or a Finance company). Five organizations are highly established commercial banks in Czech Republic and internationally owned with a regional presence in Europe. The other organization is a locally owned medium level finance institute. The particulars of aforementioned institutions are indicated below.

Table 4.2: List of Czech Banking and Finance organizations

Name of the Organization	Address of the registered office
1.) Česká spořitelna a.s.	Olbrachtova 1929/62, 140 00, Prague 4.
2.) Ceskoslovenska obchodni banka, a. s.	Radlicka 333/150, 15057, Prague 5.
3.) Komerční banka, a. s.	Na Příkopě 33 čp. 969,114 07, Prague 1.
4.) Moravský Peněžní Ústav - spořitelní družstvo	Senovážné náměstí 1375/19, 110 00, Prague 1 - Nové Město
5.) Raiffeisenbank a. s	Hvězdova 1716/2b 140 78, Prague 4.
6.) UniCredit Bank Czech Republic and Slovakia, a.s.	Želetavská 1525/1 140 92, Prague 4, Michle

Source: Czech National Bank, 2014

Key informant discussions were conducted with senior managers and heads of HR departments to explore ideas and insights from different perspectives of research problem and scope of the study. A sample of 180 banking executives (120 from Sri Lanka, and 60 from Czech Republic), who are entrusted with managerial positions in the banking and finance industry were identified. Sample was selected by using multi-stage stratified random sampling method. The criteria used in stratification of sample consist of the following strata: a.) Gender (i.e. Males and Females), b.) Designation in the organization (i.e. Senior Manager and above, Middle level manager, and Junior level manager), c.) Career Experience (over 5 years of experience), d.) Work experience in the present organization (over 2 years of experience), and e.) Department of work (i.e. representation of different functional departments in the organization). In Sri Lanka, 120 respondents were selected from the aforementioned eight organizations in the banking and finance industry. Fifteen respondents were selected from each organization. In Czech Republic, 60 respondents were selected from the aforementioned six organizations in the banking and finance industry, with ten respondents from each organization. A fewer number of managers were selected from Czech Republic, due to practical realities.

Head Offices and regional offices of the respective organizations were selected for data collection to facilitate the randomization through the representation of the different departments/ divisions of an organization. However, 20% of the respondents were specifically selected from units of branch operations

to represent the uniqueness of the operations. Table 4.3 indicates the strata, and groupings of respondents' categories.

Table 4.3: Sampling Profile of the study

Country	No & Percentage	Managerial level	No & Percentage
Sri Lanka	120 (66.6)	Senior	60 (33.3)
Czech Republic	60 (33.3)	Middle	60 (33.3)
		Junior	60 (33.3)
Total	180	Overall	180

* Figures within parenthesis indicate the percentages
Source: Proposal summary document, 2013

4.3 Research Instruments

4.3.1 Measurement of EI

Measurement of EI was conducted using a multifarious criterion. Three established EI measurements have been employed for this process. They are

a.) MSCEIT Version 2 (MSCEIT)
b.) Self – Rated Emotional Intelligence Scale (SREIS) and
c.) Genos EI Inventory Concise Version (Genos EI)

Multifarious measurements of EI have been focused exclusively at the EI branch of 'Managing Emotions' as per the definition of Mayer and Salovey. The rationale to focus on 'Managing Emotions' not only served the research purpose, but also enhanced the measurement parsimony of the questionnaire. Trying to assess practicing managers for all the domains of EI using a multifarious criterion defies prudency and pragmatism. An illustration of 'Managing Emotions' in the context of Mayer and Salovey model is shown in figure 4.1 below. Accordingly, it consists of the two task areas namely Emotion Management and Emotional Relations. The term 'Strategic EI' will be used interchangeably with 'Managing Emotions' for the same meaning in the text for clarity and parsimony as well.

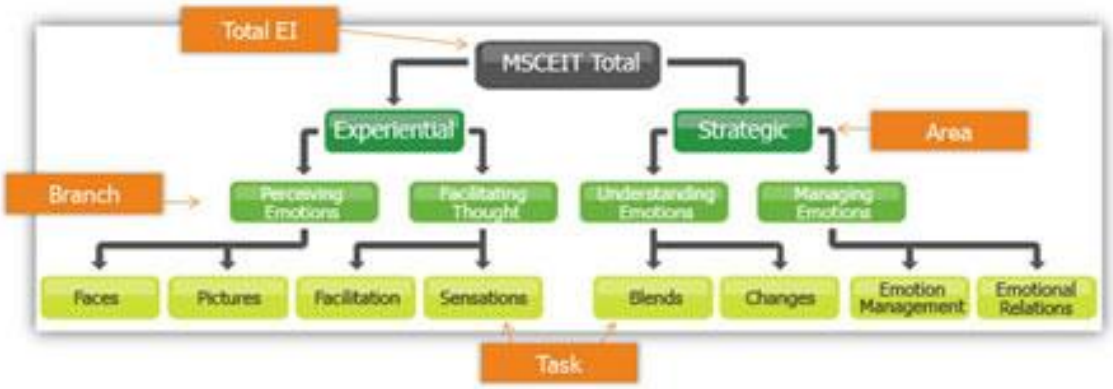


Figure 4.2: Structure of MSCEIT scale
Source: MSCEIT, User's Manual, 2002/2012

Self – Rated Emotional Intelligence Scale (SREIS) is a self-report EI measurement which has been specifically designed by mapping on to the Mayer and Salovey model of EI (Brackett et al., 2006). SREIS attempts to measure EI abilities using the self-report approach. SREIS consists of 19 statements that assess the EI areas of Perceiving Emotion, Use of Emotion, Understanding Emotion, Managing Emotion (self), and Social Management. The last two areas, i.e. Managing Emotion(self), and Social Management merge together to map onto 'Managing Emotion' as per Mayer and Salovey Model. They consist of 8 statements (4 each).

Genos EI Inventory method (Genos) is an EI measure that has been specifically designed to capture the 'workplace behaviours that represent the effective demonstration of EI in the workplace' (Palmer et al., 2009, p.103). Further, they opine that Genos attempts to capture peoples EI behaviour rather than measuring it per-se. Genos is a self-report measure that consists of seven domains of EI, as indicated in table 4.4. Further, Genos is available in three versions, namely Long (70 statements), Concise (31 statements), and Short (14 statements). Long and Concise versions are recommended for research with sound internal reliabilities (Palmer et al., 2009). Emotional Self-Management (ESM), and Emotional Management of Others (EMO) were identified to map onto the MSCEIT's Managing Emotions (Strategic EI) area. Genos Concise version was selected for parsimony. ESM and EMO consisted of 9 statements in total.

Table 4.4: Domains of EI description of Genos EI Inventory

Name of the Factor (Sub Construct)	Description
1. Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA)	The skill of perceiving and understanding one's own emotions.
2. Emotional Expression (EE)	The skill of effectively expressing one's own emotions.
3. Emotional Awareness of Others (EAO)	The skill of perceiving and understanding others' emotions.
4. Emotional Reasoning (ER)	The skill of using emotional information in decision-making.
5. Emotional Self-Management (ESM)	The skill of managing one's own emotions.
6. Emotional Management of Others (EMO)	The skill of positively influencing the emotions of others.
7. Emotional Self-Control (ESC)	The skill of effectively controlling one's own strong emotions.

Source: Gignac, Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory; Technical Manual (2nd Ed.), pp. 11-13.

The selection of SREIS was specifically due to its design mapped onto Mayer & Salovey model. It provided a measure of self-report EI focused on an ability model. The choice of Genos was due to its' approach at workplace behaviour. SREIS and Genos EI contrasted with MSCEIT's maximum performance approach. They represented self-report assessments of internal perception. Genos presented the opportunity of having similar areas to map onto Strategic EI, among other heterogeneous EI sub sectors/domains. It also differed from SREIS, the other self-report EI measurement. Genos also consists of a normative data base (N=4775) that SREIS lacks. SREIS and Genos also facilitated the measurement parsimony. MSCEIT was based on maximum performance approach based on an ability model. These three EI measurements had above inherent qualities to make a strong proposition in measuring Strategic EI multifariously.

Table 4.5: Construct of Managing Emotions

Construct	Sub domains	Description
Managing Emotions-MSCEIT	Emotional Management (Task D)	Consists of five cases/scenarios.
		Each case presents four alternative actions
		Respondent has to evaluate the effectiveness of each action in the given scenarios based on five levels ranging from 'very ineffective' to 'very effective'
	Emotional Relations (Task H)	Consists of three cases/ scenarios.
		Each case presents three alternative responses
		User has to evaluate the effectiveness of each response in the given scenarios based on five level scale ranging from 'very ineffective' to 'very effective'
Managing Emotions-SREIS (mapped on to MSCEIT)	Managing Emotion (self) (Domain M1)	Consists of 4 items reflecting emotional abilities of managing self (refer questions 75, 77,79 & 81 in the questionnaire)
		Respondent has to perceive of him or herself and to select the most appropriate response based on a five level scale ranging from 'Very inaccurate' (1) to 'Very accurate' (5).
	Social Management (Domain M2)	Consists of 4 items reflecting emotional abilities of managing others (refer questions 76, 78,80 & 82 in the questionnaire)
		Respondent has to perceive of him or herself and to select the most appropriate response based on a five level scale ranging from 'Very inaccurate' (1) to 'Very accurate' (5).
Managing Emotions - Genos EI (mapped on to MSCEIT)	Emotional Self-Management (ESM)	Consists of 5 items reflecting workplace emotional behaviour in managing self (refer questions 62, 63*, 65*, 67& 68 in the questionnaire). Note* - reverse coded
		Respondent has to perceive of him or herself and to select the most appropriate response based on a five level scale ranging from

		'Almost Never' (1) to 'Almost Always' (5).
	Emotional Management of Others (EMO)	Consists of 4 items reflecting workplace emotional behaviour in managing others (refer questions 66, 70, 72*, & 74* in the questionnaire). Note* - reverse coded
		Respondent has to perceive of him or herself and to select the most appropriate response based on a five level scale ranging from 'Almost Never' (1) to 'Almost Always' (5).

Source: MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002, SREIS Brackett et al., 2006, and Genos EI Technical Manual, 2008

After submission of MSCEIT assessments online scores are provided in the form of Standard Scores through scored datasets by Multi-Health Systems Inc. to the qualified purchasers at a specified price. These scores are formulated as per the construct displayed above in Table 4. 5. Scores vary from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 150. They have been compiled based on a global normative mean value of 100, and a standard deviation (SD) of 15. It was necessary to find the global normative statistics (mean, and SD) of SREIS, and Genos EI measurements to find their Z scores. Genos EI normative statistics were based on a global data sample of 4775 adults (Palmer et al., 2009, p.114). SREIS have not published normative statistics based on a global data sample up to date. The largest diversified sample statistics are of 355 adults having an age range of 18 to 34 (Brackett et al, 2006, p. 785-786). The mechanism adopted to avoid this deficiency will be explained later in chapter 5. Z scores of SREIS and Genos EI were converted into scores having a mean of 100 and a SD of 15 to make them comparable with MSCEIT. The unavailability of a normative global data set for SREIS to compare its standard scores with MSCEIT and Genos EI on absolute terms brings in concerns. In order to address this deficiency MSCEIT and SREIS standard scores were also compared based on sample statistics (in addition to absolute terms). MSCEIT standard scores were reformulated based on sample statistics, and the same was adopted to reformulate SREIS scores. Author is thankful to the verification received from David Caruso, a co-author of MSCEIT of the accuracy of this procedure (personal communication).

MSCEIT version 2 provides two main options in scoring. They are called as General (Consensus) and Expert. General type is based on the correct answers selected by the group norm. Expert type is based on the correct answers selected by a panel of experts (psychologists) (MSCEIT, User's Manual, 2002/2012).There are also options to adjust (correct) the EI score based on Age, Gender, Ethnicity or any combination of them as depicted below in table 4.6.

Table 4.6: MSCEIT scoring options

NORM OPTIONS (ScoreID)
General Type with No Correction = 1
General Type with Age = 2
General Type with Gender = 3
General Type with Ethnicity = 4
General Type with Age and Gender = 5
General Type with Age and Ethnicity = 6
General Type with Gender and Ethnicity = 7
General Type with Age Gender and Ethnicity = 8
Expert Type with No Correction = 9
Expert Type with Age = 10
Expert Type with Gender = 11
Expert Type with Ethnicity = 12
Expert Type with Age and Gender = 13
Expert Type with Age and Ethnicity = 14
Expert Type with Gender and Ethnicity = 15
Expert Type with Age Gender and Ethnicity = 16

Source: MECEIT User's Manual, 2002/2012

4.3.2 Measurement of other constructs

All the constructs that were utilized as assessment tools (depicted in table 4.7) have been scientifically established, in terms of the construct validity and reliability. Established measurements were selected for greater validity of empirical findings. Two established relatively new constructs have been involved in the study. One is the OSE construct (A 06 items short version of the OSE scale, of Schyns & Von Collani, 2002). It has been successfully tested in differing cultural connotations, and used in different language contexts (German: Moser, Schaffner,

and Heinle, 2005; Schyns, Paul, Mohr, and Blank, 2005; Chinese: Chin, 2003; and Dutch: Claes et al., 2002) internationally (Rigotti, Schyns & Mohr, 2008, p. 251).

Table 4.7 Measurement scales

Variable	Construct	Measurement Scale
Managerial Self Efficacy	Occupational Self Efficacy	A Short Version (06 items) of the Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale: Schyns & Von Collani, 2002
Managing Emotions	Emotional Management	Section D, MSCEIT V2.0 developed by Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002
	Emotional Relations	Section H, MSCEIT V2.0 developed by Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002
	Managing Emotion (Self)	Four (04) items of the modified Brackett SREIS, Brackett et. al 2006
	Social Management	Four (04) items of the modified Brackett SREIS, Brackett et. al 2006
	Emotional Self-Management	Five (05) items of Genos EI Inventory Concise Version, Gignac, 2008
	Emotional Management of others	Four (04) items of Genos EI Inventory Concise Version, Gignac, 2008
	Emotional Self-Control	Four (04) items of Genos EI Inventory Concise Version, Gignac, 2008
Career Success	Career Satisfaction	A composite scale consisting three items from Career Satisfaction scale of Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley 1990, the one referent assessment of Abele and Wiese (2008) and Abele and Spurk (2009), and the scale data.
	Career achievement	An objective index developed by

		the author based on career progress
	Composite Index	A composite index developed by the author based on career satisfaction and career achievement
Career Anchors	Security and Stability	Six items scale from Career Anchors Self-Assessment of Schein & Maanen, 2013
Career Experience	Career Experience	Actual, Scale data
Work place, and Job Experience	Work place, and Job Experience	Actual, Scale data
Leadership factors	Transformational Leadership	The 20 items scale from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, (Form 5X – Short), Avolio and Bass
Team work	Citizenship Performance Behaviour	Citizenship Performance 06 items Scale, Poropat & Jones, 2009
Relationship with the immediate superior	Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX) Model	Seven item scale of LMX model, Graen, Uhl-Bien, 1995
Organizational Commitment	Affective commitment	Eight items Affective commitment scale in Organizational Commitment Scale, Allen and Meyer, 1990
Socio-demographics	Gender, Marital Status, and Nationality	Nominal data
	Age	Actual, Scale data
	Educational level	A composite scale developed by the author based on ISCED-97 Index

Source: Developed by author based on extensive literature review

The other construct was related to the measurement of CPB. It was measured using the Poropat and Jones (2009) scale, which unlike most Citizenship Performance measures was specifically designed to be unifactorial, in line with

recent meta-analyses of the structure of CPB (Hoffman et al., 2007; Lepine et al., 2002). The Poropat and Jones scale also has similar internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha), superior internal factor structure, and better external validity than other commonly used measures of Citizenship Performance (Poropat and Jones, 2009).

4.3.3 Formulation of new scales and indices

Career Progress and Career Achievement

Career progress of an individual involves objective and subjective components. Objective career success has been defined by verifiable attainments by an impartial third party. Occupational status of respondents indicated merits over other established objective measures such as pay, and promotions as discussed in 2.41. Accordingly, career success of the respondents is measured by linking it to their incumbent occupational status (job status and designations). It was measured through an objectively designed continuous scale ranging from one (1) to seven (7) based on the incumbent occupational status of respondents. As all the respondents have been selected from managerial grades, the ranking started from junior managerial grade upwards to the senior managerial (executive) positions. Chief Executive Officers (CEO's), Heads of organisations, and the members of Director Boards have been excluded in the study, to avoid any theoretical and practical implications as mentioned in 4.2. Accordingly they are not included in the career progress scale, which is depicted below.

Table 4.8: Career Progress Scale related to the Managerial grades

Managerial Grade/ Category	Starting point/marks	Ending point/marks
a.) Junior Managerial	1.00	1.99
b.) Middle level Managerial	2.00	3.49
c.) Senior Managerial levels		
i.) Senior Lower level	3.50	4.99
ii.) Senior Intermediate	5.00	5.99
iii.) Senior Upper level	6.00	7.00

Source: Authors impressions

The relative value of recognition attached to each respondent's incumbent job position in the organisational hierarchy has been the basis of awarding points in

the career progress scale, mentioned above in Table 4.8. Above is a continuous scale that was developed exclusively for this study. It has given continuous values ranging from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 7. As indicated above, each managerial grade, viz. Junior, Middle level, and Senior carried a range of scores for each respondent. The range of scores continued both within and across the managerial grades. Senior managerial grade was further categorized into three levels, viz. senior lower, senior intermediate, and senior upper. Scale has been designed to reflect the relative recognition (and the effort required) in achieving those levels in an organisational context. The limited opportunity available in those hierarchical levels has been also considered in the scale development. The main source of information has been from the Human Resources (HR) departments of the respective organisations for the scale development, and awarding of marks/scores to the respective respondents. Job profile of the respondents, employees reporting to them, position within the departmental settings, experience and expertise in the job position, and the relative importance & positioning attached to the respondent's job tasks in the organizational context were helpful in addition to the discussions with the respective HR managers. In the instances of lacking some of the aforementioned information, the informal job related information obtained through observations and discussions both during and in the process of interviewing each respondent have been relied upon. The fact that all the respondents have been exclusively interviewed in person by the author himself in Sri Lanka, and by a well-trained Czech native speaker (90% of the time by the doctoral research supervisor) in the presence of the author helped greatly in this regard. The scores obtained by each respondent indicated their career progress in an objective basis. It could be compared across all of the respondents based on the continuous scale of scores achieved by them.

Career achievement of the respondents is measured by using the career progress scores mentioned in the above paragraph. Career achievement of the respondents has been measured based on two criterions. They are as follows:

a.) Career Achievement with respect to the respondent's career span/experience (CAtoCE): Career Progress/ Career Experience

b.) Career Achievement with respect to the respondent's employable span (CAtoEmS): Career Progress/Employable Span

Employable span of a respondent is calculated by reducing 18 years from his/her present age. In many instances employable age is calculated from 15 to 64 (eg. Human Development Report, World Factbook, OECD reports etc). For the purpose of this study 18 years has been considered as the starting point of employable life, deviating from the 15 years. Main reason for this is due to the fact that all the respondents of the study who belong to managerial grades indicating their involvement in education at least up to the completion of their high school qualifications. Thus it justifies approximately 18 years for the completion of high school education. It also minimises possible anomalies to those respondents who have spent additional years in education pursuing university degrees/professional qualifications.

Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction of the respondents is measured in twofold. They are: a.) Overall career satisfaction of a respondent expressed as a percentage, b.) Career satisfaction of a respondent expressed as a score based on specific items answered on a 5 point Likert scale. Above two measures are used to supplement the deficiencies in each of the single measurements.

a.) Overall career satisfaction expressed as a percentage: Respondents are asked to express their career satisfaction with regard to all aspects 'that matters' to them. Literature suggest that individuals have their own ways of valuing satisfaction in chosen careers, and that their 'career aspirations' plays a role in that. An attempt to develop a comprehensive scale to incorporate all the components of career success is not only a complex process, but also defies measurement parsimony. A single statement was included in the questionnaire to capture the overall career satisfaction of the respondents. It was worded as follows: "When I look at my career path (i.e. past and present job positions), the overall satisfaction that I feel about it is ____ %". It was a simple and easy mechanism for the respondents to indicate their career satisfaction. However, a potential deficiency in this measurement of career satisfaction would be the lack of specificity in guiding the self-evaluation of respondents' career aspects. A second measurement on career satisfaction is designed to address this in the study.

b.) Career satisfaction expressed as a score based on specific items answered on a 5 point Likert scale: A two component scale consisting of four statements was designed to measure the above. Three of the four statements are based on the career satisfaction scale of Greenhaus et al, which is given below. This scale rated on a five-point Likert scale (1=not at all to 5=very much).

Table: 4.9 Career satisfaction scale items by Greenhaus et al., 1990.

Item	Statement
1	I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
2	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
3	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
4	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
5	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement of new skills

*Source: Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990)***.**

Above scale (refer table 4.9) developed by Greenhaus and his team (1990) is considered as an established scale in measuring career success. However, it has deficiencies of its' own. The first statement is fairly vague not only in the construct, but also in the placement as the first item in a five item statement scale. As the overall career satisfaction has been already measured as a percentage, this statement also become redundant as a scale item for the purpose of this research. It was not selected for the scale used in the questionnaire. Second statement above also sounds general and bit vague. It overlaps with the first statement to a greater deal in context. The context of 'personal growth' was incorporated to address both the deficiencies of overlapping, and vagueness. The modified statement has been numbered as item 3 in the career satisfaction scheme developed for the study (refer table 4.10). The statement numbered item 3 in Greenhaus et al statement has referred only to satisfaction related to income, ignoring the intangible benefits. This has been addressed and enhanced by specifically referring to "Salary & Benefits" in the scale used for the study. This is indicated as the first item in the satisfaction scheme. The placement as the first item was due to the fact that most employees

recall income as a 'top of the mind item' in surveys related to satisfaction. The statement numbered item 4 in the Greenhaus et al statement sounds vague, and it has been omitted. The last statement (item 5) has been improved twofold. That is incorporating the term "Knowledge" in addition to the skills, and by deletion of the adjective "new" in front of the skills. It is intended to extend the advancement of existing skills and knowledge. The improved statement is included as item 3 in the scale developed by the author. In essence, the three statements have incorporated satisfaction derived through personal growth, professional advancement, and salary & benefits in a respondent's career.

Component one section of the scheme of statements has captured only self-referent criteria. In component second of the scheme a fourth item statement related to other-referent career satisfaction was included to address this deficiency. It was adopted from the work of Abele and Wiese (2008) and Abele and Spurk (2009), who have operationalized other-referent subjective career success. They have set up a comparison of self-career development with former fellow graduates. Their pre-tests had indicated former fellow graduates (batch mates) as a highly valid comparison target. They have formulated the statement as follows: "Compared with your former fellow graduates, how successful do you think your career development has been so far?". Respondents had been asked to base their responses on a five-point Likert rating scale of (1: less successful; 5: more successful). A similar statement has been used in the career satisfaction scheme replacing the words "fellow graduates" by "batch mates/colleagues". This change intended to incorporate non-graduates as well. There is also a tendency among youth to seek employment opportunities just after high school, and to acquire qualifications later. The statement was also not directed as a question, but a proposition. The career satisfaction scheme developed by the author for this study is depicted in table 4.10. Respondents are asked to base their responses on a five-point Likert rating scale of (1: Never; 5: Always).

Table: 4.10 Two component measurement construct of career satisfaction

Item	Statement
Component One	
1	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for a substantial income (Salary & Benefits).
2	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement of knowledge and skills.
3	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the personal growth of my life.
Component Two	
1 (4)	Compared with my former batch mates/colleagues, I have been very successful so far in my career development.

Source: Developed by the Author based on Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley (1990), Abele & Wiese (2008), and Abele & Spurk (2009)

Career satisfaction index (CSI) is formulated by incorporating the three measurements of career satisfaction. They are the two component (i.e 3 item, and single item statements, and the overall career satisfaction as a percentage. They are converted into three ordinal scales with a maximum score of 5. Conversion of the respondents' career satisfaction based on the 3 item summative scale with a five point Likert scale for response is done by dividing the overall score by 3. It will then become comparable (on the basis of scores) with the single item scale of career satisfaction (i.e. 4^{th} statement mentioned above). The overall career satisfaction (which has a scale from 0% to 100%) score will be divided by 20 resulting in a maximum career satisfaction score of 5. Three of these measurements are given equal weightages in the CSI, contributing an overall maximum score of 15 in an ordinal scale.

Composite Index of Career Success

Composite Index of Career Success (CICS) has been specifically defined for the purpose of this study. It is a hybrid measurement combining subjective and objective measures of career success. There are inherent limitations in measuring career success by being limited only to an objective or to a subjective measurement. Researchers suggest the measurement of subjective career success, in conjunction with objective attainments, as an effective method of addressing this deficiency (Heslin, 2005). The CICS index has identified career success as a

combination of objective and subjective career success, i.e. career achievement and career satisfaction of individuals. The two subjective measures of career satisfaction are based on the career satisfaction expressed by a respondent. Objective measure of career success is based on the two forms of career achievement scores, viz. CAtoCE, and CAtoEmS discussed above. Development of CICS incorporating both forms of career achievements provides further insights. Accordingly CICS has been developed into two categories, namely a.) CICS based on Career experience of a respondent (CICS-CE), and b.) CICS based on Employable span of a respondent (CICS-EmS). In the formulation of a respondent's CICS, 50% of the weightages have been given to the objective and subjective measurements separately. Herein, CICS has been developed incorporating the respondent's career achievement, and career satisfaction combined in equal proportions. Overall career satisfaction (increased as a %) contributes to 50% of the weightage in the CICS. The other 50% weightage of CICS is formed by the more objective career achievement scales, discussed above. It is done by dividing all the career achievement scores by the highest proportional score among them. Addition of the 50% weightage score of the more subjective overall career satisfaction, and the more objective career achievement (50% overall weightage) formulates the continuous CICS score ranging from a minimum of 0.00 to a maximum of 100. The formulation of the two categories of CICS can be depicted as follows:

a.) CICSCE = 50% score of CAtoCE + 50% score of overall career satisfaction. This will also be referred to as 'CCSI1'

b.) CICSEmS = 50% score of CAtoEmS + 50% score of overall career satisfaction. This will also be referred to as 'CCSI2'

4.3.4 Structure of the questionnaire

Data collection was conducted through a well-structured questionnaire. It was designed into 9 mini sections labelled from A to I as follows.

Section A – Background information (Questions 1 to 9)

Section B- TFL measurement scale– (Questions 10 to 29) . These questions are kept in blank in the questionnaire attached in appendices, due to patent issues.

Section C- CPB measurement scale - (Questions 30 to 35)

Section D – RIS measurement scale- (Questions 36 to 42)

Section E – OSE measurement scale - (Questions 43 to 48)

Section F – Career satisfaction measurement scale - (Questions 49 to 52). Overall career satisfaction has been measured as a percentage in question 53.

Section G – AOC measurement scale - (Questions 54 to 61)

Section H – Measurement of Managing Emotions (Strategic EI) (Questions 62 to 82). A detailed description of items related to SREIS , and Genos are mentioned in table 4.5 above.

Section I – JSCA measurement scale.

All the questions (except in Section A, and Questions 49 to 52) were based on established instruments as indicated in table 4.7 above. They were in the form of summative scale, which facilitated the respondents answering. They were employed to address issues relating to validity and reliability of data.

MSCEIT was administered using the MSCEIT booklets based on paper and pencil. Those questions are not indicated in the appendix (with questionnaire) due to patent rights. MSCEIT was administered separately from the questionnaire in the presence of the author.

4.3.5 Translation and pretesting of questionnaire

The translation of questionnaires from English to Czech and Sinhala languages were conducted using a back to back translation method (Werner, 1986). First, the questionnaires were carefully translated from their original English versions into Czech and Sinhala languages by competent persons. Second, other professional persons who were fluent in both languages reviewed this translation. Third, a back translation of the instruments by a bilingual person was performed. It was continued until the translators were satisfied with it (Werner, Campbell, 1972).

However, Sinhala version was not utilized in Sri Lanka as all the managers opted for the English version. They usually carry out banking duties using English as the working language. However, Czech bank managers opted to Czech version of the questionnaire in the survey.

Sekaran (2009) noted that a questionnaire should be modified based on pretesting among academic & industry experts and pilot study before commencing the data collection. This helps to iron out any ambiguities and to avoid response bias (Zikmund, 2003). It helps to confirm whether the respondents are able to identify the technical terminologies (Mortanges et. al., 1999). Questionnaire was modified incorporating the ideas of key informants and selected academics related to HR management. Thereafter, a pilot test was carried out among 10 managers to ascertain, whether the respondents are able to comprehend the questions so that they are able to express the desired responses without any confusion.

4.4 Data Collection

Data collection was conducted based on prior appointments. As mentioned in 4.2 above HR managers were contacted from the randomly selected Banking and Finance organizations. Respondent managers were selected based on the multi-stage stratified random sampling criteria mentioned in 4.2, in consultation with HR managers. All the managers were met in person by the author and they were assured of their anonymity and confidentiality of responses. In Czech Republic respondent managers were met with a native Czech speaker, who happened to be the supervisor of this research most of the time.

4.5 Data Analysis and interpretation

Descriptive and inferential analyses have been conducted with multiple comparisons involving a multitude of factors using multifarious EI assessments. MSCEIT version 2 has been used as the principal assessment of EI. Multivariate regression analysis, t tests, ANOVA, and EFA statistical tests have been employed for inferences through testing hypothesis. Multinomial logistic regression analysis was used to measure the relationship with OSE due to the categorical nature of data. All the analysis has been discussed in detail in chapter 5. The moderating and mediating effects of strategic EI on career success have been explored employing

Sobel's test and bootstrapping techniques. SPSS version 19 was used as the principal analytical tool.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed the research design and methodological analysis. Sample designing, and the measurement of research constructs were discussed in detail. A new research scale and two indices have been introduced. Collection of data has been discussed along with questionnaire designing. A brief description of data analysis has been provided with detailed information provided in chapter five.

5 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter is focused on analyzing and interpretation of the data gathered through survey and interviewing. The steps taken for organizing data paying special attention to the assumption of multivariate analysis techniques have been specifically mentioned. The exploratory factor analysis is followed by descriptive statistics in the next section. Finally, the inferential analysis and interpretation of results (for causal and correlational effects) using advanced statistical techniques have been discussed.

5.1. Overview of data collection and processing

As mentioned above in chapter 4, all the respondents (122) have been exclusively interviewed in person by the author himself in Sri Lanka. Czech managers (64) were interviewed by a well-trained Czech native speaker (90% of the time by Ales Gregar, the doctoral research supervisor) in the presence of the author. This was a highly engaging time consuming process. Nevertheless, it ensured that data were collected completely and properly. It saved any concerns of non-response and data cleaning.

5.1.1. Data entry and handling of missing data

Data analysis was initiated with data entry and examination of missing values. Missing values have a significant impact on the output of data analysis (Hair et.al, (2010). As mistakes of data entries are possible consequences of missing values, all the entries were double checked both through self-referent and other referent criterions. This negated the instances of feeding wrong data into the Microsoft Excel and SPSS packages. However, 10 missing value cases were recognized and the recommended imputation techniques were adopted in handling them. ‘Hot or cold deck’ imputation technique was adopted to handle missing data. In this approach the missing datum was substituted through the value of another observation in the sample that was deemed similar. Each observation of missing data was paired with another case that is similar to the specific variable based on the research construct.

5.1.2. Checking for outliers

Outliers in multiple observations cannot be identified with analyzing variables independently. Multivariate outliers were examined based on Mahalanobis distance estimates (Mahalanobis, 1936 as cited in Field, 2009). Only a single instance of outlier cases was detected from Mahalanobis D^2 with a probability less than or equal to 0.001 and eliminated those cases from the data sheet with the purpose of maintaining more representative samples. Elimination of that solitary case may not affect the validity of the study.

5.2. Testing the conformity with assumptions

Multivariate analysis is based on certain assumptions for effective inferences of their output (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). When these assumptions are not satisfied the results of data analysis loses applicability, and becomes rather misleading. Departure from the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, linearity and multicolinirity tend to diminish the correlation between variables (Hair et.al. 2010). Data that have been used in this study have been tested for the conformity with the aforementioned assumptions. The details of them have been given below.

5.2.1. Normality

Normality is the most basic assumption in multivariate analysis of data (Sekaran and Bougie, 2011). If the data indicates a significantly large variation from the normal distribution, the resulting statistical tests will be invalid. The F and t statistics are based on normal distribution of data (Sekeran, 2009). Normality of data was tested using the Z values of skewness and kurtosis, in addition to employing the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnow test. All the variables were tested separately for Czech and Sri Lankan sample populations. Hence the fourteen variables yielded twenty eight tests of normality. As depicted in tables 5.1a and 5.1b, nineteen normality tests were within conformity. One variable, i.e. CCSI2 for Czech sample was transformed successfully. The remaining four variables (eight cases) could not be transformed successfully. They were tested through descriptive and non-parametric tests. Majority of the variables conformed to both tests of normality. Conformity to normality based on one test, i.e. Z values of skewness and

kurtosis was considered sufficient. This was influenced by the fact that not everyone agrees transforming data as a good practice (Glass, Peckham, and Sanders, 1972). Also tests like F – test in ANOVA is said to be a robust test (Field, 2009). Data that conformed to normality were continued to test for other assumptions that are discussed below.

5.2.2. Linearity

Linearity of the data set is another important assumption in multivariate techniques (Hair et al., 2010). Nonlinear effects could under estimate the strength of relationships among variables of a model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Scatter plots and residual plots of the variables were drawn to identify any nonlinear characteristics. There were no nonlinear relationships among the twenty (20) variables, including in the already log transformed CCSI2-Czech. There is freedom to select pairs of variables (in linearity testing) and they were scattered around zero point with oval shapes in random selection.

5.2.3. Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity of data were assessed on a univariate basis by comparing the variance of metric variable across levels of non-metric variables. For this purpose, each metric variable was examined across the three main non-metric variables in the data set. As shown in table 5.2, CCSI1 indicated patterns of heteroscedasticity with Job status (of respondents) and SREIS2 indicated patterns of heteroscedasticity with Nationality. However, there were no further analyses involving the two respective combinations of variables. Thus the reported heteroscedasticities were deemed redundant in the context of this research.

Table 5.1(a): Test of normality

Variable	Skewness		Kurtosis		Normality test		Transformation	Sig after remedy
	Statistics	Z value	Statistics	Z value	Statistics	Sig.		
Composite Career Success Index1-CZE	0.799	2.672	0.453	0.768	0.097	0.200*		
Composite Career Success Index1- LKA	0.294	1.342	0.729	1.676	0.103	0.003		
Composite Career Success Index 2 -CZE	0.851	2.846	0.724	1.227	0.121	0.020	Log transformation	0.200*
Composite Career Success Index 2 - LKA	-0.195	-0.890	1.523	3.501	0.075	0.086		
SS - Genos EI– ESM & EMO - CZE	-0.351	-1.174	-0.085	-0.144	0.057	0.200*		
SS - Genos EI– ESM & EMO -LKA	-0.149	-0.680	-0.240	-0.552	0.054	0.200*		
SS - SREIS Managing of Emotions - CZE	-0.296	-0.990	-0.386	-0.654	0.080	0.200*		
SS - SREIS Managing of Emotions - LKA	-0.361	-1.648	0.771	1.772	0.073	0.174		
SS-MSCEIT Managing Emotions -CZE	0.890	2.976	1.204	2.041	0.087	0.200*		
SS MSCEIT Managing Emotions-LKA	0.420	1.919	-0.141	-0.324	0.096	0.008		
Age - CZECH	0.488	1.632	0.378	0.641	0.073	0.200*		
Age - LKA	0.475	2.169	0.524	1.204	0.054	0.200*		
Career Experience - CZ	0.738	2.468	1.517	2.571	0.096	0.200*		
Career Experience - LK	0.527	2.406	0.867	1.993	0.077	0.071		

* This is a lower bound of the true significance

Table 5.1(b): Test of normality

Variable	Skewness		Kurtosis		Normality test		Remarks
	Statistics	Z value	Statistics	Z value	Statistics	Sig.	
SS – SREIS3 (Self normed to MSCEIT)-CZ	-0.173	-0.58	-0.306	-0.52	0.844	0.200*	
SS – SREIS3 (Self normed to MSCEIT)-LK	-0.416	-1.90	0.662	1.52	0.705	0.200*	
SS – SREIS2 (relative to sample's MSCEIT) -CZ	-0.174	-0.58	-0.305	-0.52	0.846	0.200*	
SS – SREIS2 (relative to sample's MSCEIT) -CZ	-0.416	-1.90	0.663	1.52	0.707	0.200*	
TFL of managers - CZE	-0.691	-2.31	1.140	1.93	0.060	0.045	
TFL of managers - LKA	-0.287	-1.31	-0.265	-0.61	0.091	0.018	
Career Achievement (CAtoCE) - CZE	0.940	3.14	-0.144	-0.24	0.157	0.000	Could not be remedied through data transformation
Career Achievement (CAtoCE) - LKA	1.151	5.26	0.885	2.03	0.128	0.000	Do
Career Achievement (CAtoES) - CZE	0.954	3.19	0.059	0.10	0.148	0.001	Do
Career Achievement (CAtoES) - LKA	1.211	5.53	1.838	4.22	0.121	0.000	Do
Career Progress -CZE	1.671	5.59	2.443	4.14	0.290	0.000	Do
Career Progress -LKA	1.284	5.86	1.192	2.74	0.269	0.000	Do
Overall Career Satisfaction -CZE	-0.969	-3.24	2.363	4.00	0.151	0.001	Do
Overall Career Satisfaction – LKA	-1.738	-7.936	5.340	12.27	0.196	0.000	Do

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Table 5.2: Test of homogeneity of variance

Variable	Factor					
	Nationality		Gender		Job Status	
	Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.
Age of the respondents	1.495	0.223	1.871	0.173	0.627	0.535
Career Experience of respondents	0.254	0.615	2.209	0.139	0.725	0.486
Transformational Leadership	3.991	0.047	1.388	0.240	1.117	0.330
Composite Career Success Index1	0.690	0.407	0.976	0.324	8.025	0.000
Composite Career Success Index 2	0.138	0.710	3.466	0.064	7.050	0.001
SS - Genos EI– ESM & EMO	0.457	0.500	2.426	0.121	0.358	0.700
SS - SREIS Managing of Emotions	0.922	0.338	0.071	0.790	0.472	0.625
SS-MSCEIT Managing Emotions	3.879	0.056	2.086	0.150	0.292	0.747
SS – SREIS3 (Self normed to MSCEIT)	0.051	0.822	1.741	0.189	0.455	0.635
SS – SREIS2 (relative to the sample's MSCEIT)	7.896	0.005	1.469	0.227	1.418	0.245

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Table 5.3 Test of multicolinearity

Variable	VIF	Tolerance
Transformational leadership - CZE	2.865	0.349
Transformational leadership - LKA	1.575	0.636
Citizenship Performance Behaviour- CZE	2.658	0.376
Citizenship Performance Behaviour- LKA	3.973	0.252
Affective organizational attachment- CZE	4.140	0.242
Affective organizational attachment-LKA	2.560	0.390
Relationship with Immediate Superior- CZE	4.210	0.238
Relationship with Immediate Superior- LKA	2.899	0.345
Job Stability (as a career anchor) - CZE	3.684	0.271
Job Stability (as a career anchor) - LKA	2.775	0.360

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

5.2.4 Multicolinearity

Existence of multicolinearity with some variables in a research model tends to inflate the standard errors (Hair et al, 2010). It adversely affects statistical tests of significance that result in the lack of validity of results. Multicolinearity of data was tested based on the two criterions, namely Tolerance Statistics and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). The results are given in table 5.3. The conditions of tests are as follows. If the largest VIF is greater than 10 there is cause for concern (Bowerman & O' Connell, 1990, Myers, 1990). If the average VIF is substantially greater than 1, then the regression may be biased (Bowerman & O' Connell, 1990) Tolerance below 0.1 indicates a serious problem, and Tolerence below 0.2 indicates a potential problem (Menard, 1995). The statistics of the variables suggest that data is free of the multicolinearity issue.

5.3 Reliability Test

As discussed in chapter 04, assessing the internal consistency and reliability of each research construct is necessary. Main research constructs and major antecedents were assessed using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Constructs with established validity and reliability parameters were selected in finalizing the items to be included in the questionnaire. After data collection Cronbach's alpha test was

conducted to assure the reliability of the responses prior to conducting the descriptive, causal, and correlational analyses of the study.

Table 5.4: Test of reliability

Construct	No of items	Cronbach's Alpha	
		CZE	LKA
Genos EI Emotional Self-Management	05	0.553	**0.493**
Genos EI Emotional Management of Others	04	0.708	0.594
Genos EI Managing Emotions	09	0.760	0.650
SREIS Managing Emotion (self)	04	0.716	0.730
SREIS Social Management	04	0.757	0.744
SREIS Managing Emotions	08	0.835	0.813
MSCEIT EI Emotion Management	20	**0.445**	**0.388**
MSCEIT EI Emotional Relations	09	**0.427**	**0.416**
MSCEIT Managing Emotions	29	0.557	0.538
Transformational leadership	20	0.920	0.744
Citizenship Performance Behaviour	06	0.766	0.596
Occupational Self Efficacy	06	0.783	0.762
Affective Organizational attachment	08	0.629	0.811
Relationship with Immediate Superior	07	0.897	0.878
Career Success	03	0.839	0.748
Job Stability as a Career Anchor	05	0.737	0.816

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

The results are depicted in table 5. 6. According to the results Cronbach's alpha values of each construct ranged from .0.388 to 0.920. MSCEIT -Expert D (Emotion management) and H (Emotion Relations) constructs and Genos EI Emotional Self-Management (Sri Lanka) constructs recorded the lowest internal reliabilities. These are not acceptable internal reliabilities in scientific research. However, the internal reliabilities of MSCEIT for Strategic EI (i.e. Managing emotions) indicated much improved statistics of 0.557 and 0.538 for Czech and Sri Lankan groups. These readings border on the margins of acceptability. Genos and SREIS also recorded acceptable internal reliabilities for strategic EI (i.e. Managing Emotions). Study was not affected by those poor internal reliabilities (indicated in bold), as the unit measurement of EI was focused only at strategic EI (i.e. Managing Emotions) and not on the two sub areas of it. Specifically, MSCEIT and

Genos are established measurement scales which have been used extensively over the world with high internal reliabilities. MSCEIT is a highly reliable test that it has internal reliabilities varying from 0.93 (for overall construct) to 0.64 (for task areas) as mentioned in MSCEIT User's manual (2002/2012, p.35). In the global normative sample of Genos EI Concise version based on 4,775 adults worldwide, the internal reliabilities of ESM and EMO have been an identical Cronbach's alpha of 0.74 (Palmer, 2009, p.114). Kline (1999), (as cited in Field, 2009) mentions that values even below 0.7 can realistically be expected in measuring psychological constructs. Great majority of the scales had sound internal reliability with Cronbach's alpha values of 0.7 and over. It also helped that all the construct scales (other than for career success scale, and Job characteristics scale) have been adopted from established measurement constructs. Thus the internal consistency and reliability of construct scales could be considered acceptable for the study.

5.4 Non Responsive Bias and Response Bias

Data collection was the most demanding and time consuming activity of the research. It was managed through preplanned appointments with managers of respective organisations. Only deviations were rescheduling less than 5% of the overall appointments in a mutually agreeable time with the respondent managers. Human resources department and contact managers of the organisations obliged with the preplanned schedules and appointments. A comprehensively planned schedule of surveys and interviews were successfully conducted to fulfill the expectations of data collection in all dimensions. It yielded in a 100% fulfilment of data responses and concerns of non-responsive bias were deemed redundant.

Response biases cited in the literature vary from deviant responding to consistent responding. Socially desirable responding (SDR) has been defined as the tendency to give positive self-descriptions, and is identified as a prominent response bias (Paulhus, 2002). SDR measurement instruments, used for factor analyses have recorded two factors (Borkenau & Ostendorf, 1989). Paulhus (1991) mentions of one cluster associated with *Alpha*, and the other cluster is identified to be associated with *Gamma*. Damarin and Messick (1965) have outlined that the aforementioned two SDR factors represent (a.) self-deceptive positivity, and (b) impression management. Self-deceptive positivity signifies "an honest, but overly

positive self-presentation" (Paulhus, 1991). The term 'impression management' means a kind of (self-made) presentation to impress an audience, which is more conscious, deliberate, and could vary according to the situational contexts, and the existing motives (Paulhus, 1991). Research indicates those having chronic impression management tend to fake high (Paulhus, 2002). It is necessary to apply control measures to maintain the validity of response output under situational contexts. There are different ways of managing this and the most pragmatic is improving the anonymity of the respondent in the data collection (surveying and interviewing) interface/ environment, and to assure the confidentiality of the responses. Steps were taken to assure this as described in chapter 4. In addition there are mechanisms to remedy SDR. Selected statements (questions) were reversed stated to manage the direction of scoring through the change of polarity of the items. Another step taken in this direction in the study has been to define categories based on the distribution of respondents' scores. Percentile scores of the respective construct are based in the overall categorization. Categorising starts from the lowest score obtained by a respondent (not from the lowest score of the summative scale) and the scores falling in the first ten percentile (10% score) form the first category of the construct, named as 'poor'. From 11^{th} to the 25^{th} percentile is the second category ('low'), from 26^{th} to the 50^{th} percentile is the third category ('satisfactory'), from 51^{st} to the 75^{th} percentile is the fourth category ('high'), and from 76^{th} to the 100^{th} percentile is the 5^{th} category.

5.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA was conducted with the purpose of examining whether the four item career satisfaction scale developed for the study (which has been described in chapter 4.3) behaves as per the expectations. It intended to measure the discriminate validity of the measurement scale newly formulated. Hair et al. (2010) indicate the numerous limitations of using summative scales, like the newly formulated scale of career satisfaction, in factor analysis. Further they emphasize that sample size should be 100 or more for factor analysis, which has been satisfied only by the Sri Lankan sample of managers (N= 122). In the light of above limitations the purpose of EFA is more an academic exercise to verify the validity of the new construct with reference to the sample of respondents. All the other constructs, which have been used for the study, have been well established measures with extensive analyses by many scholars in many parts of the world. Such that not involving them in an EFA does not affect the validity of research findings by employing them. They were not tested for EFA in this study due to the obvious limitations mentioned above.

5.5.1 EFA of the career satisfaction scale

Visual examinations of the correlation among the scale items were made to determine the extent of statistical significance. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) correlation coefficients should be significant in order to determine the factorability of the data set. All four variable items in the matrix correlated well and none of the correlation coefficients were large enough to consider eliminating any questions at this stage. Bartlett's measures employed for testing the null hypothesis that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix. If the Rmatrix were an identity matrix then all correlation coefficients would be zero. Accordingly the significance of was tested for significance. Results of the Chi-Square test implied that the R-matrix is not an identity matrix and that there are some relationships between the variables. Chi-Square statistic of 5.92 of Bartlett's test was significant ($p<0.01$), indicating the appropriateness of the factor analysis.

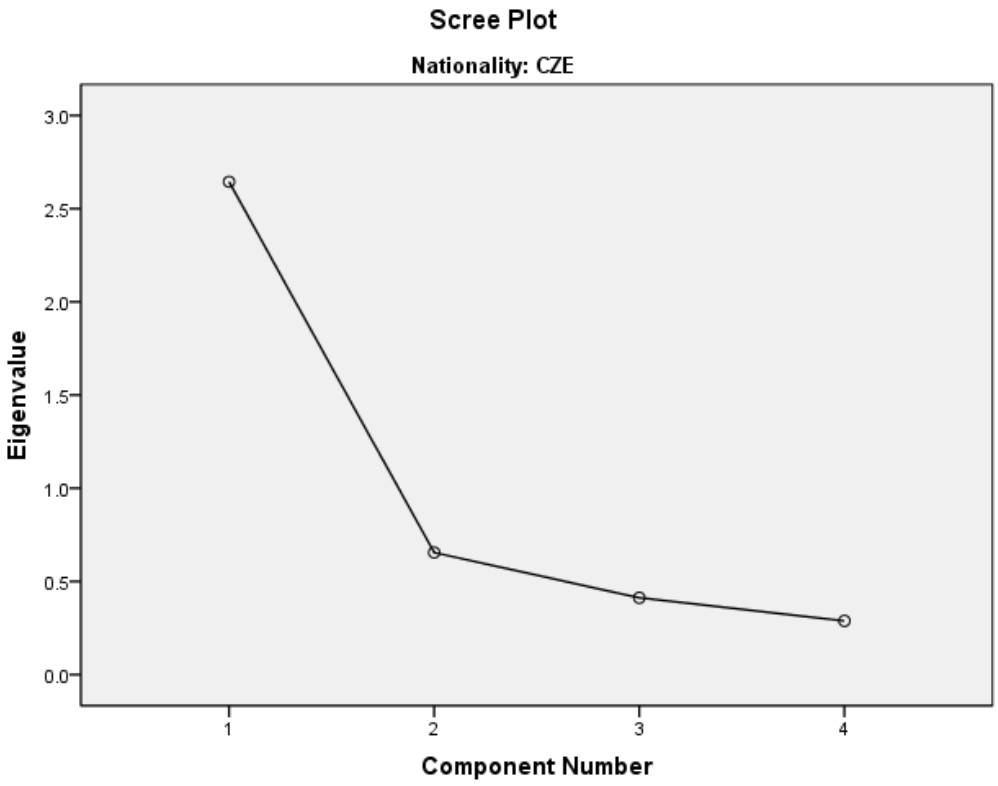


Figure: 5.1 Scree Plot of the career satisfaction construct scale of Czech managers (N = 64)

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Principle component analysis was conducted for the extraction of factors. Scree plots for EFA of Czech and Sri Lankan managers are depicted in figures 5.1, and 5.2 respectively. As expected the fourth item of the scale (other referent criteria) reported an eigenvalue greater than 01 in both samples. Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization was the more appropriate rotation process due to the possible correlation of two factors (i.e. self-referent and other-referent) of the scale (Field, 2009). Factor loadings are depicted in tables 5.5 and 5.8 respectively for Czech and Sri Lankan managers. Factor loadings further confirm the new construct scale discussed in chapter 4.3. Component correlation matrix for the two samples depicted in tables 5.6 and 5.7 agree with the above observations. Reliability test was conducted among the first 3 item scales for the sample of Czech managers. Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.839 indicated strong internal reliability.

Table 5.5 Summary of EFA results of career satisfaction construct scale for Czech managers

Statement	Rotated Factor Loadings		Commu-nalities
	Self-referent	Other referent	
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for a substantial income (Salary & Benefits).	**.928**	-.127	.749
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement of knowledge and skills.	**.828**	.074	.767
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the personal growth of my life.	**.819**	.141	.799
Compared with my former batch mates/colleagues, I have been very successful so far in my career development.	.024	**.981**	.985
Eigenvalues *Percentage of variance*	2.64 66.11	0.66 16.37	

Extraction Method: Principal component Analysis
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Table 5.6: Component correlation matrix of Czech managers

Component	1	2
1	1.000	.469
2	.469	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal component Analysis
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

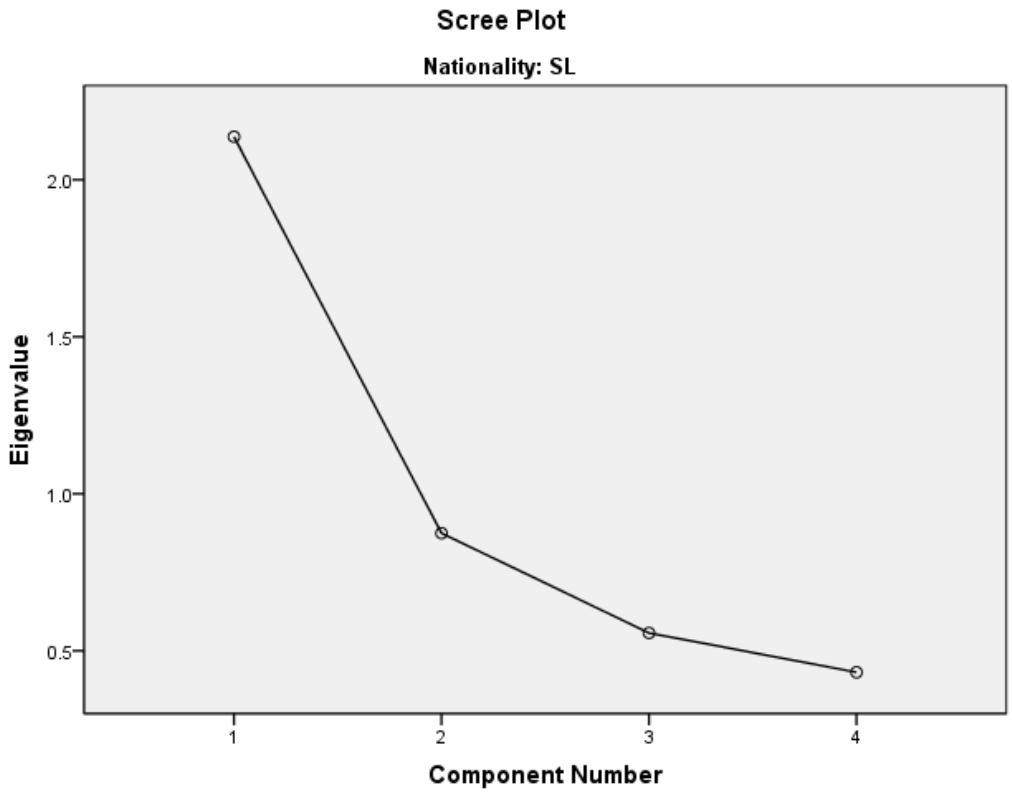


Figure: 5.2 Scree Plot of the career satisfaction construct scale of Sri Lankan managers (N = 122)
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Table 5.7: Component correlation matrix of Sri Lankan managers

Component	1	2
1	1.000	.264
2	.264	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal component Analysis
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Reliability test was conducted among the first 3 item scale items using the sample of Sri Lankan managers. Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.748 indicated sound internal reliability. It can be concluded that this two component scale for career satisfaction indicates sound parameters. However, it needs to be tested in a larger scale to be verified for inferential analysis. The use of this scale has been limited in the study as a component of the career satisfaction index.

Table 5.8: Summary of EFA results of career satisfaction construct scale for Sri Lankan Managers

Statement	Rotated Factor Loadings		Commu-nalities
	Self-referent	Other referent	
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for a substantial income (Salary & Benefits).	**.863**	-.114	.715
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement of knowledge and skills.	**.840**	.019	.707
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the personal growth of my life.	**.736**	.125	.605
Compared with my former batch mates/colleagues, I have been very successful so far in my career development.	.010	**.990**	.985
Eigenvalues	2.14	0.88	
Percentage of variance	53.43	21.86	

Extraction Method: Principal component Analysis,
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

5.6 Sample Characteristics

Table 5.9: Means and statistics of sample characteristics

Factor	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum (Years)	Minimum (Years)
Age - CZE	42.00	8.59	68.16	24.84
Age - LKA	42.43	8.09	59.41	26.75
Career Experience - CZE	18.98	8.43	49.00	4.67
Career Experience - LKA	20.32	8.18	38.00	5.42
Organisational tenure - CZE	9.75	6.66	23.00	1.00
Organisational tenure - LKA	15.97	9.64	37.00	2.00
Tenure in present job status - CZE	4.25	3.42	14.00	0.25
Tenure in present job status - LKA	3.71	2.93	15.58	0.08

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Sixty four (34.41%) Czech managers and 122 (65.59%) Sri Lankan managers participated in the study. They were considered as two separate sample populations for inferential analysis of the study. As depicted in table 5.9, average age of the respondents were nearly identical in both groups. However, the two populations contrasted in examining the dispersion of age pattern. Czech managers had a slightly positively skewed age distribution, and Sri Lankan managers had a slightly negatively skewed age distribution. Both samples were platykurtic in this respect as depicted in figures 5.3 and 5.4 below. Career experience was also similar among the two groups. The distribution of career experience was slightly positively skewed in both groups and platykurtic, as depicted in figures 5.5 and 5.6 below. Organisational tenure contrasted between the two groups. Sri Lankan managers indicated a higher tenure of almost 16 years in the present organization. Czech managers had an average of 10years organizational tenure in the present organization. Tenure in present job status was somewhat similar among the two groups. Both groups consisted of a higher proportion of males (refer table 5.10). Sri Lankan group had similar proportions of managers across the hierarchy. Czech group consisted mostly of middle level and junior level managers. Both groups were highly educated, with almost 75% of the managers having a university degree. Great majority of the managers in both groups were married.

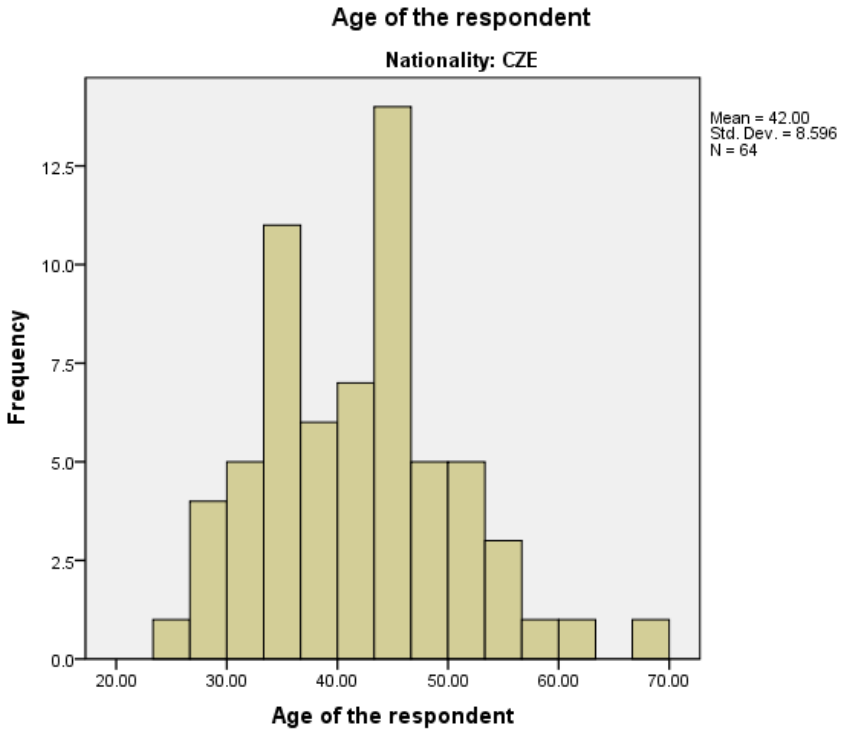


Figure 5.3: Age distribution of Czech managers (*Survey data, 2013/14)*

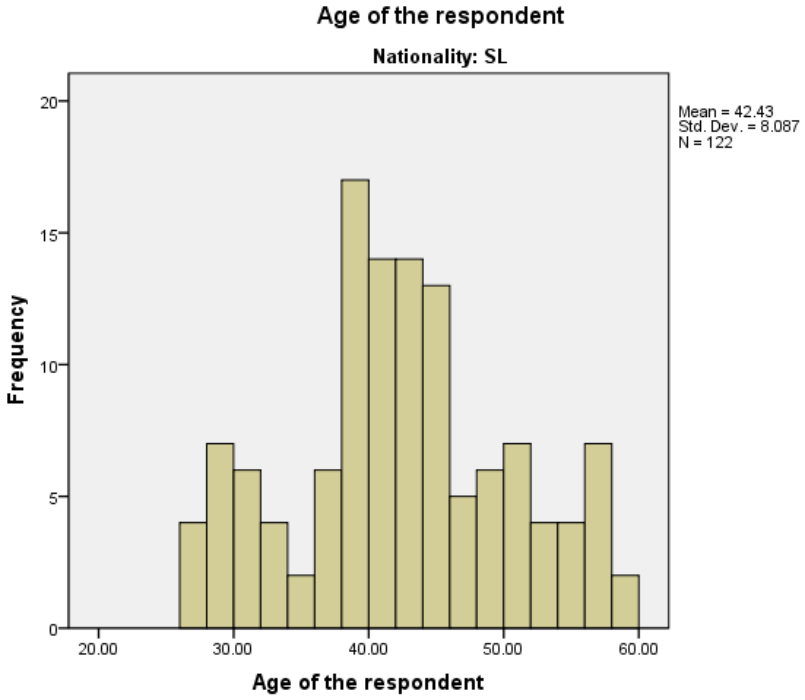


Figure 5.4: Age distribution of Sri Lankan managers (*Survey data, 2013/14)*

Table 5.10: Summary of the sample profile

Socio-demographic Factor	Description	Frequency		Percentage	
		CZE	LKA	CZE	LKA
Gender	Females	29	49	45.3	40.2
	Males	35	73	54.7	59.8
Age categories (in years)	Below 35	13	22	20.3	18.0
	35 to 40	14	25	21.9	20.5
	40 to 45	14	34	21.9	27.9
	45 to 50	12	18	18.7	14.7
	Over 50	11	23	17.8	18.9
Occupational Status	Senior Manager	12	39	18.8	32.0
	Middle level Mgr	27	43	42.2	35.2
	Junior Manager	25	40	39.1	32.8
Career Experience (in years)	Below 10	13	16	20.3	13.1
	16 to 10	09	22	14.1	18.0
	20 to 16	14	27	21.9	22.2
	25 to 20	17	27	26.5	22.1
	35 to 25	09	26	14.1	21.3
Organisational tenure (in years)	Below 03	12	07	18.8	5.7
	07 to 03	14	20	21.8	16.4
	10 to 07	13	21	20.3	17.2
	Over 10	25	74	39.1	60.7
Tenure in the present job status (in years)	Below 2.5	25	59	39.1	48.4
	5 to 2.5	18	35	28.1	28.6
	Over 5	21	28	32.8	23.0
Educational Qualifications	Postgraduate	42	38	65.6	31.1
	Graduate	07	55	11.0	45.1
	Professional diploma	-	27	-	22.1
	High School diploma	15	02	23.4	1.6
Marital status	Single	04	14	6.3	11.5
	In a relationship	05	02	7.8	1.6
	Married	51	101	79.7	82.8
	Divorced/Widowed	04	05	6.3	4.0

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Figure 5.5: Career experience distribution of Czech managers
Source: Survey data, 2013/14 (N=54)

Figure 5.6: Career experience distribution of Sri Lankan managers
Source: Survey data, 2013/14 (N =122)

Sample characteristics, especially age, gender, education, and career experience corresponded similar to the respective structures of Czech and Sri Lankan banking & finance managers. The comparability of both sampling groups facilitated the research findings, though the sample of Czech managers was relatively small. Overall, the sample provided an appropriate basis for addressing the research study in the contexts of respective countries. Further, findings of the study can be generalized in the contexts of study framework.

5.7 Characteristics of Strategic EI Parameters

Throughout the study multifarious EI assessments have been employed in the analysis. MSCEIT Version 2 – (expert option) EI assessment has been used as the principal assessment of strategic EI (also referred to as MSCEIT assessment) in analysis. As mentioned in chapter 4, MSCEIT has a global mean of 100, and a SD of 15. Other multifarious assessments, i.e. Genos EI and SREIS have also been converted to Standard Scores (SS) for comparative analyses.

Genos EI assessment has been converted to a SS as per the global statistics of MSCEIT (User's manual, 2002/2012) based on the normative sample of Genos EI (Palmer et al, 2009, p. 114). It has been extensively employed in this study for strategic EI analysis and has been referred to as 'Genos' for parsimony.

SREIS assessment has been used in three forms based on the purpose of analysis. In all three forms of EI assessments, they have been converted to SS based on MSCEIT. They are as follows:

i.) SREIS1– represents a SS as per the global statistics of MSCEIT (User's manual, 2012) developed on the sample norms of '*Study Two*' in Brackett et al. (2006, p.786). SREIS1 is used to compare the SS with those of MSCEIT and Genos on absolute terms in analysis.

ii.) SREIS2 – represents a SS as per the sample parameters of MSCEIT developed on SREIS's sample norms of this study. The purpose of this is to compare SREIS2 with MSCEITS sample normed (MSCEITS) statistics in relative contexts. This was done to remedy the absence of established normative statistics for SREIS. SREIS2 is compared with MSCEITS based on relative terms

iii.) SREIS3 – represents a SS as per the global statistics of MSCEIT (User's manual, 2012) developed on SREIS's sample norms of this study. SREIS3 has been used extensively in the parallel analyses with the SS of MSCEIT and Genos.

5.7.1 Multifarious EI measurements using MSCEIT, SREIS, and Genos EI

Table 5.11: Strategic EI of Czech Managers

Parameter	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
SS Emotional Self-Management	91.22	112.00	100.92	4.83
SS Emotional Management of Others	80.50	112.05	100.53	6.94
SS Genos EI – Managing Emotions	**86.80**	**110.13**	**100.73**	**5.27**
SS Managing Emotion –Self (SREIS1)	45.12	145.79	109.35	23.45
SS Social Management (SREIS1)	54.27	145.79	101.33	24.77
SS SREIS – Managing Emotions	**49.70**	**145.73**	**105.34**	**21.94**
SS Emotional Management - MSCEIT	72.24	127.01	89.58	12.24
SS Emotional Relations - MSCEIT	67.16	115.40	89.79	10.77
SS Managing Emotions - MSCEIT	**65.66**	**124.59**	**88.21**	**12.52**

Note: Sample consists of Czech Managers N=64 Max. denotes Maximum EI score, Min. denotes Minimum EI score, SS = Standard Score

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Table 5.12: Strategic EI of Sri Lankan Managers

Parameter	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
SS Emotional Self-Management	81.77	112.00	99.37	5.15
SS Emotional Management of Others	83.37	112.05	101.87	6.38
SS Genos EI – Managing Emotions	**87.29**	**111.08**	**100.62**	**4.82**
SS Managing Emotion –Self (SREIS1)	37.24	155.66	111.07	22.84
SS Social Management (SREIS1)	45.12	155.66	109.28	23.85
SS SREIS1 – Managing Emotions	**45.12**	**155.66**	**110.17**	**20.60**
SS Emotional Management - MSCEIT	69.19	114.76	86.70	9.18
SS Emotional Relations - MSCEIT	57.14	114.00	85.74	9.96
SS Managing Emotions - MSCEIT	**62.68**	**110.43**	**83.84**	**9.26**

Note: Sample consists of Sri Lankan Managers N= 122, Max. denotes Maximum EI score, Min. denotes Minimum EI score, SS = Standard Score

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

As depicted in tables 5.11, and 5.12, strategic EI scores (which have been shown in bold) of Czech and Sri Lankan managers are similar as per Genos measurements. MSCEIT indicate a slightly higher value for Czech managers, and it has been the other way around in SREIS1 readings. However, there is a noticeable difference among the multifarious EI assessments. Genos EI and SREIS1 indicate average to slightly above average strategic EI scores, and MSCEIT assessments are nearly a SD lower than the average. SREIS1 readings are less dependable in the absence of established normative statistics for SREIS. As per the MSCEIT readings it can be concluded that Czech and Sri Lankan managers have to 'Consider improvement' (MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002/2012, p.18) of their strategic EI. A similar trend could be observed in the assessment of strategic EI of males and females (refer tables 5.13 and 5.14). Females show slightly higher MSCEIT SS than their male counterparts. As per the MSCEIT readings it can be concluded that both females and males (managers) have to 'Consider improvement' (MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002/2012, p.18) of their strategic EI.

Table 5.13: Strategic EI of Females

Parameter	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
SS Emotional Self-Management	81.77	112.00	99.76	5.53
SS Emotional Management of Others	80.50	112.05	101.97	6.99
SS Genos EI – Managing Emotions	**86.80**	**111.08**	**100.87**	**5.44**
SS Managing Emotion Self (SREIS1)	45.12	145.73	105.37	22.89
SS Social Management (SREIS1)	45.12	145.73	105.72	24.83
SS SREIS – Managing Emotions	**45.12**	**145.73**	**105.54**	**22.26**
SS Emotional Management - MSCEIT	70.50	127.01	90.09	11.11
SS Emotional Relations -MSCEIT	67.16	114.00	89.13	10.76
SS Managing Emotions - MSCEIT	**65.66**	**124.59**	**87.72**	**11.41**

Note: Sample consists of Females N= 78, Max. denotes Maximum EI score, Min. denotes Minimum EI score, SS = Standard Score

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Table 5.14: Strategic EI of males

Parameter	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
SS Emotional Self-Management	85.55	112.00	100.01	4.76
SS Emotional Management of Others	83.37	112.05	101.00	6.28
SS Genos EI – Managing Emotions	**87.29**	**111.08**	**100.51**	**4.61**
SS Managing Emotion – Self (SREIS1)	37.24	155.66	114.17	20.89
SS Social Management (SREIS1)	56.97	155.66	107.14	24.18
SS SREIS – Managing Emotions	**47.11**	**155.66**	**110.66**	**20.12**
SS Emotional Management - MSCEIT	69.19	115.35	85.96	9.52
SS Emotional relations - MSCEIT	57.14	115.40	85.70	9.94
SS Managing Emotions - MSCEIT	**62.68**	**122.43**	**83.63**	**9.80**

Note: Sample consists of Males N= 108, Max. denotes Maximum EI score, Min. denotes Minimum EI score, SS = Standard Score

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

5.7.2 MSCEIT Version 2.0 assessment options

MSCEIT offers two main scoring options named Expert and Consensus (General) as discussed in 2.1.2. Users have to purchase for each option of scoring. In order to score the same data using both options for example, the user has to subscribe to each option separately. Due to this condition, it was decided to limit the use of both scoring options i.e. Expert and Consensus (General) only among Czech managers. They were compared as one group, and also as two gender (females and males) groups. The descriptive information of strategic EI SS generated using both options are depicted in tables 5.15 to 5.17. Further a correlation analysis was conducted among the same groups.

Table 5.15: MSCEIT EI scores of Czech managers based on Expert and General Options

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SSD Emotion Mgt-Expert	72.24	127.01	89.58	12.24	.97	.29	.62	.59
SSD Emotion Mgt -General	75.91	112.46	89.55	9.06	.47	.29	-.64	.59
SSH Emotional Relations-Expert	67.16	115.40	89.79	10.77	.23	.29	-.17	.59
SSH Emotional Relations-General	69.87	111.76	92.36	7.95	-.18	.29	.48	.59
SS Managing Emotion Expert	65.66	124.59	**88.21**	12.52	.89	.29	1.20	.59
SS Managing Emotion General (Consensus)	72.97	110.69	**90.75**	8.78	.15	.29	-.29	.59

Note: Sample consists of Czech Managers N=64, Exp. - Expert option, Gen. – General option, Max. denotes Maximum EI score, Min. denotes Minimum EI score, SS = Standard Score

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

As depicted in table 5.15, MSCEIT General SS for strategic EI is slightly higher than the expert option. MSCEIT General SS indicates that Czech managers' Managing Emotion (strategic EI) belongs to the 'Low Average' category in comparison to the 'Consider Improvement' category based on the Expert option (MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002/2012, p.18). The bivariate correlation matrix indicated very strong correlations between the two options, i.e Expert and General, for the constructs of Emotion management (0.908), Emotional Relations (0.925), and in Managing Emotion (strategic EI) (0.934). All the correlations were significant, $p<0.01$, (2-tailed). It can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two scoring options of MSCEIT.

Table 5.16: MSCEIT EI scores of Czech female managers based on Expert and General Options

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SSD Emotion Mgt- Expert	72.24	127.01	92.28	13.85	.62	.43	.21	.84
SSD Emotion Mgt-General	76.63	112.46	91.84	9.82	.03	.43	-1.00	.84
SSH Emotional Relations-Expert	67.16	110.48	88.67	11.71	.06	.43	-.72	.84
SSH Emotional Relations-General	69.87	106.42	91.39	8.64	-.23	.43	.22	.84
SS Managing Emotion Expert	65.66	124.59	**88.53**	13.97	.47	.43	.25	.84
SS Managing Emotion General (Consensus)	72.97	106.48	**91.17**	9.77	-.19	.43	-.87	.84

Note: Sample consists of Females N= 29, Exp. - Expert option, Gen. – General option, Max. denotes Maximum EI score, Min. denotes Minimum EI score, SS = Standard Score

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

As depicted in table 5.16, MSCEIT General SS for strategic EI is slightly higher than the expert option. MSCEIT General SS indicates that females' Managing Emotion (strategic EI) belongs to the 'Low Average' category in comparison to the 'Consider Improvement' category based on the Expert option (MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002/2012, p.18). The bivariate correlation matrix indicated very strong correlations between the two options, i.e Expert and General, for the constructs of Emotion management (0.922), Emotional Relations (0.893), and in Managing Emotion (strategic EI) (0.936). All the correlations were significant, $p<0.01$, (2-tailed).

Table 5.17: MSCEIT EI scores of Czech managers (males) based on Expert and General Options

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SSD Emotion Mgt-Expert	73.46	115.35	87.35	10.41	1.29	.39	1.148	.78
SSD Emotion Mgt-General	75.91	107.63	87.65	8.04	.85	.39	.417	.78
SSH Expert Emotional Relations	72.30	115.40	90.73	10.01	.58	.39	.479	.78
SSH General Emotional Relations	76.45	111.76	93.16	7.36	-.01	.39	.877	.78
SS Managing Emotion Expert	71.33	122.43	**87.94**	11.38	1.51	.39	3.104	.78
SS Managing Emotion General	74.83	110.69	**90.39**	7.99	.58	.39	.824	.78

Note: Sample consists of Males N= 35, Exp. - Expert option, Gen. – General option, Max. denotes Maximum EI score, Min. denotes Minimum EI score, SS = Standard Score

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

As depicted in table 5.16, MSCEIT General SS for strategic EI is slightly higher than the expert option. MSCEIT General SS indicates that males' Managing Emotion (strategic EI) belongs to the 'Low Average' category in comparison to the 'Consider Improvement' category based on the Expert option (MSCEIT User's Manual, 2002/2012, p.18). The bivariate correlation matrix indicated very strong correlations between the two options, i.e Expert and General, for the constructs of Emotion management (0.927), Emotional Relations (0.920), and in Managing Emotion (strategic EI) (0.931). All the correlations were significant, $p<0.01$, (2-tailed). It can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the two scoring options (Expert and General) of MSCEIT based on gender of the respondent.

5.7.3 Associations among the measurements of strategic EI

The multifarious assessments of strategic EI (MSCEIT, SREIS1, and Genos) were tested for the significance. A comparison was conducted between MSCEITS and SREIS2 as well. As depicted in table 5.18 there was a strong correlation between SREIS1 and Genos.

Table 5.18: Correlations among multifarious EI measurements

Parameter	Mean, SD	1	2
MSCEIT -CZE	88.21 (12.52)		
MSCEIT - LKA	83.84 (9.26)		
SREIS1 - CZE	105.34 (21.94)	0.308*	
SREIS1 - LKA	110.17 (20.60)	0.115	
Genos - CZE	100.73 (5.27)	0.242	0.754**
Genos - LKA	100.62 (4.82)	0.320**	0.678**

Note:* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), N (CZE= 64, LKA = 122)
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Strategic EI measurements were tested for correlations between the sample normed measurements of MSCEITS and SREIS2. They had slightly strong correlation coefficient of 0.322, $p<0.01$ for Czech strategic EI. There was no significant correlation between the Sri Lankan measurements.

Table 5.19: Relationship among multifarious EI measurements

Parameter	MSCEIT	SREIS1	Genos
Z Score (CZE)	0.00	1.37	0.99
Z Score (LKA)	0.00	**2.84****	1.81
Z Score (CZE)	-0.78	0.00	-0.21
Z Score (LKA)	-1.28	0.00	-0.46
Based on Sample Statistics (MSCEITS)		(SREIS2)	
Z Score (CZE)	0.00	0.94	Not applicable
Z Score (LKA)	0.00	1.74	Not applicable

CZE N = 64, LKA N = 122, * indicates $p<0.5$, ** indicates $p<0.01$
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Relationship among the multifarious measurements of strategic EI was tested using the Z score method. As depicted in table 5.19, SREIS1 and MSCEIT had a significant difference in the measurement of Sri Lankan managers. The difference in the measurements of strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers between MSCEIT and Genos was nearly significant. However, there were no significant differences among the multifarious measurements of Strategic EI upon tested based on the statistics of SREIS1 using the Z score method.

One sample t test was conducted to measure the relationship of multifarious measurements of strategic EI based on Nationality. MSCEIT Strategic EI (of Czech managers) was compared with the Strategic EI of other measurements. Genos and SREIS1 indicated significant differences with MSCEIT at t (63) = 19.00, p<.00, and at t (63) = 6.25, p<.00 respectively. MSCEIT (of Sri Lankan managers) was tested with SREIS1 and Genos measurements of strategic EI. Genos, at t (121) = 38.44, p<.00, and SREIS1, at t (121) = 14.12, p<.00 indicated significant differences respectively. MSCEITS was compared with SREIS2 measurements of strategic EI. Significant differences were recorded for the strategic EI measurements of Czech and Sri Lankan managers at t (63) = 6.29, p<.00, and t (121) = 11.89, p<.00 respectively. Mean Strategic EI values of multifarious measurements indicated significant differences when compared to the Strategic EI measurements of MSCEIT.SREIS1Strategic EI (of Czech managers) was compared with the Strategic EI of other measurements. MSCEIT and Genos indicated significant differences with SREIS1 at t (63) = -10.95, p<.00, and at t (63) = -7.00, p<.00 respectively. SREIS1 (of Sri Lankan managers) was tested with MSCEIT and Genos measurements of Strategic EI. MSCEIT, at t (121) = -25.64, p<.00, and Genos, at t (121) =-10.81, p<.00 indicated significant differences respectively. Mean Strategic EI values of multifarious measurements indicated significant differences when compared to the Strategic EI measurements of SREIS1.

H1: There is a significant relationship among the multifarious measurements of Strategic EI.

Z score analysis (table 5.19) indicated major differences of SREIS1 and Genos measurements with MSCEIT. However, there were no significant differences when SREIS1 was used as the base group in Z score analysis. Further analysis was conducted using the one sample t test. Data did not support the

alternative hypothesis mentioned above. The null hypothesis (of not having a significant relationship between MSCEIT and other measurements) cannot be rejected.

Mean values of Strategic EI through multifarious measurements indicated significant differences. It can be concluded that there is no significant relationship among multifarious Strategic EI measurements within comparable groups.

5.8 Socio-Demographic Factors and Strategic EI

5.8.1 Nationality and strategic EI

There were differences recorded by the multifarious assessments of EI pertaining to the nationality of the respondent, viz. Czech and Sri Lankan, as indicated above in 5.7. Above findings warranted further analysis of strategic EI with regard to the socio-demographic factors. Independent t test was conducted to examine the potential relationships.

Results of the independent t test using MSCEIT measurement: Czech managers have a higher Strategic EI (M = 88.21, SE = 1.56) compared to the Sri Lankan managers (M = 83.84, SE = 0.84). Nationality of the participants indicated a significant relationship $t(184) = 2.70$, $p<.05$ with the strategic EI of respondents. Further, it represented a low sized effect of $r = 0.20$.

Results of the independent t test using Genos EI measurement: Czech managers have a similar level of strategic EI (M = 100.73, SE = 0.66) compared to the Sri Lankan managers (M = 100.62, SE = 0.44). Nationality of the participants did not indicate a significant relationship $t(184) = 0.14$, $p>.05$ with the strategic EI of respondents.

Results of the independent t test using SREIS EI measurement: Czech managers have a lower level of strategic EI (M = 105.34, SE = 2.74) compared to the Sri Lankan managers (M = 110.17, SE = 1.86). Nationality of the participants did not indicate a significant relationship $t(184) = -1.48$, $p>.05$ with the strategic EI of respondents.

Relationship of strategic EI measured by MSCEITS and SREIS2 based on sample statistics were also examined. Results of the independent t test using MSCEITS (sample based) measurement: Czech managers have a higher level of strategic EI (M = 78.37, SE = 1.31) compared to the Sri Lankan managers (M = 73.86, SE = 0.52). Nationality of the participants indicated a significant relationship t (184) = 3.80, $p<.05$ with the strategic EI of respondents. It represented a moderate sized effect of r = 0.27.

Results of the independent t test using SREIS EI (sample based) measurement: Czech managers have a higher level of strategic EI (M = 88.21, SE = 1.56) compared to the Sri Lankan managers (M = 83.83, SE = 0.84). Nationality of the participants indicated a significant relationship t (184) = 2.71, $p<.05$ with the strategic EI of respondents. Further, it represented a low sized effect of r = 0.21.

H2: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Data have supported the alternative hypothesis based on the findings of MSCEIT, MSCEITS, and SREIS2 above. In the context of these supportive observations, null hypothesis can be rejected.

It can be concluded that the Nationality of respondent managers, i.e. Czech and Sri Lankan, has a significant relationship with Strategic EI. This confirms that Strategic EI varies among comparable groups of respondents, i.e. managers, in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

5.8.2 Gender and strategic EI

Relationship between the gender of participants and their level of strategic EI was tested using the independent t test.

Results of the independent t test using MSCEIT: Female managers have a higher level of strategic EI (M = 87.72, SE = 1.29) compared to their male counterparts (M = 83.63, SE = 0.94). Gender of the participants indicated a significant relationship t (184) = 2.62, $p<.05$ with the level of strategic EI. Further, it represented a low sized effect of r = 0.19.

Results of the independent t test using Genos: Female managers have a similar level of strategic EI (M = 100.87, SE = 0.62) compared to their male counterparts (M = 100.51, SE = 0.44). Gender of the participants did not indicate a significant relationship t (184) = 0.49, p>.05 with the level of strategic EI.

Results of the independent t test using SREIS1: Female managers indicated a slightly lower level of strategic EI (M = 105.54, SE = 2.52) compared to their male counterparts (M = 110.66, SE = 1.94). Gender of the participants did not indicate a significant relationship t (184) = -1.64, p>.05 with the level of strategic EI.

Relationship of strategic EI measured by MSCEITS and SREIS2 based on sample statistics were also examined for gender difference. Results of the independent t test using MSCEITS (sample based): Female managers have a higher level of strategic EI (M = 76.95, SE = 0.97) compared to the male managers (M = 74.30, SE = 0.70). Gender of the participants indicated a significant relationship t (184) = 2.27, p<.05 with the level of strategic EI. It represented a low sized effect of r = 0.17.

Results of the independent t test using SREIS2 (sample based): Females recorded a similar value for strategic EI (M = 85.87, SE = 1.34) compared to male managers (M = 84.95, SE = 0.94). Gender of the participants did not indicate a significant relationship t (184) = 0.58, p>.05 with the strategic EI of respondents.

Based on the findings of MSCEIT it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between the gender of the manager and the level of strategic EI. However, other EI measurements (Genos and SREIS) did not support this relationship.

5.8.3 Age, career experience, and strategic EI

Relationship of strategic EI with the age and career experience of the managers was tested with their level of strategic EI (based on MSCEIT). Bivariate correlation analysis was conducted for this purpose.

Age of the respondents did not indicate a significant correlation with their level of strategic EI. Age and EI Pearson correlation statistic was -.014. The respective

correlation statistics for Czech and Sri Lankan managers were -0.060, and 0.029, and they were not significant.

Career experience of the respondents did not indicate a significant correlation with the level of strategic EI. Career experience and EI Pearson correlation statistic was -.016. The respective correlation statistics for Czech and Sri Lankan managers were -0.117, and 0.084, and they were not significant. It can be concluded that strategic EI of managers does not have a strong relationship with either their age or the level of career experience.

5.8.4 Education, marital status, and strategic EI

One way independent ANOVA was conducted to test the causal relationship between the education level of managers and their strategic EI (MSCEIT). Czech managers did not indicate a significant relationship between their level of education and strategic EI, $F(3, 60) = 0.41$, $p>0.05$. Sri Lankan managers also did not record a significant relationship between their level of education and strategic EI, $F(3,118) = 1.17$, $p>0.05$.

One way independent ANOVA was conducted to test the causal relationship of marital status level of managers to their strategic EI (MSCEIT). Czech managers did not indicate a significant relationship between marital status and their strategic EI, $F(3, 60) = 2.15$, $p>0.05$. Sri Lankan managers also did not indicate a significant relationship between their level of education and strategic EI, $F(3,118) = 0.60$, $p>0.05$. It can be concluded that education level and marital status of Czech and Sri Lankan managers do not have significant relationships with the level of Strategic EI.

5.8.5 Prediction of strategic EI by socio-demographic factors

The predictive ability of strategic EI by the respondents' socio-demographic factors was examined. Gender, age, career experience, level of education, and marital status of managers were used as the socio-demographic factors. Level of education and marital status were incorporated into the analysis as dummy variables. The prediction of strategic EI by above socio-demographic factors was poor in Czech managers, F ratio of 0.81 at $p>0.05$. The regression model lacked the

ability to predict the outcome variable, i.e. strategic EI. Thus a significant fit between strategic EI and socio demographic factors of Czech managers was absent.

Results of analysis among Sri Lankan managers are depicted in table 5.20. Socio-demographic factors of Sri Lankan managers predicted their strategic EI. The F ratio of 2.76 at $p<0.05$, indicated a significant predictive ability of strategic EI by the socio-demographic factors of Sri Lankan managers. However, the regression model has explained only 18% of the variance in strategic EI. Career experience and having higher levels (High and very high) of education, compared to low level of education, have positively predicted the strategic EI of managers. Age has been a negative contributor of strategic EI. Being a male has a negative contribution to strategic EI. Durbin Watson static of 2.22 confirmed that the assumption of tenability of independent errors is tenable.

Table 5.20: Relationship between socio-demographic factors and strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Constant	85.88	9.18	
Gender	-5.77	1.70	-0.31*
Age	-0.60	0.27	-0.53*
Career Experience	0.62	0.26	0.55*
Moderate level of education	10.42	6.68	0.47
Higher level of education	13.01	6.63	0.70*
Very high level of education	13.76	6.63	0.69*
Having known the life partner	-9.30	9.15	-0.09
Married to a partner	2.17	2.73	0.09
Leaving a married partner	8.06	5.08	0.17

Note: $R^2 = 0.18$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.12$, *$p<0.05$, $F(9, 112) = 2.76$, $p<0.05$, coded 0=female, 1= male, N = 122 (*Source: Survey data, 2013/14)*

The predictive ability of the regression model noticeably increased (F ratio of 3.45, $p<0.05$) when marital status was omitted as a predictor variable. Marital status of a respondent has not been considered as a key socio-demographic factor of strategic EI for further analysis in the study. Other socio-demographic factors, viz. gender, age, career experience, and the level of education have been considered as control variables of strategic EI in further analysis.

H3: There is a significant relationship between the socio-demographic factors and the Strategic EI of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Data has supported the alternative hypothesis (H2) with regard to Sri Lankan managers. There is no such relationship with regard to the Czech managers. As a result, data has not supported the alternative hypothesis in the context of 'varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts'. In this instance the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. It can be concluded that the socio-demographic factors, viz. gender, age, career experience, level of education, and marital status have a significant relationship with the strategic EI Sri Lankan managers. However, a significant relationship does not exist between socio-demographic factors and strategic EI of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

5.9 ASSOCIATION OF STRATEGIC EI WITH CAREER SUCCESS ANTECEDENTS

5.9.1 Descriptive statistics

Relationship of career success antecedents was examined with managers' strategic EI. Antecedents of career success are denoted in abbreviated forms throughout the discussion for parsimony. They are: Affective organizational commitment (AOC), Citizenship performance behaviour (CPB), Job stability i.e. meaning security & safety, as a career anchor (JSCA), Relationship with the immediate superior (RIS), and Transformational leadership style (TFL). Descriptive analysis of career success antecedents of Czech and Sri Lankan managers are depicted in tables 5.21, and 5.22 respectively. The two groups of managers have possessed satisfactory levels of those antecedents. Sri Lankan managers have indicated slightly higher levels of TFL, CPB, and AOC. They have also indicated a higher reliance on job stability as a career anchor than Czech managers. Their possession of higher levels of AOC and JSCA are reflective in the descriptive analysis of samples in 5.6 above. Both managers indicate similar levels of RIS. Descriptive information of managers OSE is also indicated herein. Sri Lankan managers possess a slightly higher OSE than Czech managers.

Table 5.21: Career success antecedents of Czech managers

Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Transformational Leadership	30	80	59.72	10.14
CPB	19	42	33.95	4.44
RIS	13	35	26.48	5.06
OSE	20	36	30.02	3.62
AOC	22	40	30.47	3.87
Job Stability as a career anchor	12	34	24.61	4.36
Nationality: CZECH, N = 64				

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Table 5.22: Career success antecedents of Sri Lankan managers

Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Transformational Leadership	41	78	63.17	7.01
CPB	23	42	35.92	3.77
RIS	11	35	26.80	5.11
OSE	17	36	30.83	3.35
AOC	13	40	31.83	5.66
Job Stability as a career anchor	10	35	25.98	5.52
Nationality: LKA, N = 122				

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

The cumulative scores from summative scales of career antecedents were used for inferential analysis. These statistics from a methodology perspective possess qualities of ordinal data than continuous data (R. O. Thattil, Senior Professor, University of Peradeniya, personal communication, July 16, 2013). Thus the cumulative scores of antecedents were grouped into defined categories as discussed above (in 5.4) based on the respondents' percentile scores.

Table 5.23: Bivariate correlation matrix of career antecedents

Variable	1	2	3
1.) CPB			
2.) RIS	0.219** (0.273**)		
3.) JSCA	0.078 (0.054)	0.013 (0.010)	
4.) AOC	0.321** (0.236**)	0.390** (0.294**)	0.119 (0.087)

Note:* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), Spearman's coefficient is indicated in the upper row, and the respective Kendall's tau coefficient is indicated in the lower row within parenthesis, N = 186

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Czech and Sri Lankan managers indicated significantly positive medium effects between RIS and CPB, AOC and CPB, and AOC and RIS (refer table 5.23). JSCA did not correlate with any other antecedent. Kendall's tau coefficient was employed (in addition to Spearman's coefficient) due to the existence of a large number of tied ranks among respondents. The relative small numbers of respondents (along with tied ranks) has made it more useful in the analysis of Czech and Sri Lankan managers that follows.

Table 5.24: Correlation matrix of Czech managers' career antecedents

Variable	1	2	3
1.) CPB			
2.) RIS	0.359** (0.258**)		
3.) JS as a career anchor	-0.015 (-0.005)	-0.029 (-0.021)	
4.) AOC	0.354** (0.270**)	0.538** (0.400**)	0.047 (0.036)

Note:* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), Spearman's coefficient is indicated in the upper row, and the respective Kendall's tau coefficient is indicated in the lower row within parenthesis, N = 64

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Czech managers indicated positively significant medium effects between CPB and RIS, and CPB and AOC (refer table 5.24). AOC and RIS indicated a positively significant large effect. Sri Lankan managers indicated a positively significant medium effect between AOC and RIS, and a lower effect between AOC and CPB (table 5.25). It can be concluded that RIS and AOC display a stronger relationship in both groups of managers.

Table 5.25: Correlation matrix of Sri Lankan managers' career antecedents

Variable	1	2	3
1.) CPB			
2.) RIS	0.142 (0.105)		
3.) JS as a career anchor	0.063 (0.045)	0.034 (0.027)	
4.) AOC	0.276** (0.196**)	0.306** (0.231**)	0.107 (0.081)

Note:* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), Spearman's coefficient is indicated in the upper row, and the respective Kendall's tau coefficient is indicated in the lower row within parenthesis, N = 122

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

5. 9.2 Relationship with immediate superior and strategic EI

One way independent ANOVA was conducted to test the causal relationship between the RIS and strategic EI (MSCEIT) of managers. Czech managers indicated a positive relationship between RIS and strategic EI, $F(4, 59) = 4.12$, $p<0.05$, $w = 0.40$. RIS indicated a large effect size ($w^2 = 0.16$) with strategic EI. Gabriel's post hoc test confirmed that with increasing levels of RIS strategic EI of respondents has also increased. Planned contrasts were employed to examine the impact further. The trend analysis indicated a linear relationship of data ($F=15.93$). It confirmed an increase in the causal relationship between strategic EI and RIS, proportionately. Furthermore, planned contrasts suggested significant relationships between the levels of RIS and strategic EI. Strategic EI increased with a fairly low level of RIS, compared to a control group of very low, $t(59) = 2.74$, $p<0.05$, a satisfactory level of RIS (compared to a very low level) related significantly with high strategic EI, $t(59) = 2.37$, $p<0.05$, and having a high level of RIS (compared

to a very low level) related significantly with higher strategic EI, t (59) = 1.73, p<0.05 (one-tailed) of managers. (Note: Omega squared w^2 is used to measure the effect sizes of the causal relationships. It is considered superior to r^2 in estimating the effect sizes with respect to the population (Field, 2009). Literature (Kirk, 1996) suggests that w^2 values of 0.01, 0.06, and 0.14 represent small, medium, and large effects respectively.)

Sri Lankan managers also indicated a positive relationship between RIS and their level of strategic EI. However, it was not significant, F (4,117) = 2.10, p>0.05, w = 0.19. In the planned contrasts, a satisfactory level of RIS (compared to a very low level) related significantly with increased strategic EI, t (117) = 2.34, p<0.05 (two-tailed) of managers. It can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between strategic EI and RIS of respondents. Czech managers strategic EI indicated a positive relationship with RIS significantly throughout each increasing level of RIS. Sri Lankan managers indicated a positive relationship between strategic EI and having a satisfactory level of RIS ((compared to a very low level).

5.9.3 Transformational leadership and strategic EI

5.26: Relationship between strategic EI and transformational leadership

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	44.43	4.79	
Strategic EI	0.21	0.05	0.26*
Step 2			
Constant	28.56	7.81	
Strategic EI	0.25	0.06	0.32*
Nationality	0.55	0.15	0.31*
Gender	0.69	1.21	0.04
Age	0.17	0.19	0.17
Career Experience	-0.16	0.19	-0.16
Moderate level of education	-1.83	2.79	-0.08
Higher level of education	-1.86	2.45	-0.10
Very high level of education	-0.72	2.16	-0.04

Note: R^2 = 0.07 for Step1, R^2 = 0.14 for Step 2, *p<0.05, Step 1, F (3,183) = 13.62, p<0.01, Step 2, F (3,183) = 3.67, p<0.01, coded 0=female, 1= male, N = 186

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Relationship between TFL and strategic EI (MSCEIT) was examined using a two-step hierarchical regression along with socio-demographic factors as depicted in table 5.26. Strategic EI had a positive relationship with TFL. With each increase of strategic EI by a single standard deviation (SD), TFL of managers has increased by 0.32 SDs.

5.9.4 Citizenship performance behaviour and strategic EI

A one way independent ANOVA was conducted to test the causal relationship between the CPB level of managers and their strategic EI (MSCEIT). Czech managers did not indicate a significant relationship between their CPB level and strategic EI, $F (4, 59) = 0.84$, $p>0.05$. Sri Lankan managers also did not indicate a significant relationship between level of CPB and strategic EI, $F (4,117) = 1.93$, $p>0.05$.

5.9.5 Job stability as a career anchor and strategic EI

A one way independent ANOVA was conducted to test the causal relationship between the importance of job stability as a career anchor and strategic EI (MSCEIT). Czech managers did not indicate a significant relationship between JSCA and strategic EI, $F (4, 59) = 1.56$, $p>0.05$. Sri Lankan managers also did not indicate a significant relationship between JSCA and strategic EI, $F (4,117) = 1.00$, $p>0.05$.

5.9.6 Affective organizational commitment and strategic EI

A one way independent ANOVA was conducted to test the causal relationship between the AOC and strategic EI (MSCEIT). Czech managers did not indicate a significant relationship between the level of AOC and strategic EI, $F (4, 59) = 2.26$, $p>0.05$. Sri Lankan managers also did not indicate a significant relationship between the level of AOC and strategic EI, $F (4,117) = 1.45$, $p>0.05$

5.9.7 Association of career success antecedents with strategic EI

The association of career success antecedents of managers with their strategic EI was examined using a multifarious criterion. In addition to the assessment of strategic EI using MSCEIT, SREIS3 has also been employed in the analysis. Association of career success antecedents with strategic EI (MSCEIT) of Czech managers was tested using a two stage hierarchical regression. The prediction of strategic EI by the antecedents was poor, with statistics of $F(5, 58) = 0.97$, $p>0.05$, and $F(22, 41) = 1.22$, $p>0.05$ respectively. The regression model lacked the ability to predict the outcome variable, i.e. strategic EI. A significant fit between strategic EI and antecedents of career success was absent among Czech managers. However, career success antecedents indicated (refer table 5.27) a significant relationship with strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers. Career experience and TFL indicated positive relationships, while age and being a male (coded 0=female, 1= male) showed negative relationships. Each increase of age by a single SD indicated decrease of strategic EI by 0.61 SD. However, with each increase of career experience by a single SD, strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers has increased by 0.63 SDs.

Tables 5.28 and 5.29 depict the significant relationships between career success antecedents and strategic EI (SREIS3) of Czech and Sri Lankan managers respectively. As shown JSCA indicated a negative relationship with strategic EI and TFL indicated a positive relationship in Czech managers. Age and having a lower level of AOC indicated negative relationships, while career experience and TFL indicated positive relationships with strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers. With each increase of career experience by a single SD, strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers has increased by 0.51 SDs, which is similar finding in the measurement of strategic EI using MSCEIT.

It can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between strategic EI and career success antecedents in comparable groups of different nationalities, i.e. Czech and Sri Lankan managers. Further, Sri Lankan managers have indicated a significant relationship between career success antecedents and multifarious measurements of strategic EI.

Table 5.27: Association of career success antecedents with strategic EI (MSCEIT) of Sri Lankan managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	86.17	9.11	
Gender	-5.72	1.63	-0.30*
Age	-0.47	0.26	-0.41
Career Experience	0.56	0.26	0.50*
Moderate level of education	7.83	6.45	0.35
Higher level of education	10.27	6.34	0.55
Very high level of education	10.91	6.39	0.55
Step 2			
Constant	69.25	11.47	
Gender	-5.07	1.75	-0.27*
Age	-0.70	0.27	-0.61*
Career Experience	0.71	0.26	0.63*
Moderate level of education	8.53	6.51	0.38
Higher level of education	11.57	6.33	0.62
Very high level of education	11.00	6.44	0.55
Lower level of RIS	-0.48	3.25	-0.02
Satisfactory level of RIS	0.67	3.15	0.03
Higher level of RIS	4.35	3.15	0.19
Very high level of RIS	0.74	2.98	0.03
Transformational Leadership	0.31	0.14	0.24*
Lower level of CPB	-1.33	3.60	-0.05
Satisfactory level of CPB	-1.24	3.43	-0.05
Higher level of CPB	-0.15	3.31	-0.01
Very high level of CPB	1.70	3.69	0.07
Lower level of AOC	-1.22	3.32	-0.04
Satisfactory level of AOC	1.13	2.90	0.06
Higher level of AOC	0.47	3.07	0.02
Very high level of AOC	2.39	2.92	0.12
Lower level of JSCA	1.73	3.21	0.07
Satisfactory level of JSCA	2.57	3.07	0.11
Higher level of JSCA	-2.98	3.16	-0.13
Very high level of JSCA	0.86	2.97	0.04

Note: $R^2 = 0.15$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.34$ for Step 2, *$p<0.05$, $F(6, 115) = 3.45$, $p>0.05$ for Model1, $F(23, 98) = 2.19$, $p<0.05$ for Model2, N = 122 (*Survey data, 2013/14*)

Table 5.28: Association of career success antecedents with strategic EI (SREIS3) of Czech managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	92.830	16.521	
Gender	1.810	3.855	.061
Age	.420	.660	.241
Career Experience	-.300	.666	-.169
Higher level of education	-9.522	7.375	-.187
Very high level of education	-7.403	4.548	-.236
Step 2			
Constant	80.567	27.982	
Gender	5.865	3.840	.196
Age	.224	.635	.129
Career Experience	-.290	.640	-.163
Higher level of education	-5.937	7.672	-.116
Very high level of education	-2.087	6.343	-.067
Lower level of RIS	-13.919	8.342	-.420
Satisfactory level of RIS	-11.478	9.184	-.310
Higher level of RIS	-12.779	10.050	-.335
Very high level of RIS	-16.847	10.320	-.480
Transformational Leadership	.808	.278	.547*
Lower level of CPB	-4.876	6.056	-.139
Satisfactory level of CPB	-4.251	6.240	-.121
Higher level of CPB	-5.515	6.089	-.169
Very high level of CPB	-3.362	9.907	-.055
Lower level of AOC	-5.101	8.349	-.142
Satisfactory level of AOC	-2.895	9.027	-.096
Higher level of AOC	3.136	8.956	.085
Very high level of AOC	12.040	12.560	.217
Lower level of JSCA	-20.160	9.247	-.587*
Satisfactory level of JSCA	-13.560	9.358	-.422
Higher level of JSCA	-22.048	8.857	-.654*
Very high level of JSCA	-16.708	10.884	-.327

Note: $R^2 = 0.06$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.49$ for Step 2, *$p<0.05$, $F(5, 58) = 0.72$, $p>0.05$ for Model1, $F(22, 41) = 1.82$, $p<0.05$ for Model 2, N = 64 (*Survey data, 2013/14*)

Table 5.29: Association of career success antecedents with strategic EI (SREIS3) of Sri Lankan managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	101.843	15.749	
Gender	-2.451	2.827	-.080
Age	-.134	.451	-.072
Career Experience	.364	.447	.198
Moderate level of education	-4.514	11.158	-.125
Higher level of education	-2.113	10.964	-.070
Very high level of education	-.454	11.051	-.014
Step 2			
Constant	69.117	17.082	
Gender	-1.809	2.605	-.059
Age	-.808	.397	-.436*
Career Experience	.929	.388	.506*
Moderate level of education	-6.003	9.687	-.167
Higher level of education	-2.022	9.423	-.067
Very high level of education	-2.850	9.594	-.088
Lower level of RIS	5.695	4.844	.141
Satisfactory level of RIS	-.863	4.693	-.025
Higher level of RIS	4.008	4.687	.110
Very high level of RIS	5.135	4.433	.146
Transformational Leadership	.790	.203	.369*
Lower level of CPB	-10.325	5.368	-.256
Satisfactory level of CPB	-5.402	5.113	-.146
Higher level of CPB	-2.941	4.924	-.093
Very high level of CPB	-.448	5.487	-.012
Lower level of AOC	-11.903	4.940	-.237*
Satisfactory level of AOC	3.946	4.325	.118
Higher level of AOC	2.755	4.570	.070
Very high level of AOC	5.237	4.342	.164
Low level of JSCA	2.734	4.778	.070
Satisfactory level of JSCA	-3.345	4.570	-.089
Higher level of JSCA	.473	4.702	.013
Very high level of JSCA	-1.139	4.428	-.035

Note: $R^2 = 0.03$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.44$ for Step 2, *$p<0.05$, $F(6, 115) = 0.67$, $p>0.05$ for Model1, $F(23, 98) = 3.73$, $p<0.05$ for Model 2, N = 122 (*Survey data, 2013/14*)

H4a: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

The alternative hypothesis is supported by the data in the assessment of strategic EI using SREIS3. The null hypothesis can be rejected by the aforementioned supportive observations.

H4b: There is a significant relationship between multifarious Strategic EI measurements and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

The alternative hypothesis is not supported in the analysis using the multifarious strategic EI measurements of MSCEIT and Genos. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

5.10 CAREER SUCCESS AND STRATEGIC EI

The relationship of strategic EI to the career success, career satisfaction, and OSE of managers has been examined. OSE and career satisfaction (through CSI) have been based on non-parametric data. Internal categorization of research constructs (having non-parametric data) has been based on the criteria discussed in 5.4. An additional intermediary category named 'moderate' was included to enhance the categories of respondents' scores for OSE and CSI. For example, the identification of categories for OSE is as follows:
Category 1- "Poor" - First 10 percentiles approx., Category 2 – "Low" – 11^{th} to 20^{th} percentile approx., Category 3 – "Moderate" – 21^{st} to 40^{th} percentile approx., Category 4- "Satisfactory" – 41^{st} to 60^{th} percentile approx., Category 5 - "High" – 61^{st} to 80^{th} percentile, and Category 6 – "Very High" – 81^{st} to the 100^{th} percentile.

5.10.1 OSE and strategic EI

The relationship between OSE of managers and their strategic EI was examined in a multifarious criterion, using MSCEIT, SREIS3, and Genos assessments. Multinomial logistic regression was employed for the inferential

analyses. OSE levels of managers were organized into (through dummy variables) the following 5 categories for the purpose of inferential analysis, from the initial six categories based on percentile scores as referred to in 5.10 above.

i.) Possessing a low level of OSE (compared to poor)
ii.) Possessing a moderate level of OSE (compared to poor)
iii.) Possessing a satisfactory level of OSE (compared to poor)
iv.) Possessing a high level of OSE (compared to poor)
v.) Possessing a very high level of OSE (compared to poor)

Relationship between OSE and strategic EI (MSCEIT) of managers was examined. Among Czech managers, the multinomial logistic model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) value of 42.06, $p<0.05$, indicating a significant impact to OSE levels. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.48 and 0.50 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that Gender had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 11.35, $p<0.05$, and that strategic EI had interacted with gender χ^2 (5) = 11.29, $p<0.05$, to predict the OSE of respondents (managers). Accordingly, gender of a respondent and the strategic EI, in interaction with gender, have significant impacts on OSE of Czech managers. However, the specific effects of gender and strategic EI have been not significant in the individual parameter estimates of the analysis. It can be concluded that in general gender and strategic EI have an overall significant effect on the OSE of Czech managers. In examining the OSE of Sri Lankan managers the overall regression (multinomial logistic) model could not explain the variance of OSE with regard to the impact of strategic EI and socio-demographic factors. Strategic EI (MSCEIT) has not contributed significantly to predict OSE of Sri Lankan managers.

Relationship between OSE and strategic EI (SREIS3) of managers was examined. Among Czech managers, the multinomial logistic model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) value of 40.46, $p<0.05$, indicating a significant impact to OSE levels. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.47 and 0.49 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that gender had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) =

11.59, $p<0.05$, and that strategic EI had interacted with gender χ^2 (5) = 12.08, $p<0.05$, to predict the OSE of respondents (managers). Accordingly, gender of a respondent and the strategic EI' in interaction with gender, have significant impacts on OSE of managers. However, the specific effects of gender and strategic EI have been not significant in the individual parameter estimates of the analysis. It can be concluded that in general gender and strategic EI have an overall significant effect on OSE of Czech managers.

Next, the impact of strategic EI (SREIS3) to OSE of Sri Lankan managers was examined. The overall regression (multinomial logistic) model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) value of 38.88, $p<0.01$, indicating a significant impact to OSE levels of Sri Lankan managers. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.27 and 0.28 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that strategic EI had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 29.32, $p<0.01$, and that strategic EI had not interacted with gender to predict the OSE of respondents (managers). The specific effect of strategic EI was a significant predictor of OSE in the individual parameter estimates analysis as shown in table 5.30 below. The odds ratio of strategic EI's to higher OSE levels has gradually increased at a significant level.

The change in odds of having low to moderate levels of OSE (rather than poor OSE) among managers has been low with strategic EI. It suggests that lower strategic EI levels are associated with lower OSE levels of managers. This has gradually changed at higher levels of strategic EI of managers. As the strategic EI of a manager is increased by a unit, the change in the odds of having a very high OSE (compared to poor) has become almost equal (0.94), b=-0.06, Wald χ^2 (1) =7.48, $p<0.01$. It can be concluded that Sri Lankan managers with higher levels of OSE got a better chance of possessing higher strategic EI (SREIS3) levels. Gender has not shown any significant association.

Table 5.30: Relationship between Strategic EI (SREIS3) and OSE of Sri Lankan managers

			95% CI for Odds Ratio		
	B	(SE)	Lower	Odds Ratio	Upper
Low OSE vs Poor OSE					
Intercept	17.921**	6.275			
Career experience	.064	.176	.755	1.066	1.507
Strategic EI	-.169**	.043	.776	.845	.919
Gender	-.403	1.338	.048	.668	9.207
Age	-.106	.177	.636	.899	1.271
Moderate OSE vs Poor OSE					
Intercept	13.880*	6.444			
Career experience	.164	.222	.763	1.178	1.819
Strategic EI	-.112**	.041	.824	.894	.969
Gender	1.836	1.268	.522	6.270	75.305
Age	-.202	.223	.528	.817	1.266
Satisfactory OSE vs Poor OSE					
Intercept	12.312**	3.769			
Career experience	.056	.094	1.057	.880	1.270
Strategic EI	-.102**	.026	.903	.858	.951
Gender	.620	.618	1.859	.554	6.240
Age	-.070	.093	.777	.933	1.120
High OSE vs Poor OSE					
Intercept	11.596**	3.748			
Career experience	.075	.094	.897	1.078	1.297
Strategic EI	-.094**	.026	.865	.910	.957
Gender	.316	.612	.413	1.372	4.557
Age	-.076	.094	.771	.927	1.114
Very High OSE vs Poor OSE					
Intercept	9.385*	3.670			
Career experience	.132	.098	.942	1.141	1.382
Strategic EI	-.066**	.024	.892	.936	.981
Gender	-.350	.602	.217	.705	2.292
Age	-.108	.097	.742	.897	1.085

Note: R^2= .27(Cox and Snell), .28 (Nagelkerke). Model χ^2 (20) = 38.88, p<0.01, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, coded 0=female, 1= male

Finally, the relationship between OSE and strategic EI (Genos) of Czech managers was examined. The overall regression (multinomial logistic) model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) value of (20) 34.42, $p<0.05$' indicating a significant impact to OSE levels of managers. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.42 and 0.43 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that strategic EI had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 18.90, $p<0.05$, and that strategic EI had not interacted with gender to predict the OSE of respondents (managers). The specific effect of strategic EI has been a significant predictor of OSE in the parameter estimates analysis. The odds ratio of strategic EI's to OSE levels has gradually increased at a significant level from low OSE (rather than poor OSE) at 0.61, b=-0.48, Wald χ^2 (1) =7.34, $p<0.00$, to having high OSE (rather than poor OSE) at 0.75, b=-0.28, Wald χ^2 (1) =5.79, $p<0.05$. It can be concluded that the increase in OSE level has resulted favourably in the odds ratio with strategic EI among (Czech) managers. There is no significant difference to be observed between the females and males (managers) in this aspect.

Relationship between OSE and strategic EI (Genos) of Sri Lankan managers was examined. The overall regression (multinomial logistic) model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) value of (20) 51.00, $p<0.00$, indicating a significant impact to OSE levels. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.34 and 0.36 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that strategic EI had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 41.43, $p<0.00$, and that strategic EI had not interacted with gender to predict the OSE of respondents (managers). The specific effect of strategic EI has been significant predictor of OSE in the individual parameter estimates analysis. The odds ratio of strategic EI has increased with higher OSE levels more prominently among Sri Lankan managers compared to the Czech managers. With the increase of OSE level, the odds of possessing higher strategic EI among managers has increased at a significant level from low OSE (rather than poor OSE) at 0.49, b=-0.72, Wald χ^2 (1) =16.05, $p<0.00$ to odds of possessing very high OSE (rather than poor OSE) at 0.80, b=-0.22, Wald χ^2 (1) =7.84, $p<0.00$. It can be concluded that the increase in OSE levels has resulted favourably in odds of

possessing higher strategic EI levels among Sri Lankan managers. Gender has not shown any significant association.

H5a: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

The alternative hypothesis has been supported by the data involving Genos strategic EI measurements among Czech and Sri Lankan managers. In the presence of those supportive observations, the null hypothesis can be rejected.

H5b: There is a significant relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

The alternative hypothesis has not been supported in the analysis involving MSCEIT, and SREIS3 strategic EI measurements among Czech and Sri Lankan managers. The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

In conclusion, the increase of OSE level of managers has led to an increase of the odds ratio with their strategic EI. This indicates an indirect association of higher strategic EI with higher levels of OSE of managers. This trend was observed in Sri Lankan managers in the measurement of strategic EI multifariously (e.g. by using SREIS3 and Genos EI). Having favourable odds ratios of strategic EI with increased levels of OSE was more prominent among the Sri Lankan managers, compared to the Czech managers. There was no significant impact of the gender of respondents (managers) with their OSE levels. Gender also did not have any interaction with strategic EI with regard to the different levels of OSE among the respondents.

5.10.2 Career satisfaction and strategic EI

The relationship between strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers was examined using multinomial logistic regression analysis. Career satisfaction was assessed by using the CSI index of managers, which has been described in chapter 4.3. Career satisfaction levels of managers were organized into the

following 5 categories for the purpose of inferential analysis, from the initial six categories developed based on percentile scores as referred to in 5.3, and 5.10.

i.) Possessing a low level of career satisfaction (compared to poor)
ii.) Possessing a moderate level of career satisfaction (compared to poor)
iii.) Possessing a satisfactory level of career satisfaction (compared to poor)
iv.) Possessing a high level of career satisfaction (compared to poor)
v.) Possessing a very high level of career satisfaction (compared to poor)

Relationship between career satisfaction level and strategic EI (MSCEIT) of managers was examined. Among Czech managers, the multinomial logistic model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) statistic of 34.17, $p<0.05$, indicating a significant impact to career satisfaction of Czech managers. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.41 and 0.43 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that strategic EI had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 15.80, $p<0.00$, in predicting the career satisfaction of respondents (managers). The specific effect of strategic EI was a significant predictor of career satisfaction in the individual parameter estimates analysis. As the strategic EI of a manager is increased by a unit, the change in the odds of having a high level of career satisfaction (compared to poor career satisfaction) was 1.14, b= 0.13, Wald χ^2 (1) =4.83, $p<0.05$. The odds ratio of strategic EI to career satisfaction levels did not indicate a trend with changing career satisfaction levels. Strategic EI was not significant throughout as an individual predictor with changing career satisfaction levels among Czech managers. Gender has not shown any significant association.

In examining the Sri Lankan managers, the overall regression (multinomial logistic) model could not explain the variance of career satisfaction with regard to the impact of strategic EI and socio-demographic factors. Strategic EI (MSCEIT) has not been a significant contributor of predicting the career satisfaction level of Sri Lankan managers in this context.

Next, the impact of strategic EI to career satisfaction level of Czech managers was examined using the SREIS3 assessment. The multinomial logistic model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) statistic of 40.57, $p<0.00$, indicating a significant

impact to career success. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.47 and 0.49 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that strategic EI has a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 22.20, $p<0.00$, in predicting the career satisfaction of respondents (managers). The specific effect of strategic EI was a significant predictor of career satisfaction in the individual parameter estimates analysis. As the strategic EI of a manager is increased by a unit, the change in the odds of having a satisfactory level of career satisfaction (compared to poor career satisfaction) was 0.92, b= -0.84, Wald χ^2 (1) =4.47, $p<0.05$. The odds ratio of strategic EI to career satisfaction levels did not indicate a trend with changing career satisfaction levels. Strategic EI was not significant throughout as an individual predictor with changing career satisfaction levels among Czech managers. Gender has not shown any significant association.

Next, the impact of strategic EI to career satisfaction level of Sri Lankan managers was examined using the SREIS3 assessment. The multinomial logistic model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) statistic of 33.18, $p<0.05$, indicating a significant impact to career success of Sri Lankan managers. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.24 and 0.25 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that strategic EI had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 18.27, $p<0.00$, in predicting the career satisfaction of respondents (managers). The specific effect of strategic EI was a significant predictor of career satisfaction in the individual parameter estimates analysis. As the strategic EI of a manager is increased by a unit, the change in the odds of having a high level of career satisfaction (compared to poor career satisfaction) was 0.92, b= -0.09, Wald χ^2 (1) =6.31, $p<0.05$. The odds ratio of strategic EI to career satisfaction levels did not indicate a trend with changing career satisfaction levels. Strategic EI level was not significant throughout as an individual predictor with changing career satisfaction levels among Sri Lankan managers. Gender of managers did not indicate a significant association.

Finally, the impact of strategic EI to career satisfaction of Czech managers was examined using the Genos EI assessment. The multinomial logistic model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) statistic of 43.56, $p<0.00$, indicating a significant

impact on career satisfaction. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.49 and 0.51 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that strategic EI had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 25.19, $p<0.00$, in predicting the career satisfaction of managers. The specific effect of strategic EI was a significant predictor of career satisfaction in the individual parameter estimates analysis. As the strategic EI of a manager is increased by a unit, the change in the odds of having a satisfactory level of career satisfaction (compared to poor career satisfaction) was 0.66, b= -0.41, Wald χ^2 (1) =9.66, $p<0.00$. The odds ratio of strategic EI to career satisfaction levels did not indicate a trend with changing career satisfaction levels. Strategic EI level was not significant throughout as an individual predictor with changing career satisfaction levels among Czech managers. Gender has not shown any significant association.

The impact of strategic EI to career satisfaction level of Sri Lankan managers was examined using the Genos EI assessment. The multinomial logistic model was significant with a chi-square (χ^2) statistic of 39.19, $p<0.00$, indicating a significant impact to career satisfaction of Sri Lankan managers. The R^2 values of Cox and Snell & Nagelkerke (0.27 and 0.28 respectively) indicated the decent-sized effects of the model. Goodness of fit of the model was confirmed by the non-significance of Pearson and Deviance statistics, $p>0.05$. Likelihood ratio tests indicated that strategic EI had a significant main effect, χ^2 (5) = 24.28, $p<0.00$, in predicting the career satisfaction of respondents (managers). The specific effect of strategic EI was a significant predictor of career satisfaction in the individual parameter estimates analysis. As the strategic EI of a manager is increased by a unit, the change in the odds of having a high level of career satisfaction (compared to poor career satisfaction) was 0.64, b= -0.44, Wald χ^2 (1) = 10.11, $p<0.00$. Strategic EI level was significant throughout as an individual predictor with changing career satisfaction levels among Sri Lankan managers. However, the odds ratio of strategic EI to career satisfaction levels did not indicate a trend with changing career satisfaction levels. Gender of managers did not indicate a significant association.

H6a: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

The alternative hypothesis has been supported by the data involving SREIS3 and Genos strategic EI measurements among Czech and Sri Lankan managers. In the presence of those supportive observations, the null hypothesis can be rejected.

H6b: There is a significant relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

The alternative hypothesis has been supported by the data involving SREIS3 and Genos strategic EI measurements among Czech and Sri Lankan managers. In the presence of those supportive observations, the null hypothesis can be rejected.

In conclusion, the multifarious criterion of strategic EI predicted the career satisfaction level of managers, except MSCEIT EI with Sri Lankan managers. Strategic EI was a significant predictor of managerial career satisfaction. In that aspect strategic EI plays an important role in managerial career. However, strategic EI did not indicate any pattern or trend in predicting the career satisfaction of Czech and Sri Lankan managers.

5.10.3 Career success and strategic EI

Career success of managers was measured using the two composite indices of career success that was discussed in chapter four. They have been formulated for this study using a combination of objective and subjective career success.
i.) CICSCE: This is also referred to as 'CCSI1'
ii.) CICSEmS: This is also referred to as 'CCSI2'

CICSCE as the measurement of career success: 'CCSI1'

Strategic EI (MSCEIT) did not indicate a significant relationship with the career success (CCSI1) of Czech managers as depicted in table 5.31 below. However, strategic EI indicated a positive relationship with the CCSI1 of Sri

Lankan managers. As depicted in table 5.32 below, with each increase of strategic EI by a single SD, career success of Sri Lankan managers has increased by 0.22 SDs. Age of Sri Lankan managers indicated a positive relationship with CCSI1. However, the career experience of Sri Lankan managers indicated a negative relationship with CCSI1. Durbin Watson static of 1.50 confirmed that the assumption of tenability of independent errors is tenable.

Table 5.31: Strategic EI (MSCEIT) and career success (CCSI1) of Czech managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	48.063	10.642	
Strategic EI	.135	.119	.143
Step 2			
Constant	60.976	15.065	
Strategic EI	.096	.115	.101
Gender	3.411	2.784	.144
Age	-.081	.483	-.059
Career Experience	-.500	.490	-.354
Higher level of education	-4.659	5.403	-.115
Very high level of education	3.189	3.338	.128

Note: $R^2 = 0.02$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.23$ for Step 2, *$p<0.05$, $F(1, 62) = 1.29$, $p>0.05$ for Model1, $F(6, 57) = 2.89$, $p<0.05$ for Model 2, coded 0-female, 1- male, N = 64
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Strategic EI was measured by using SREIS3. As indicated in table 5.33, strategic EI (SREIS3) of Czech managers indicated a significant relationship with CCSI1. With each increase of strategic EI by a single SD, career success of Czech managers increased by 0.27 SDs. Socio-demographic factors of managers did not indicate a significant relationship with their CCSI1. Durbin Watson static of 1.75 confirmed that the assumption of tenability of independent errors is tenable.

Table 5.32: Strategic EI (MSCEIT) and career success (CCSI1) of Sri Lankan managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	33.322	11.051	
Strategic EI	.304	.131	.207*
Step 2			
Constant	13.962	17.995	
Strategic EI	.318	.138	.217*
Gender	-1.227	2.548	-.044
Age	.905	.392	.539*
Career Experience	-1.076	.391	-.648*
Moderate level of education	.037	9.621	.001
Higher level of education	1.338	9.500	.049
Very high level of education	5.539	9.587	.190

Note: R^2 = 0.04 for Step1, R^2 = 0.14 for Step 2, *p<0.05, F (1, 120) = 5.38, p<0.05 for Model1, F (7, 114) = 2.72, p<0.05 for Model 2, coded 0-female,1-male, N =122
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Table 5.33: Strategic EI (SREIS3) and career success (CCSI1) of Czech managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	41.400	9.900	
Strategic EI	.186	.098	.235
Step 2			
Constant	48.728	14.239	
Strategic EI	.214	.091	.270*
Gender	2.999	2.679	.126
Age	-.108	.460	-.078
Career Experience	-.514	.463	-.364
Higher level of education	-3.377	5.188	-.083
Very high level of education	4.278	3.226	.172

Note: R^2 = 0.05 for Step1, R^2 = 0.29 for Step 2, *p<0.05, F (1, 62) = 3.61, p>0.05 for Model1, F (6, 57) = 3.93, p<0.05 for Model 2, coded 0-female, 1-male, N = 64
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Next, the association between strategic EI (SREIS3) and the career success (CCSI1) of Sri Lankan managers was tested using a two stage hierarchical regression. The prediction of career success by strategic EI was poor, with statistics of $F(1, 120) = 0.11$, $p>0.05$ for model 1, and $F(7, 114) = 1.89$, $p>0.05$ for model 2 respectively. The regression model lacked the ability to predict the outcome variable, i.e. career success. Thus a significant fit between strategic EI (SREIS3) and CCSI1 was absent among Sri Lankan managers. Finally, strategic EI of managers was measured using Genos. Strategic EI of Czech and Sri Lankan managers indicated positive relationships with their career success (CCSI1). The details of regression analysis are not discussed here for parsimony. Socio-demographic factors did not indicate a significant relationship with career success.

CICSEmS as the measurement of career success: 'CCSI2'

Strategic EI was measured using MSCEIT. Association between strategic EI (MSCEIT) and the career success (CCSI2) of Czech managers was tested using a two stage hierarchical regression. The prediction of career success by strategic EI was poor, with statistics of $F(1, 62) = 1.39$, $p>0.05$ for model 1, and $F(6, 57) = 2.00$, $p>0.05$ for model 2 respectively. The regression model lacked the ability to predict the outcome variable, i.e. career success. Thus a significant fit between strategic EI and career success (CCSI2) was absent among Czech managers.

Association between strategic EI (MSCEIT) and the career success (CCSI2) of Sri Lankan managers was examined using a two stage hierarchical regression. Career success has been predicted by strategic EI with statistics of $F(1, 120) = 8.31$, at $p<0.05$ significant level in model 1. Strategic EI has accounted for nearly 7% variance of career success. Each unit increase of strategic EI has accounted for the increase of career success of a manager by 0.25 SDs. However, the predictive ability of career success (CCSI2) by strategic EI (MSCEIT) in the presence of socio-demographic factors has been insignificant with statistics of $F(7, 114) = 1.55$, $p>0.05$ in stage/model 2. The regression model has lacked the ability to predict the outcome variable, i.e. career success. Thus a significant fit between strategic EI and career success in the presence of socio-demographic factors was absent among Sri Lankan managers.

Strategic EI was measured by using SREIS3. As depicted in table 5.34, strategic EI (SREIS3) had a positive relationship with career success (CCSI2). Each unit increase of strategic EI has accounted for the increase of career success of a Czech manager by 0.35 SDs. Socio-demographic factors did not indicate a significant relationship with career success.

Table 5.34: Strategic EI (SREIS3) and career success (CCSI2) of Czech managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	1.610	.065	
Strategic EI	.002	.001	.313*
Step 2			
Constant	1.749	.098	
Strategic EI	.002	.001	.346*
Gender	.031	.018	.194
Age	-.006	.003	-.602
Career Experience	.003	.003	.278
Higher level of education	-.020	.036	-.074
Very high level of education	.022	.022	.128

Note: R^2 = 0.10 for Step1, R^2 = 0.27 for Step 2, *p<0.05, F (1, 62) = 6.75, p>0.05 for Model1, F (6, 57) = 3.45, p<0.05 for Model 2, coded 0-female, 1-male, N = 64
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Association between strategic EI (SREIS3) and the career success (CCSI2) of Sri Lankan managers was tested by using a two stage hierarchical regression. The prediction of career success by strategic EI was insignificant, indicating statistics of F (1, 120) = 1.27, p>0.05 for model 1, and F (7, 114) = 0.86, p>0.05 for model 2 respectively. The regression model lacked the ability to predict the career success of managers through strategic EI. Thus a significant fit between strategic EI and career success (CCSI2) was absent among Sri Lankan managers.

Finally, strategic EI of managers was measured using Genos. Strategic EI of Czech and Sri Lankan managers indicated positive relationships with their career success (CCSI2). The details of regression analysis are not discussed here for parsimony.

Also, socio-demographic factors did not indicate significant relationships with career success indices.

H7a: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

The alternative hypothesis has been supported by the data involving Genos strategic EI measurements among Czech and Sri Lankan managers. In the presence of those supportive observations, the null hypothesis can be rejected.

H7b: There is a significant relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

The alternative hypothesis has been supported by the data involving Genos and SREIS3 for Czech managers and Genos and MSCEIT for Sri Lankan managers. In the presence of those supportive observations, the null hypothesis can be rejected.

In conclusion, Genos strategic EI measurements of Czech and Sri Lankan managers indicated positive relationships with both types of career indices (e.g. CCSI1 and CCSI2). In the measurement of strategic EI using SREIS3, Czech managers indicated positive relationships with both types of career indices, and Sri Lankan managers did not indicate a significant relationship with any of the two indices. MSCEIT Strategic EI measurements indicated positive relationships with the career success (CCSI1 & CCSI2) of Sri Lankan managers only. Socio-demographic factors did not indicate significant relationships with career success of managers in general.

5.10.3.1 Association between antecedents and career success

The association between antecedents and career success of Czech and Sri Lankan managers was examined using both career indices, i.e. CCSI1, CCSI2 aforementioned. Socio-demographic factors were employed as control variables in the analysis.

Career success as a measurement of CICSCE: CCSI1

Table 5.35: Antecedents and career success (CCSI1) of Czech managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	68.636	11.898	
Gender	3.387	2.777	.143
Age	-.018	.476	-.013
Career Experience	-.578	.480	-.410
Higher level of education	-5.419	5.311	-.134
Very high level of education	2.690	3.276	.108

Note: $R^2 = 0.22$ F (5, 58) = 3.34, $p<0.05$, coded 0=female, 1= male, N = 64
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Control variables, viz. gender, age, career experience, and level of education have accounted over 22% variance of career success. Gender (being a male), and very high level of education have positively contributed to career success as depicted in table 5.35. However, none of these predictors are making a significant contribution in the model. The predictive ability of career success (CCSI1) by antecedents in the presence of socio-demographic factors was insignificant with statistics of F (22, 41) =1.34, $p>0.05$ in stage/model 2. The regression model consisting of antecedents has lacked the ability to predict the outcome variable, i.e. career success. Thus a significant fit between the antecedents and the career success of Czech managers was not supported by data. Durbin Watson static of 1.97 confirmed that the assumption of tenability of independent errors is tenable.

Sri Lankan managers indicated a significant relationship between socio-demographic factors and antecedents, and career success (CCSI1). Age and satisfactory level of AOC (compared to very low) indicated positive relationships. Career experience, higher levels of CPB (compared to very low), and higher levels of JSCA (compared to very low) indicated negative relationships with career success. Regression analysis was able to explain 28% of the variance in career success of Sri Lankan managers. Details are depicted in table 5.36 below.

Table 5.36: Antecedents and career success (CCSI1) of Sri Lankan managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	41.406	13.744	
Gender	-3.050	2.467	-.110
Age	.754	.394	.449
Career Experience	-.897	.390	-.540*
Moderate level of education	2.531	9.737	.078
Higher level of education	4.610	9.568	.169
Very high level of education	9.014	9.644	.308
Step 2			
Constant	30.667	17.521	
Gender	-4.041	2.672	-.146
Age	.806	.407	.479*
Career Experience	-.935	.398	-.563*
Moderate level of education	.884	9.936	.027
Higher level of education	3.748	9.665	.138
Very high level of education	7.438	9.840	.255
Lower level of RIS	-2.894	4.969	-.079
Satisfactory level of RIS	-2.493	4.814	-.081
Higher level of RIS	-1.661	4.807	-.050
Very high level of RIS	3.526	4.547	.111
Transformational Leadership	.370	.208	.191
Lower level of CPB	-5.363	5.506	-.147
Satisfactory level of CPB	-10.267	5.244	-.306
Higher level of CPB	-10.313	5.051	-.360*
Very high level of CPB	-15.419	5.628	-.467*
Lower level of AOC	.403	5.067	.009
Satisfactory level of AOC	9.151	4.436	.303*
Higher level of AOC	3.347	4.688	.093
Very high level of AOC	3.791	4.454	.131
Lower level of JSCA	-3.400	4.901	-.097
Satisfactory level of JSCA	-6.781	4.687	-.199
Higher level of JSCA	-9.633	4.822	-.296*
Very high level of JSCA	-7.162	4.542	-.241

Note: $R^2 = 0.10$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.28$ for Step 2, *$p<0.05$, $F(6, 115) = 2.20$, $p>0.05$ for Model1, $F(23, 98) = 1.69$, $p<0.05$ for Model 2, coded 0-female,1-male, N =122

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Career success as a measurement of CICSEmS: CCSI2

The predictive ability of career success of Czech managers by antecedents in the presence of socio-demographic factors was tested with a two stage hierarchical regression analysis. It was deemed insignificant with statistics of $F(5, 58) = 2.11$, $p>0.05$, and $F(22, 41) = 0.94$, $p>0.05$ in stages/models 1 and 2 respectively. The regression model consisting of antecedents lacked the ability to predict the outcome variable, i.e. career success. Thus a significant fit between the antecedents and the career success of Czech managers was not supported by data.

The predictive ability of career success of Sri Lankan managers by antecedents in the presence of socio-demographic factors was tested with a two stage hierarchical regression analysis. It was deemed insignificant with statistics of $F(6, 115) = 0.88$, $p>0.05$, and $F(23, 98) = 1.41$, $p>0.05$ in stages/models 1 and 2 respectively. The regression model consisting of antecedents could not predict the career success of managers. Thus a significant fit between the antecedents and the career success of Sri Lankan managers was not supported by the observations.

5.10.4 Moderating role of strategic EI to career success

The moderating effect of strategic EI in the relationship between career success (CCSI1, CCSI2) and a socio-demographic factor or an antecedent was examined. As a pre-requisite to the analysis of the moderating effect of strategic EI, the relationship between career success of Czech and Sri Lankan managers with a socio-demographic factor or a career antecedent in conjunction with strategic EI was examined using both career indices aforementioned. Multifarious strategic EI measurements were involved in the analysis. Education level, CPB, RIS, JSCA, and AOC were entered as dummy variables in the regression. An overall summary of the results are depicted in table 5.37 below. In the use of MSCEIT measurement, JSCA in conjunction with strategic EI indicated a significant relationship with career success (CCSI1) of Sri Lankan managers. CPB and JSCA separately in conjunction with strategic EI (MSCEIT) indicated a significant relationship with CCSI2 of Sri Lankan managers. SREIS3 strategic EI measurements were analyzed. Age and career experience (in conjunction with strategic EI) was significantly related to both career success indices, i.e. CCSI1 & CCSI2 of Czech managers.

Table 5.37: Relationship with career success in conjunction with strategic EI

Socio-demographic factor/ career antecedent	MSCEIT		SREIS3		Genos	
	CCSI1	CCSI2	CCSI1	CCSI2	CCSI1	CCSI2
Gender & strategic EI- CZE	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	Sig
Gender & strategic EI- LKA	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age & strategic EI- CZE	ns	ns	Sig	Sig	Sig	Sig
Age & strategic EI- LKA	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Career Experi. & stra. EI-CZE	ns	ns	Sig	Sig	Sig	Sig
Career Experi. & stra. EI-LKA	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education & strategic EI- CZE	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education & strategic EI-LKA	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital status & stra. EI - CZE	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital status & stra. EI -LKA	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
TFL & strategic EI - CZE	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
TFL & strategic EI - LKA	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
CPB & strategic EI - CZE	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
CPB & strategic EI - LKA	ns	Sig	ns	ns	ns	ns
RIS & strategic EI - CZE	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
RIS & strategic EI - LKA	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
JSCA & strategic EI -CZE	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
JSCA & strategic EI -LKA	Sig	Sig	ns	ns	ns	Sig
AOC & strategic EI - CZE	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
AOC & strategic EI - LKA	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

Note: Sig-signifies a significant association, ns-signifies non-significant association
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Genos measurements indicated significant relationships of age and career experience (in conjunction with strategic EI) with CCSI1 and CCSI2 of Czech

managers. JSCA, in conjunction with strategic EI (Genos) indicated a significant relationship with CCSI2 of Sri Lankan managers.

Above significant relationships were qualified for further analysis of the moderating effect (by strategic EI) on them. Respective socio-demographic factors and career antecedents were specifically examined for the moderation (by strategic EI) of respective relationships with career success mentioned above. In all the accompanying tests of moderation, the variables were centered and an interaction term between the predictor variable and the moderator (strategic EI) were created to avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991 as cited in Hayes, 2009).

i.) Moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between age and career success (CCSI1) of Czech managers

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine whether the strategic EI of a manager moderates the relationship between his/her age and career success. Strategic EI was measured using SREIS3 based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. In the first step (model 1) of the regression model, two variables were included: age of the respondent and the level of strategic EI. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the respondent's career success, $R^2 = 0.196$, $F (2, 61) = 6.29$, $p<0.01$. Thereafter, the interaction term between the respondent's age and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of a respondent. Change of $R^2 =0.05$, $F (3, 60) = 6.29$, $p<0.01$, $b =0.016$, $t (60) = 1.77$, $p >0.05$. Examination of the interaction plot of data indicated an enhancing effect that as age and strategic EI of a respondent increased, career success also increased (refer figure 5.7 below). Managers, who are elderly in age with moderate (low) strategic EI, had the lowest career success.

The moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between the age and career success of Czech managers (CCSI1) was measured using the Genos strategic EI based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. In the first step (model 1) of the regression model, the two variables were included. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the respondent's career success, $R^2 = 0.258$, $F (2, 61) = 10.59$, $p<0.01$. Thereafter, the interaction term between the

respondent's age and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of a respondent, with a R^2 =0.272, F (3, 60) = 7.48, p<0.01, b =0.034, t (60) = 1.09, p >0.05.

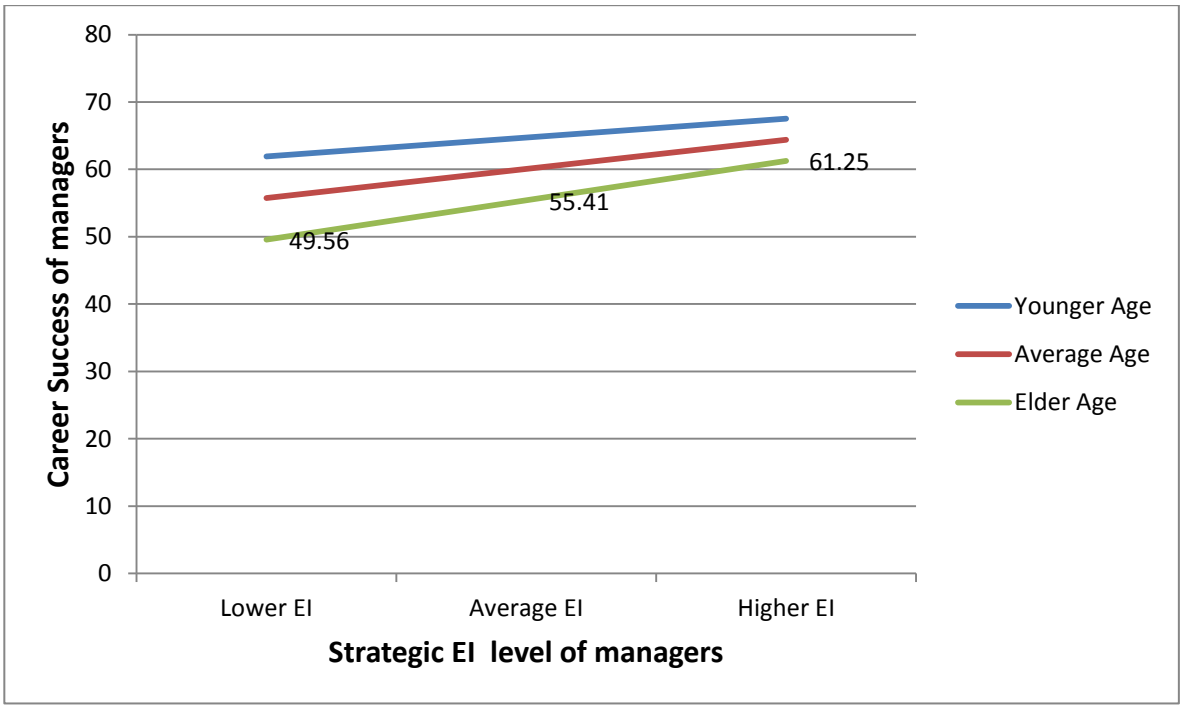


Figure 5.7: Moderating effect of strategic EI (SREIS3) on Age & career success**.**
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Examination of the interaction plot of data indicated an enhancing effect. With the increase of age and strategic EI of respondents their career success has increased noticeably. Younger managers with higher levels of strategic EI enjoyed higher career success. Strategic EI (Genos) has resulted in complete moderation of the relationship between age and career success at a greater level than the moderation effect of strategic EI (SREIS3) observed above.

It can be concluded that strategic EI (SREIS3, & GEnos) has a positive moderating effect in the relationship between age and career success (CCSI1) of Czech managers.

ii.) Moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between age and career success (CCSI2) of Czech managers

Moderating effect of strategic EI was measured on the relationship between age and career success (CCSI2) of Czech managers. Genos EI was used for the measurement of strategic EI based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. Career success was measured using the composite index of CCSI2. In the first step (model 1) of the regression model, the two variables were included. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the respondent's career success, $R^2 = 0.228$, $F (2, 61) = 9.01$, $p<0.01$. Thereafter, the interaction term between the respondent's age and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of a respondent, with a $R^2 =0.250$, $F (3, 60) = 6.67$, $p<0.01$, $b =0.000$, $t (60) = 1.33$, $p >0.05$. Examination of the interaction plot of data indicated an enhancing effect. With the increase of age and strategic EI of respondents their career success has increased noticeably. Managers, who are elderly in age with lower strategic EI, had the lowest career success. Strategic EI (Genos) has completely moderated the relationship between age and career success.

The moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between the age and career success of Czech managers (CCSI2) was measured using the SREIS3 strategic EI. A similar result to the above (with Genos strategic EI) was observed. Strategic EI has resulted in complete moderation of the aforementioned relationship. $R^2 = 0.197$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.215$ for Step 2, $F (2, 61) = 7.46$, $p<0.01$ for Model1, $F (3, 60) = 5.48$, $p<0.01$ for Model 2.

It can be concluded that strategic EI (SREIS3, & GEnos) has a positive moderating effect in the relationship between age and career success (CCSI2) of Czech managers. Further, multifarious measurements of strategic EI (SREIS3 and Genos) have indicated positive moderating effects in the relationship between age and career success (CCSI1 and CCSI2) of Czech managers.

iii.) Moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between gender and career success (CCSI2) of Czech managers

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine whether the strategic EI of a manager moderates the relationship between his/her gender and

career success. Genos EI was used for the measurement of strategic EI based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. In the first step (model1) of the regression model, gender of the respondent and the level of strategic EI were tested with career success (CCSI2). These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the respondent's career success, $R^2 = 0.209$, $F(2, 61) = 8.06$, $p<0.01$.

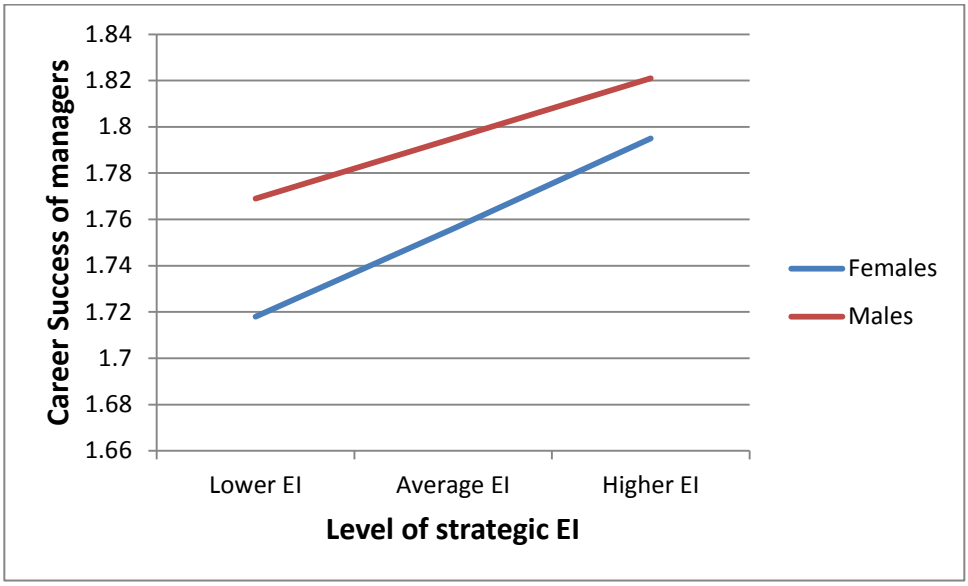


Figure 5.8: Moderating effect of strategic EI (Genos) on Gender & Career success of Czech managers

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Thereafter, the interaction term between the respondent's gender and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of a respondent. $R^2 = 0.215$, $F(3, 60) = 5.49$, $p<0.01$, $b = -0.002$, $t(60) = -0.687$, $p > 0.05$. Examination of the interaction plot of data indicated an enhancing effect that as the strategic EI of a respondent increased, career success also increased.

It can be concluded that regardless of the gender of the respondent (manager) career success (CCSI2) increased with the increase of the level of strategic EI (Genos EI).

iv.) Moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between career experience and career success (CCSI1) of Czech managers

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine whether the strategic EI of a manager moderates the relationship between his/her career experience and career success. SREIS3 was used for the measurement of strategic EI based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. Career success was measured using CCSI1. In the first step (model1) of the regression model, career experience of the respondent and the level of strategic EI (SREIS3) were tested with career success (CCSI1). These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the respondent's career success, $R^2 = 0.229$, $F(2, 61) = 9.05$, $p<0.01$.

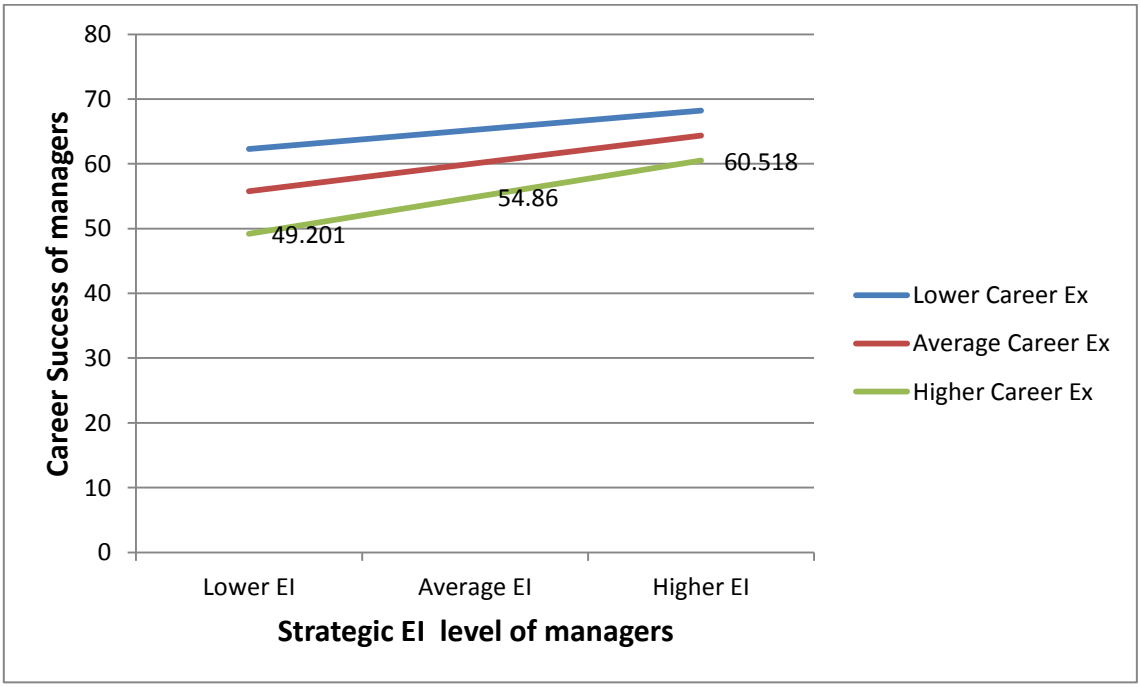


Figure 5.9: Moderating effect of strategic EI (Genos) on Career experience & Career success (CCSI1) of Czech managers.
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

Thereafter, the interaction term between the respondent's career experience and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of a respondent. $R^2 = 0.270$, $F(3, 60) = 7.40$, $p<0.01$, $b = 0.016$, $t(60) = 1.839$, $p >0.05$. Examination of the interaction plot of data indicated an enhancing effect that as the strategic EI of a

respondent increased, career success also increased. Managers with a higher level of strategic EI and a lower level of career experience have enjoyed higher career success than others.

The same relationship (career experience and career success) was measured using the Genos strategic EI measurement as the moderator. In the first step (model 1) of the regression model, the two variables were included. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the respondent's career success, $R^2 = 0.289$, $F(2, 61) = 12.38$, $p<0.01$. Thereafter, the interaction term between the respondent's career experience and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of a respondent, with a $R^2 = 0.302$, $F(3, 60) = 8.65$, $p<0.01$, $b = 0.030$, $t(60) = 1.06$, $p > 0.05$. Examination of the interaction plot of data indicated an enhancing effect. With the increase of age and strategic EI of respondents their career success has increased noticeably (refer figure 5.9). Younger managers with higher levels of strategic EI enjoyed higher career success. Strategic EI (Genos) had complete moderation of the relationship between career experience of managers and their career success. It was at a greater level than the moderation effect of strategic EI (SREIS3) observed above.

It can be concluded that strategic EI has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between the career experience and career success of Czech managers. Further, multifarious measurements of strategic EI (SREIS3 and Genos) have indicated a positive moderating effect to the aforementioned relationship.

v.) Moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between career experience and career success (CCSI2) of Czech managers

The moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between career experience and career success (CCSI2) was examined based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. SREIS3 was used to measure strategic EI. A positive mediating effect on the relationship was observed. Strategic EI has resulted in complete moderation of the aforementioned relationship. $R^2 = 0.174$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.198$ for Step 2, $F(2, 61) = 6.43$, $p<0.01$ for Model1, $F(3, 60) = 4.92$, $p<0.01$ for Model 2, with interaction term not significant at $p>0.05$.

Genos strategic EI (measurement) was used as the moderator on the relationship between career experience and career success (CCSI2). A positive mediating effect on the relationship was observed. Strategic EI (Genos) had moderated of the relationship between career experience of managers and their career success completely. Strategic EI has resulted in complete moderation of the aforementioned relationship. $R^2 = 0.212$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.234$ for Step 2, $F(2, 61) = 8.19$, $p<0.01$ for Model1, $F(3, 60) = 6.10$, $p<0.01$ for Model 2, $b = 0.00$, $t(3, 60) = 1.31$, $p >0.05$.

It can be concluded that regardless of the career experience of the respondents (Czech managers) their career success has increased with higher levels of strategic EI. Further, the positive moderating effect on the relationship between career experience and career success of Czech managers was observed with both types of career indices (CCSI1 and CCSI2) using multifarious measurements (SREIS3 and Genos) of strategic EI.

vi.) Moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between CPB and career success (CCSI2) of Sri Lankan managers

The moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between CPB and career success (CCSI2) was examined based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. MSCEIT was used to measure strategic EI. A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine whether the strategic EI of managers moderates the relationship between their CPB and career success. In the first step (model1) of the regression model, the level of CPB of respondents and their strategic EI (MSCEIT) were tested with career success (CCSI2). These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in respondents' career success, $R^2 = 0.105$, $F(5, 116) = 2.71$, $p<0.05$. Thereafter, the interaction term between the respondents' CPB and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of a respondent. $R^2 =0.112$, $F(6, 115) = 2.41$, $p<0.05$, $b = 0.251$, $t(118) = 0.961$, $p >0.05$. Examination of the interaction plot of data (refer figure 5.10 below) indicates an enhancing effect that as the strategic EI of a respondent increases, career success also increase. Strategic EI has moderated the relationship between CPB and career success. Managers with a higher level of CPB have increased their career success at a significantly higher rate with the increase of their strategic EI level. It can be

concluded that strategic EI (MSCEIT) of respondents have a positive moderating effect on the relationship between CPB and career success of Sri Lankan managers.

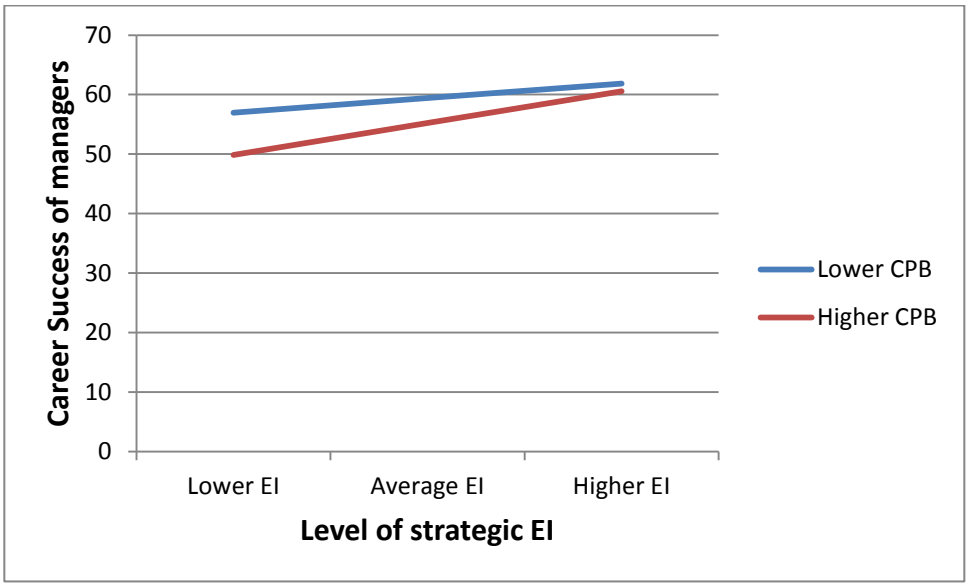


Figure 5.10: Moderating effect of strategic EI (MSCEIT) on CPB & Career success (CCSI2) of Sri Lankan managers

Source: Survey data, 2013/14

vii.) Moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between JSCA and career success (CCSI1) of Sri Lankan managers

The moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between JSCA and career success (CCSI1) was examined based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. MSCEIT was used to measure strategic EI. A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine whether the strategic EI of a manager moderates the relationship between his/her career anchor (job stability) and career success. In the first step (model1) of the regression model, respondent's perception of job stability as a career anchor and the level of strategic EI (MSCEIT) were tested with career success (CCSI1). These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the respondent's career success, $R^2 = 0.117$, $F(5,166) = 3.08$, $p<0.05$. Thereafter, the interaction term between the respondent's career anchor (job stability) and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of a respondent. $R^2 = 0.117$, $F(6, 115) = 2.55$, $p<0.05$, $b = -0.040$, $t(118) = -0.141$, p

>0.05. Examination of the interaction plot of data indicated an enhancing effect that as the strategic EI of a respondent increased, career success also increased (refer figure 5.11 below). Sri Lankan managers with a higher level of strategic EI and a lower focus on job stability as a career anchor had higher career success than others. In conclusion strategic EI (MSCEIT) has a positive moderating effect on the above relationship.

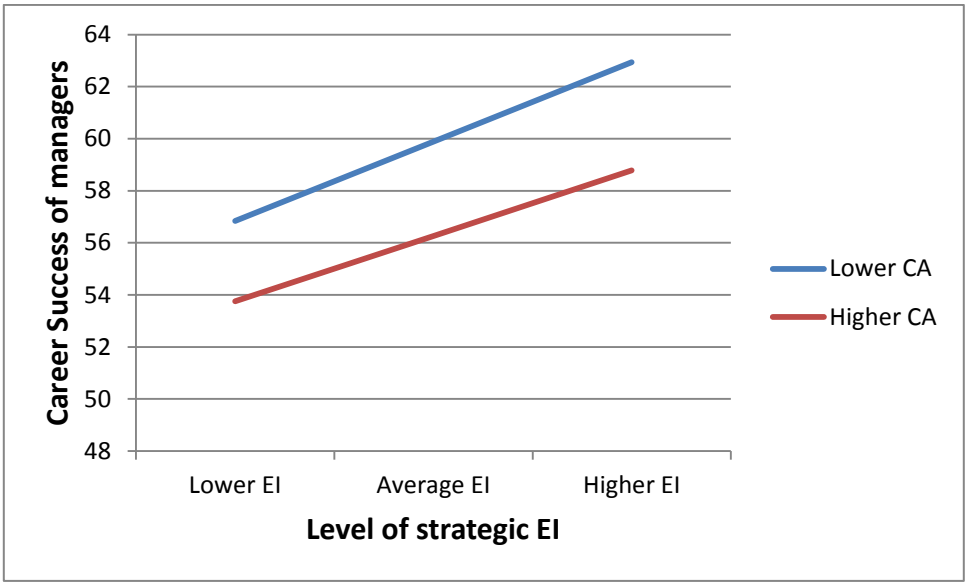


Figure 5.11: Moderating effect of strategic EI (MSCEIT) on Job stability as a career anchor & Career success of Sri Lankan managers
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

viii.) Moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between JSCA and career success (CCSI2) of Sri Lankan managers

The moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between JSCA and career success (CCSI2) was examined based on the analysis depicted in table 5.37 above. MSCEIT was used to measure strategic EI. The relationship between JSCA and career success was tested for the moderating effect of strategic EI, replacing CCSI1 by CCSI2. A similar result (as mentioned above in vii) was observed, with strategic EI having a positive moderating effect to the aforementioned relationship. $R^2 = 0.113$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.115$ for Step 2, $F (5, 116) = 2.96$, $p<0.05$ for Model1, $F (6, 115) = 2.48$, $p<0.05$ for Model 2, $b = -0.100$, $t (118) = -0.42$, $p>0.05$.

The moderating effect of strategic EI on the relationship between JSCA and career success (CCSI2) was examined using Genos. In the first step (model1) of the regression model, respondent's perception of job stability as a career anchor and the level of strategic EI were tested with career success. These variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the respondent's career success, $R^2 = 0.097$, $F(5,166) = 2.49$, $p<0.05$. Thereafter, the interaction term between the respondent's career anchor (job stability) and strategic EI was added to the regression model (model 2). It did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in the career success of respondents. The Genos parameters of strategic EI did not have a mediation effect on the relationship between a respondent's perception of job stability as a career anchor and his career success.

It can be concluded that MSCEIT measurements of strategic EI moderated the relationship between career success and a respondent's perception of job stability as a career anchor, with both composite indices (CCSI1 & CCSI2) of career success. Strategic EI indicated a positive moderating effect on the above relationship in Sri Lankan managers.

H8a: There is a moderating effect of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Data has not supported the alternative hypothesis. In the absence of supportive observations, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

H8b: There is a moderating effect of multifarious measurements of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Data has not supported the alternative hypothesis. In the absence of supportive observations, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

In conclusion strategic EI (SREIS3 & Genos) indicated positive moderating effects to the relationships of career success (both indices) with age and career experience in Czech managers. Strategic EI (Genos) also positively moderated the

relationship between gender and career success (CCSI2) of Czech managers. Strategic EI (MSCEIT) indicated a positive moderating effect to the relationship between JSCA and career success (both indices) of Sri Lankan managers. In addition, Strategic EI (MSCEIT) indicate a positive moderating effect to the relationship between CPB and career success (CCSI2) of Sri Lankan managers. Strategic EI do not have a moderating effect on other socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents examined in the study.

5.10.5 Mediating role of strategic EI to career success

Prior to examining the mediation effect of strategic EI, regression analysis were conducted between strategic EI and career success, career antecedents (with control variables) and strategic EI, and career antecedents (with control variables) and career success. Multifarious measurements of strategic EI (MSCEIT, SREIS3, and Genos) were involved in the analysis. After above analysis, the test of mediation effect of strategic EI (MSCEIT) on the relationship between career experience and career success of Sri Lankan managers has fulfilled the conditions of further analysis (refer tables 5.38, 5.39, and 5.40). Career success of managers was measured using the composite index of CCS1.

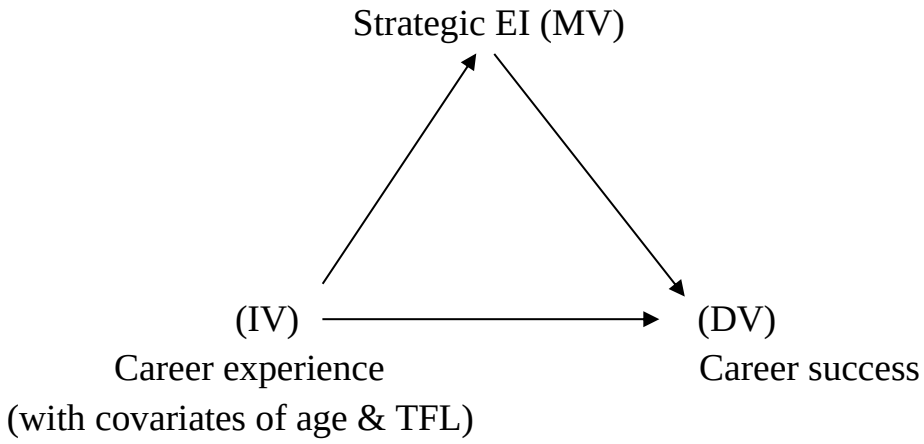


Figure 5.12: Examining the mediation effect

Figure 5.12 illustrates the examination of the mediation effect of strategic EI.
IV- Independent (exogenous) variable of career experience, DV- Dependent (endogenous) variable of career success, and M-Mediating variable of strategic EI.

Table 5.38: Career experience and career success (CCSI1) of Sri Lankan managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	63.490	3.287	
Career Experience	-.231	.150	-.139
Step 2			
Constant	32.292	13.441	
Career Experience	-.933	.389	-.562*
Age	.747	.397	.445
Transformational leadership	.218	.176	.113

Note: R^2 = 0.19 for Step1, R^2 = 0.67 for Step 2, *p<0.05, F (1, 120) = 2.36, p>0.05 for Model1, F (3, 118) = 2.84, p<0.05 for Model 2, Durbin-Watson=1.268, N =122
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

There was a significant relationship between the career experience and career success of Sri Lankan managers. Each unit increase of career experience has accounted for the decrease of career success of a manager by 0.56 SDs, as depicted in table 5.38.

Table 5.39: Career experience and strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	81.906	2.255	
Career Experience	.095	.103	.084
Step 2			
Constant	69.264	8.903	
Career Experience	.554	.258	.489*
Age	-.545	.263	-.476*
Transformational leadership	.418	.117	.317*

Note: R^2 = 0.01 for Step1, R^2 = 0.12 for Step 2, *p<0.05, F (1, 120) = 0.85, p>0.05 for Model1, F (3, 118) = 5.32, p<0.05 for Model 2, Durbin-Watson=2.518, N =122
Source: Survey data, 2013/14

There was a significant relationship between the career experience and strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers. Each unit increase of career experience has accounted for the increase of strategic EI of a manager by 0.49 SDs, as depicted in table 5.39.

In examining the mediating effect of strategic EI on the above relationship three basic conditions regarding the study variables, have to be satisfied. They are follows;

a.) A significant relationship between the exogenous (independent) variable, i.e. career experience (with covariates of age & TFL style) and the endogenous (dependent) variable, i.e. career success of managers. This condition has been satisfied as depicted in table 5.38.

b.) A significant relationship between the exogenous (independent) variable, i.e. career experience (with the covariates of age & TFL style) and the mediating variable, i.e. strategic EI of managers. This condition has been satisfied as depicted in table 5.39.

c.) A significant relationship between the mediating variable, i.e. strategic EI, and the endogenous (dependent) variable, i.e. career success of managers. This condition has been satisfied as depicted above in table 5.32.

MSCEIT EI assessment of Sri Lankan managers' strategic EI was qualified for the analysis of mediation effect as per the aforementioned criteria. As the above conditions have been fulfilled the first step in mediation process has been satisfied. Further, the assumptions of data measured on continuous scales, Normality, Independence, and Linearity have been fulfilled.

Testing the Mediation effect using multiple hierarchical regression

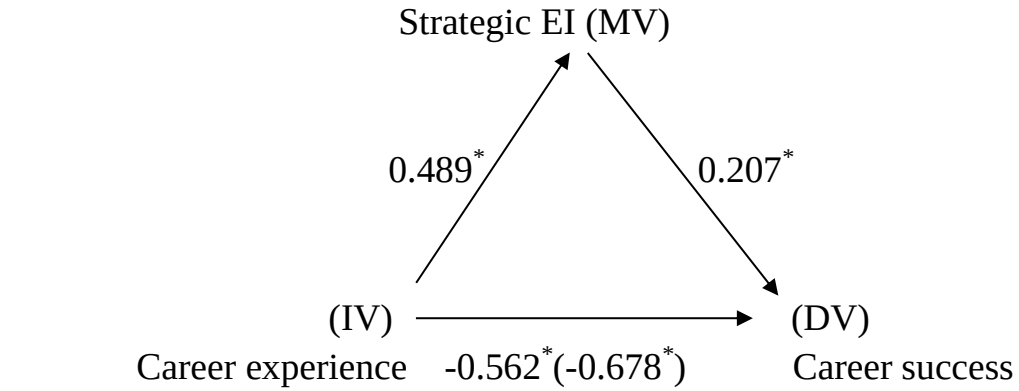
The mediation effect of strategic EI was further examined using a two-step hierarchical multiple regression as depicted in table 5.40 below. The negative relationship between the career experience and career success of managers has enhanced in the presence of strategic EI. Each unit increase of career experience has accounted for the decrease of career success of a manager by 0.68 SDs, which is a further increase (negative) of 0.12 from the previous relationship. It indicates an indirect effect on the relationship and has been illustrated in figure 5.13 below.

Table 5.40: Mediation effect of strategic EI

Variables	Unstandardized B	Standard Error	(Standardized) Beta (β)
Step 1			
Constant	33.322	11.051	
Strategic EI	.304	.131	.207*
Step 2			
Constant	8.209	16.156	
Strategic EI	.348	.136	.237*
Career Experience	-1.126	.387	-.678*
Age	.936	.395	.557*
Transformational leadership	.073	.181	.037

Note: $R^2 = 0.04$ for Step1, $R^2 = 0.12$ for Step 2, *p<0.05, F (1, 120) = 5.37, p<0.05 for Model1, F (4, 117) = 3.87, p<0.05 for Model 2, Durbin-Watson=1.117, N =122

Source: Survey data, 2013/14



Note: * = p<0.05

Figure 5.13: The indirect effect through mediation

Bootstrapping technique was used to examine the mediation effect further. The details of results are indicated below. In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of career experience on career success (in the absence of the mediator) was significant, b = -0.93, t (118) = -2.39, p<0.05. Step 2 showed that the regression of the career experience with strategic EI was also significant, b = 0.55, t (118) = 2.15, p<0.05. Step 3 of the mediation process showed that strategic EI controlling for career experience with career success was significant, b = 0.35, t (117) = 2.56, p<0.05. Step 4 of the analysis revealed that controlling for strategic

EI, career experience was a significant predictor of managers career success, b = -1.13, t (117) = -2.90, p< 0.05. Normal theory tests for indirect effect recorded an effect size of 0.193, which is not significant. Additionally a Sobel test statistic of = 0.857, p> 0.05 also indicated the non-significance of the mediation model (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Strategic EI has an indirect effect on the relationship. However, it does not have a significant mediation effect on the relationship between career experience and career success of Sri Lankan managers.

H9a: There is a mediating effect of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Data has not supported the alternative hypothesis. In the absence of supportive observations, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

H9b: There is a mediating effect of multifarious measurements of strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Data has not supported the alternative hypothesis. In the absence of supportive observations, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

In conclusion, strategic EI (MSCEIT) indicated an indirect effect on the relationship between career experience (with covariates of age & TFL style) and career success of Sri Lankan managers. However, the mediation effect was not significant. Data does not support the existence of a mediation effect of strategic EI on the above relationship.

5.11 SUMMARY

Data analysis and results have been discussed in detail in this chapter. Procedures of data screening and testing the conformity with assumptions were discussed in the first section of the chapter. The reliability of main variables,

overcoming the nonresponsive, and response biases were discussed to provide a reasonable base for other statistical analysis. Preceding the inferential analyses general features of the sample were discussed based on descriptive statistics. EFA was conducted to examine the newly formulated career satisfaction scale successfully. Major hypotheses were tested using the t-tests, ANOVA, hierarchical regression analysis, multinomial logistic regression, and bootstrapping techniques for causal and correlational relations followed by moderation and mediation effects.

6 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THEORY AND PRACTICE

This chapter reviews the contributions of the key findings of this study to theory and practice. The key findings of the study have been discussed to fulfil the gap of empirical findings discussed in chapter 1.3. Further, this chapter will also elaborate the compatibility of the present research findings with previous literature, if any.

6.1 FULFILMENT OF RESEARCH GAP

The gist of the research gap can be summarized into the following five key points:

1.) The necessity of multi-measurement approach of EI, especially comparisons between ability based measures and trait based measures.

2.) The necessity of cross cultural of EI research.

3.) The necessity of cross cultural EI research using the multi-measurement approach.

4.) The necessity of measuring sub domains of EI using the multi-measurement approach, specifically mapping the sub factors indicating congruency in ability-based and self-report based measures.

5.) The necessity to conduct multi-measurement approach mapped into congruent sub factors across cultures.

Study has fulfilled beyond the five key issues mentioned above providing value additions. Further, the findings will also enrich empirical findings in career success and occupational self-efficacy of managers. Fifteen specific objectives (chapter 1.7) were focused on the above issues. Findings have been discussed in detail in chapter five. The key contributions to theory and research are mentioned below.

6.2 GAINS FOR SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE

Gains for knowledge have been presented through a summarized version of key findings. They have been organized based on the specific objectives to facilitate comprehension and relevancy of context.

Objective 1: To examine the features, and implications in the multifarious assessment outputs of Strategic EI among comparable groups, i.e. bank managers.

Key findings: Multifarious assessments of Strategic EI indicate major differences, proven significant by statistical analysis. However, their Z scores indicate parameters of a common distribution, except in one instance. Multifarious strategic EI assessments indicate positive correlations from moderate to large.

Objective 2: To examine the major features, and implications in the assessment outputs of Strategic EI in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts among comparable groups.

Key findings: There are significant differences in Strategic EI among comparable groups across cultures (i.e. nationalities). This is proven by an ability based measure and a self-report measure of Strategic EI. Other self-report EI measure does not support this view.

Objective 3: To analyse the major associations of socio-demographic factors with Strategic EI of comparable groups in varying sociocultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: Socio-demographic factors have significant relationships with Strategic EI of Sri Lankan managers only. They do not indicate significant relationships with Strategic EI of Czech managers. It indicates that socio-demographic factors do not indicate significant relationships with all comparable groups across cultures.

Objective 4: To analyse the relationship between Strategic EI and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: There is a significant relationship between Strategic EI and combined career antecedents of AOC, CPB, RIS, TFL, & JSCA of managers across cultures, i.e. Czech and Sri Lankan. This finding is supported by a self-report based strategic EI assessment. Sound RIS and TFL indicate positive relationships with Strategic EI of managers.

Objective 5: To analyse the relationship between multifarious Strategic EI measurements and career success antecedents of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts

Key findings: There is no significant relationship between multifarious Strategic EI measurements and combined career antecedents of AOC, CPB, RIS, TFL, & JSCA of managers across cultures. The two (ability based and a self-report based) Strategic EI measurements do not support the findings of the third (self-report based) EI measure mentioned above.

Objective 6: To analyse the relationship between Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: Increase of OSE level of managers has led to an increase of the odds ratio with their strategic EI. This indicates an indirect association of higher Strategic EI with higher levels of OSE of managers. This can be observed among Czech and Sri Lankan managers.

Objective 7: To analyse the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and OSE of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: The indirect association of higher Strategic EI with higher levels of OSE of managers can be observed among Sri Lankan managers through multifarious measurements of Strategic EI. This relationship cannot be observed in the use of multifarious measurements of Strategic EI among the Czech managers.

Objective 8: To analyse the relationship between Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: Strategic EI indicates a significant relationship with managerial career satisfaction. Strategic EI plays an important role in managerial career. However, Strategic EI does not indicate any pattern or trend in predicting the career satisfaction of Czech and Sri Lankan managers.

Objective 9: To analyse the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career satisfaction of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: The multifarious criterion of strategic EI predicts the career satisfaction level of Czech and Sri Lankan managers. Strategic EI is a significant predictor of managerial career satisfaction.

Objective 10: To analyse the relationship between Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: There is a positive relationship between Strategic EI and career success of Czech and Sri Lankan managers. Socio-demographic factors do not indicate significant relationships with career success of managers in general.

Objective 11: To analyse the relationship between multifarious measurements of Strategic EI and career success of managers in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: There is a positive relationship between Strategic EI (measured multifariously) and career success of Czech and Sri Lankan managers. Strategic EI increases career success.

Objective 12: To analyse whether there is a moderating effect of Strategic EI to career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts.

Key findings: Strategic EI indicates positive moderating effects to the relationships of career success with age, gender, and career experience of Czech managers. Strategic EI indicates positive moderating effects to the relationships of career success with JSCA and CPB of Sri Lankan managers. Career success of

Czech and Sri Lankan managers does not indicate a mutual relationship with a socio-demographic factor or a career antecedent that is moderated by Strategic EI.

Objective 13: To examine whether there is a moderating effect of multifarious measurements of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts and to analyse it.

Key findings: Multifarious measurements of Strategic EI do not indicate a moderating effect in the above context among Czech and Sri Lankan managers.

Objective 14: To analyse whether there is mediating effect of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts it.

Key findings: Strategic EI indicates an indirect effect on the relationship between career experience (with covariates of age & TFL style) and career success of Sri Lankan managers. However, the mediation effect is not significant in the relationship.

Objective 15: To examine whether there is a mediating effect of multifarious measurements of Strategic EI to the career success of mangers in the relationships with socio-demographic factors, and career antecedents in varying socio-cultural and geographic contexts and to analyze it.

Key findings: Only the ability based Strategic EI measurement in Sri Lankan managers fulfilled the prerequisites in testing the mediation effect. Multifarious measurements of Strategic EI do not indicate a mediating effect in the above context among Czech and Sri Lankan managers.

6.3 GAINS FOR PRACTICE

Following key findings contribute to the practice of researchers, academics, professionals, employers, and organizations.

For Researchers and Academics

a.) Multitrait-Multimethod (MTMM) validity of EI research: Findings suggest that there are significant disagreements in the multifarious measurements of EI both within and across cultures. It emphasizes the need to focus on MTMM validity in the interpretation of EI assessments in empirical findings.

b.) Correlations among sub factors between ability based and self-report based EI instruments in comparison to the remaining heterogeneous sub-factors:
i.) The two sub constructs of Emotional Self-management & Emotional Management of others of Genos EI Inventory indicate moderate correlation in Sri Lankan managers' assessment of EI, mapped onto Managing Emotions of MSCEIT version 2, expert option.
ii.) The two sub constructs of Managing Emotion – (self) and Social Management of SREIS indicate moderate correlation in Czech managers assessment of EI, mapped onto Managing Emotions of MSCEIT version 2, expert option.
iii.) Genos EI Inventory and SREIS indicate strong correlations with Czech and Sri Lankan managers Strategic EI, disregard of the differences between the two differences in their self-report approaches.

c.) Strategic EI (Managing Emotions per se) assessments across cultures: There are significant differences among nationals of comparable groups, i.e. Bank managers in Strategic EI. Significant differences are observed based on gender as well.

d.) Internal reliabilities: Internal reliabilities of D&H Task areas of MSCEIT, and Emotional Self-Management domain of Genos EI (for Sri Lankan managers only) indicated unacceptable levels for scientific research. Reliabilities improve substantially at broader EI domains, e.g. Branch areas. Interpretation of EI research in sub domains seems not as reliable as with broader domains.

e.) New Measurement Scales and Indices:

i.) A modified, two-factor scale of career satisfaction has been successfully introduced in the study (refer chapter 4.3.4). Scale consists of four items of career satisfaction focused on the two factors of self-referent, and other referent criterions. EFA confirms the successful loading of items to the above two factors. Strong internal reliabilities indicate the employability of the scale across international groups of respondents. It needs to be experimented in larger scales for generalization.

ii.) A new career satisfaction index (CSI): CSI is a combination of 50% of the measurement of the aforementioned career satisfaction scale and 50% of a continuous scale indicating the percentage of overall career satisfaction (refer chapter 4.3.4). Composite scale has been differentiated into six categories based on the distribution of respondents' percentile scores.

iii) Two composite career success indices (refer chapter 4.3.4) have been successfully introduced as follows:

- Composite Index of Career Success 1 :(CICSCE) = 50% score of CAtoCE + 50% score of overall career satisfaction. This index is a hybrid, consisting equal proportions of objective and subjective career success. Index is based 50% on career achievement compared to career experience in combination with 50% of career satisfaction. Index is based on a common standard score combining the above two components.
- Composite Index of Career Success 2 :(CICSCE) = 50% score of CAtoEmS + 50% score of overall career satisfaction. This index is a hybrid, consisting equal proportions of objective and subjective career success. Index is based 50% on career achievement compared to employable space (life) in combination with 50% of career satisfaction. Index is based on a common standard score combining the above two components.

For Professionals, Employers, and Organizations

f.) OSE of managers: Higher EI levels indicate a relationship with higher levels of employees OSE. Improving Strategic EI contributes to improve OSE of managers/ employees.

g.) Career Satisfaction of managers: Strategic EI indicates a significant relationship with the career satisfaction of managers. However, a particular trend or pattern in the relationship is not definitive.

h.) Relationship with RIS and TFL: Strategic EI indicates a positive relationship with sound RIS and TFL of managers. Improving Strategic EI contributes to improved RIS and TFL displays among managers/employees in organizations.

i.) Career Success: Strategic EI contributes positively to career success across cultures. Improving Strategic EI contributes to improve career success of managers/ employees.

j.) Moderating effects of Strategic EI: Strategic EI indicates positive moderating effects to the relationships of career success with age, gender, career experience, JSCA, and CPB of managers. Improving Strategic EI contributes to improve moderating effects on those relationships. Strategic EI indirectly contributes to improve career success of managers.

6.4 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Limitations of this study and directions for future EI research have been discussed in brief.

6.4.1 Limitations of the study

Study has been limited to the Banking executives (managers) in Sri Lanka and Czech Republic. One hundred and eighty six managers have been interviewed from 14 Banking and Finance institutions based on stratified random sampling as discussed in chapter four. Access to professionals with managerial responsibilities from competitive industries (i.e. Banking & Finance) is a limitation faced in social research.

The static nature of is a serious (yet unavoidable) weakness of contemporary management research. This study also falls into this category as the data collection (interviewing and surveying) has been carried out at a particular point in time

during 2013/2014. Thus the understanding of the examination of the key variables will be limited to that of a snapshot of a management professional's (respondent's) career.

Career success and OSE have been selected as the real life outcomes to measure the impact of Strategic EI. Indices of career satisfaction and career success have been developed to advance the empirical insights in analysis. This study does not have the intention of presenting any definitive universally acceptable model of career success or development. Such an attempt is neither practical, nor accurate, as a multitude of contextual factors are related.

The other limitation is the possibility of socially desirable responding by the respondents. This is an inherent weakness in social research, and many steps (i.e. anonymity and confidentiality of respondents, structure of questions, categorization of survey results etc.) have been taken to minimise the impact.

6.4.2 Directions for future research

Incorporation of multi-method approach in EI research: Incorporating a multifarious approach is recommended to establish MTMM validity of EI assessments. It ensures the credibility of empirical findings of EI's impact on real life outcomes. It generates guidelines for developmental research.

Research focused on sub factors/ domains of EI: Interpretation of EI research based on sub domains needs to be focused to improve the validity of EI research. It facilitates improving the anomalies among measurement approaches. It provides guidelines to integrate and disintegrate factors to improve the validity of EI construct.

Integrative approach: EI research incorporating cross sections of employees (based on organizational hierarchies, across different industries, in larger numbers will provide greater validations to the empirical findings. An approach based on stakeholders' involvement across industries will facilitate such initiatives.

Longitudinal approach: Continuing the aforementioned integrative approach on regular periods (e.g. every four years) further validate the findings.

Across cultures and nations: EI research involving comparable groups (of employees) across different cultures provides greater validation to the conceptualization of EI.

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BSc (Agric) Honours (Specialised in Management and Communication) University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka

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Postgraduate Diploma in Marketing – Chartered Institute of Marketing, United Kingdom. Chartered Marketer

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National Diploma in Human Resources Management, MIPM - Institute of Personnel Management, Sri Lanka.

Career Details:

2011 to date - Reading for the PhD at Tomas Bata University in Zlin, Czech Republic.

2007 December to date – Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka.

2007 June to December – Director- MAS Institute of management & Technology of MAS Holdings.

2004 July to 2007 June – Ceylinco Development Bank Ltd – Senior Manager – Credit

Academic/ Research interests and Publications

Human Resource management, Marketing management, Labour Law, Organisational Development & Management.

Has published over 40 articles in indexed Journals, and Peer reviewed conference proceedings internationally and locally.

Awards during the PhD tenure

Graduate Scholar Award, World Universities Forum -2014, Lisbon, Portugal

Best (joint) PhD Paper presentation, 8th European Conference on Management Leadership and Governance, November, 2012, Pafos, Cyprus.

Professional and project activities at FaME, TBU in Zlin

1.) Head of the Research Team
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Internal Grant Agency: No. IGA/FaME
Project duration: 2012-2014
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Project duration: 2012 -2013
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APPENDICES

MSCEIT LEGEND
ITEM RESPONSES
I1-I141 = Actual Item Responses
If an individual item response is not provided the field is left blank.
A1 - H9 = Scored Item Responses

TASK SCORES
<Perceiving Emotions>
A = Faces Task
E = Pictures task

<Using Emotions>
B = Facilitation task
F = Sensations task

<Understanding Emotions>
C = Changes task
G = Blends task

<Managing Emotions>
D = Emotion Management task
H = Social Management task

BRANCH SCORES
_B1 = Perceiving Emotions
_B2 = Using Emotions
_B3 = Understanding Emotions
_B4 = Managing Emotions

AREA SCORES
EXP = Emotional Experiencing area
REA = Emotional Reasoning area

OVERALL EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE
TOT = Overall Emotional Intelligence

RawScore_X = Raw Score with no adjustments.
If the raw score cannot be computed a blank field is displayed.

AdjScore_X = Raw scores adjusted for Age Gender and/or Ethnicity

(Depends on Score ID chosen).
If no adjustments are selected a blank field is displayed.

Perc_X = Empirical Percentiles

SS_X = Standard Scores.
If the standard score cannot be computed a blank field is displayed.

SS_PosNeg = Positive-Negative Bias Score

SS_Scat = Scatter Score

NORM OPTIONS (ScoreID)
General Type with No Correction = 1
General Type with Age = 2
General Type with Gender = 3
General Type with Ethnicity = 4
General Type with Age and Gender = 5
General Type with Age and Ethnicity = 6
General Type with Gender and Ethnicity = 7
General Type with Age Gender and Ethnicity = 8
Expert Type with No Correction = 9
Expert Type with Age = 10
Expert Type with Gender = 11
Expert Type with Ethnicity = 12
Expert Type with Age and Gender = 13
Expert Type with Age and Ethnicity = 14
Expert Type with Gender and Ethnicity = 15
Expert Type with Age Gender and Ethnicity = 16

If demographic information (e.g. Gender/Age/Ethnicity) are not provided then a blank field is displayed.

QUESTIONNAIRE - FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO CAREER SUCCESS OF PROFESSIONALS

PLEASE **DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME**. What you write here are CONFIDENTIAL, and will be used only for a RESEARCH STUDY. Please f**eel free** to write your **genuine** responses. Thank You Very Much!

Please **select/ write** the **most appropriate response** **Code No:**

Section A – Background Facts

1) I am: Male ☐ Female ☐

2) My Year of Birth: 19__ Month: ☐

3) My work experience in the present organization: …….. Years …… Months

4) My work experience in the present Job title (designation): …… Years …… Months

5) My overall Work (Career) experience: …… Years ……. Months

6) My work position (official designation) in the organization:

   a.) Senior Manager or Above ☐ b.) Manager ☐ c.) Assistant Manager ☐
   d.) Other ☐ (Please specify) ……

7) My Educational **qualifications are**: A = PhD ☐, B = Masters Degree ☐
   C=Degree ☐, D = A professional qualification of over 2 year's duration ☐,
   E = Diploma (1 Year) ☐, F = Certificate ☐, G = Other ☐ (pls specify)……

8) Civil Status: A = Single ☐ B = Engaged (in a relationship) ☐ C = Married ☐ D = Separated (Living Separately) ☐ E = Divorced ☐ F = Widowed ☐

9) Please indicate the number of employees in your organization/ company ……

Section B - Leadership Behaviours

Statements from 10 to 29, describe **the way you involve in job tasks** in your organization. Using the scale below as a guide, write the number that **fits you most** in front of each statement

0	1	2	3	4
Not at all	*Once in a while*	*Sometimes*	*Fairly often*	*Always*

10) I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate ☐

11) I talk …….. ☐

12) I seek …… ☐

13) I instill …… ☐

14) I talk …… ☐

15) I specify …….. ☐

16) I spend ……. ☐

17) I go ……. ☐

18) I treat …… ☐

19) I act ……. ☐

20) I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions ☐

21) I...…… ☐

22) I ……. ☐

23) I articulate …….. ☐

24) I consider …… ☐

25) I get …… ☐

26) I …….. ☐

27) I suggest …… ☐

28) I …… ☐

29) I express …….. ☐

Section C – Team Behaviour

Following statements (30 to 35) describes **your involvement** in performing job tasks in your organization. Using the scale below as a guide, write the number that **fits you most** in front of each statement

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all Accurately						*Very Accurately*

30) I cooperate fully with others by willingly sacrificing own personal interests for the good of the team. ☐

31) I know and follow both the rules and the spirit of rules and procedures, even when the rules seem personally inconvenient. ☐

32) I consistently take the initiative (volunteer) to get involved in and do anything that might be necessary to help accomplish team objectives, even if such actions are not normally part of my duties. ☐

33) I avoid performing any tasks that are not normally a part of my duties by arguing that they are somebody else's responsibility. ☐

34) I go out of my way to congratulate others for their achievements. ☐

35) I look for opportunities to learn new knowledge and skills from others and from new and challenging projects. ☐

Section D – Relationship with Immediate Superior

Following questions (36 to 42) relate to **the relationship you are having with your immediate superior** (Superior) officer in the organization. Please select the **most appropriate** response.

36) Do you usually know how satisfied your Superior is with what you do?

A= Rarely ☐ ,B= Occasionally ☐, C=Sometimes ☐ D= Fairly Often ☐ E= Very Often ☐

37) How well does your Superior understand your job problems and needs?

A=Not a Bit ☐, B= A Little ☐, C= A Fair Amount ☐, D=Quite a lot ☐
E= Very Much ☐

38) How well does your Superior recognize your potential?
A=Not a Bit ☐, B= A Little ☐, C= A Fair Amount ☐, D=Quite a lot ☐, E= Very Much ☐

39) Regardless of the formal authority your superior has built into the position, what are the chances that your Superior would use his/her power to help you solve your job/work problems?
A=None ☐, B= Small ☐ C= Moderate ☐ D= High ☐ E= Very High ☐

40) Regardless of the amount of formal authority your Superior has, what are the chances that he/she would save you at his/her expense?
A=None ☐, B= Small ☐, C= Moderate ☐, D= High ☐, E= Very High ☐

41) I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present (at the occasion) to do so?
A= Strongly Disagree ☐, B= Disagree ☐, C= Neutral ☐, D=Agree ☐,
E= Strongly Agree ☐

42) How would you characterize your working relationship with your Superior?

A= Extremely Ineffective ☐, B=Ineffective ☐, C=Moderate ☐ D= Effective ☐,
E= Extremely Effective ☐

Section E – Job Performance

Following Questions (43 to 48) relate to **how you feel about yourself &job performance**. Using the scale below as a guide, write the number that **fits you most** in front of each statement

1	2	3	4	5	6
Not at all True					*Completely True*

43) I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities ☐

44) When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions ☐

45) Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it. ☐

46) My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational (job challenges) future. ☐

47) I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job ☐

48) I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job. ☐

Section F – Career Satisfaction

Following Questions (49 to 52) relate to your **career satisfaction**. Using the scale below as a guide, write the number that **fits you most** in front of each statement

1	2	3	4	5	6
Not at all True					*Completely True*

49) I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for a substantial income (Salary & Benefits) ☐

50) I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for advancement of knowledge and skills. ☐

51) I am satisfied with the overall progress I have made towards meeting my goals for the personal growth of my life. ☐

52) Compared with my former batch mates/colleagues, I have been very successful so far in my career development. ☐

53) When I look at my Career path (past and present job positions), the **overall satisfaction** that I feel about it is ____ %

Section G – Organizational Commitment

Following Questions (54 to 61) relate to how you **feel about your attachment with the organization**. Using the scale below as a guide, write the number that **fits you most** in front of each statement

1	2	3	4	5
Never	*Seldom*	*Sometimes*	*Usually*	*Always*

54.) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this (present) organization. ☐

55.) I enjoy discussing about this (present) organization with people outside of it. ☐

56.) I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. ☐

57.) I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. ☐

58.) I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this (present) organization. ☐

59.) I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. ☐

60.) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. ☐

61.) I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to this (present) organization. ☐

H- Statements (62 to 82) relates to certain instances (**emotions**) we experience in life. Use the scale below as a guide and circle the number that **fits you most** in front of each statement

+_____+_____+_____+_____+

1 2 3 4 5

Never Seldom Sometime Usually Always

		Almost Never	Seldom	Some times	Usually	Almost Always
62	I respond appropriately to events that frustrate me.	1	2	3	4	5
63	I fail to handle stressful situations at work effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
64	When I am under stress I become impulsive (emotional).	1	2	3	4	5
65	I take criticism from colleagues personally.	1	2	3	4	5
66	I am effective in helping others feel positive at work.	1	2	3	4	5
67	I effectively deal with things that annoy me at work.	1	2	3	4	5
68	I appropriately respond to colleagues who frustrate me at work	1	2	3	4	5
69	I fail to keep calm in difficult situations at work.	1	2	3	4	5
70	I help people deal with issues that cause them frustration at work	1	2	3	4	5
71	I remain focused when anxious about something at work.	1	2	3	4	5
72	I fail to resolve (find solutions to) emotional situations at work effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
75	When upset at work I still think clearly.	1	2	3	4	5
74	I don't know what to do or say when colleagues get upset at work	1	2	3	4	5
75	I have problems dealing with my feelings of anger.	1	2	3	4	5
76	When someone I know is in a bad mood, I can help the person calm down and feel better quickly.	1	2	3	4	5
77	I can handle stressful situations without getting too nervous.	1	2	3	4	5
78	I know the strategies to make or improve other people's moods.	1	2	3	4	5
79	I am able to handle most upsetting problems.	1	2	3	4	5
80	I am not very good at helping others to feel better when they are feeling down or angry.	1	2	3	4	5
81	I know how to keep calm in difficult or stressful situations.	1	2	3	4	5
82	I am the type of person to whom others go when they need help with a difficult situation.	1	2	3	4	5

Section I – Career Anchors

Following Questions (83 to 87) relate to **your Career decisions**. Using the scale below as a guide, write the number that **fits you most** in front of each statement

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree						***Strongly Agree***

83) Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy. ☐

84) I would not stay in an organization that would give me assignments (tasks) that would jeopardize (compromise) my job security. ☐

85) I usually seek jobs in organizations that will give me a sense of stability and security. ☐

86) I dream of a career that will allow me to feel a sense of stability and security. ☐

87) 'I am most fulfilled in my work life when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security' ☐

Thank You So much for your cooperation!

Chandana Jayawardena