

Emotional Intelligence of store managers, store cohesiveness, and store performance within a large retail firm

Verbetering en aanvulling van een wetenschappelijk artikel

Richard Bandstra
Universiteit Twente

Abstract

Deze bacheloropdracht is op de volgende manier tot stand gekomen: Prof. Mevr. Wilderom heeft meegewerkt aan een wetenschappelijk artikel dat is opgestuurd naar het Journal of Organizational Behavior (impactfactor 3.854 in 2011). De dataset van het artikel was uitstekend, door het gebruik van verschillende bronnen, een split-sample techniek en veel data. Toch vonden de reviewers van het tijdschrift dat er aan de structuur en inhoud van het artikel het nodige te verbeteren was. Nadat het artikel voor de eerste keer is opgestuurd is het daarom teruggestuurd met een aantal comments van reviewers. Deze comments zijn toen verbeterd en het artikel is weer opgestuurd. Ook bij deze tweede ronde is het artikel echter niet aangenomen, maar is het weer teruggestuurd met weer een groot aantal comments. Omdat de hoofdauteur er niet zelf meer aan kon werken, kwam Prof. Mevr. Wilderom bij mij uit om de comments door te voeren. Ik ben vervolgens met de makkelijke comments begonnen om te wennen aan het niveau dat gevraagd wordt om het artikel te laten publiceren. Na elke van de in totaal 4 rondes van verbeteringen die ik heb doorgevoerd, heeft Mevr. Wilderom met track changes aangegeven of de verbeteringen goed waren en wat er nog beter gedaan moest worden. Bijgevoegd is ook de 'response to reviewers' omdat elke comment van een reviewer een antwoord moet krijgen waarin staat wat er is gebeurd om de comment op te lossen. Het doorvoeren van deze comments is niet het enige wat ik heb gedaan. Omdat het artikel in 2011 al voor de eerste keer is opgestuurd en het artikel een tijdje is blijven liggen moest er ook nog nieuwe literatuur ingepast worden. Ook deze nieuwe literatuur uit 2011 en 2012 heb ik doorgevoerd in het artikel. Als laatste heb ik een aanvullende analyse gedaan naar de variabele cohesie omdat hier in de literatuur enige verwarring over bestaat. Deze heb ik besproken om te voldoen aan de eisen van een bacheloropdracht.

Abstract

This bachelorthesis has been written as follows: Prof. Mevr. Wilderom has worked on a scientific article that has been send to the Journal of Organizational Behavior (impactfactor of 3.854 in 2011). The dataset of the article was excellent, because of the use of different sources, a split-sample technique and lots of data. Still, the reviewers of the scientific journal said that the article needed improvements, in structure and in content. This is why the article was send back with some comments which had to be changed in order to get the article approved. After these changes, the article still wasn't good enough in the eyes of the reviewers and was send back again. The reviewers saw the excellent data-set of the article but the article needed major changes to strengthen the paper. Because the head author of the article couldn't fix these comments, Prof. Mrs. Wilderom came to me to assess these comments in a way that would satisfy the reviewers. I started with the easy comments to adapt on the standard which scientists of topjournals have. After each of the four rounds of improvements I made, Mrs. Wilderom made some track changes to give me information about the quality of changes that I made. In Appendix C the response to reviewers is attached, because all the comments of the reviewers need an explanation with what I did to fix the comments. The processing of the comments is not the only thing I did. The article was send to the journal in 2011. Because of this I had to search for new literature that was made in 2011 and 2012 and process these papers in the article. At last I made another analysis on the variable 'cohesion' because there is a lot of confusion about this variable in the scientific literature nowadays. I discussed this literature to make this a full bachelorthesis.

**Emotional Intelligence of Store Managers, Store Cohesiveness and Performance within
a Large Retail Firm**

**Keywords: Emotional Intelligence of Store Managers, Cohesiveness,
Employee Sales Performance, Store Sales Performance**

Abstract

Is high managerial competence in the social-emotional sphere tied to high unit performance? In this study, we examined the link between store managers' emotional intelligence and store performance: through store cohesiveness. We tested the path model with stores' sales performance data as well as with survey data, collected from 1,611 non-managerial employees and 253 managers operating the stores of a large electronics retailer in South Korea. The hypothesized model was tested at the unit-level, with common-method bias reduced. Store managers' emotional intelligence shows significantly related to cohesiveness of the stores which in turn significantly linked to managerial ratings of store-level employee sales performance. This perceived store-level employee performance was found to explain the objective stores' sales performance. The implications of these results for future studies and more effective management of such retail firms are discussed.

Emotional Intelligence of Store Managers, Store Cohesiveness and Performance within a Large Retail Firm

Researchers have examined many factors that may boost work-unit performance (e.g., Borucki & Burke, 1999; Gelade & Young, 2005; Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, & Niles-Jolly, 2005; Solansky, 2011; Le Blanc & González-Romá, 2012). One stream of research in particular has highlighted the beneficial influence of a unit's cohesiveness on various sets of unit performance indicators such as innovation and improved performance (see, Beal, Cohen, Burke, & McLendon, 2003; Chang & Bordia, 2001; Wang, Ying, Jian, & Klein, 2006; Guler & Nerkar, 2011; Al-Omari & Hung, 2012). In George and Bettenhausen's work (1990), for example, work-unit cohesiveness had a positive influence on unit-level prosocial behaviour and, in turn, this behaviour was positively related to unit sales performance. Expanding our knowledge of the driving forces of group/unit cohesiveness is critical because it holds a key on how to manage high performing organizational units.

On examining the role of leaders in shaping cohesiveness, a growing body of research has reported positive effects of effective leadership (e.g., the transformational form) and leader impression management style (Rozell & Gundersen, 2003; Wendt, Euwema, & van Emmerik, 2009; Wu, Neubert, & Yi, 2007). Given that it is likely that cohesiveness is associated with leadership aspects, our study addresses a related key research question: Can unit cohesiveness and performance be explained by the emotional intelligence of a unit manager? Emotional intelligence has emerged as one of the fundamental elements of leadership effectiveness (George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002). Moreover, the ways that emotionally intelligent managers¹ can lead work units more effectively is of continuing interest for both academics and practitioners (Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2001; Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, & Buckley, 2003; Rajah, Song,

¹ Emotional intelligence involves the accurate perception, understanding and regulation of emotion-relevant information of others and the self (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and this includes the ability to use own and other's emotions in reasoning and acting in order to solve small and large daily problems in social encounters (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

& Arvey, 2011; Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011; Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2012).

Surprisingly, however, there are only a few empirical investigations into the link between the emotional intelligence of a manager and work-unit-level phenomena, such as its cohesiveness (Koman & Wolff, 2008; Hur et al, 2011). The first goal of this study is, therefore, to address this potentially important link. Specifically, we conceptualize and empirically explore the emotional intelligence of a manager as a predictor of work-unit cohesiveness.

In addition to examining this link, the study tests whether a high level of emotional intelligence on the part of the unit's manager may translate into high employee sales performance. Although several studies have reported positive relationships between managerial emotional intelligence and employee performance (e.g., Sy, Tram, & O'Hara, 2006; Wong & Law, 2002), these studies still leave many questions unanswered. One such question is how an emotionally intelligent manager leads his or her unit to enhance employee sales performance at the collective level. We propose that a high level of emotional intelligence on the part of a manager is linked to high employee sales performance through high group cohesiveness (i.e., a strong shared desire on the part of its members to remain part of the group in order to pursue the group's task or goals that are considered to be very meaningful to them). The second goal of this study, therefore, is to test whether cohesiveness mediates the relationship between managerial emotional intelligence and employee sales performance. Thirdly, this study aims to add to the literature on the link between employee sales performance and a unit's financial outcome. How a group or unit of employees behaves in the workplace, including its combined performance, has long been viewed as a predictor of objective measures of unit performance (e.g., Borucki & Burke, 1999; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004). By examining this direct link, our study further explores whether the variation in employee sales performance across units may

explain market-based unit performance. The present study was done within an Asian retail firm. The relationship between store managers' emotional intelligence and cohesiveness was examined. Both variables were assumed to be the store-level drivers of employee sales performance (as perceived by unit managers), affecting in turn the downstream effect of employee sales performance on objective store sales performance. The basic conjecture here is this: emotionally intelligent managers create a work environment in which employees experience high cohesiveness. A high sense of unit cohesion encourages employees to perform better, which in turn leads to higher unit performance. This hypothesized path model (see Figure 1) was tested with both archival unit performance data and data from a large sample of surveyed employees (both leaders and followers) that were aggregated at the unit level, with common-method bias reduced through a split sample technique.

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

Theory and Hypothesis Development

Emotional Intelligence and Cohesiveness

There is evidence that emotional intelligence is related to the quality of social interaction; individuals who are highly emotionally intelligent are perceived as being more pleasant to be around with, more empathic, and more socially adroit than those low in emotional intelligence (e.g., Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Lopes et al., 2004; Mayer et al., 2008; Han & Johnson, 2012).

In line with previous studies, we suggest that managers with a high level of emotional intelligence may master their emotion-laden interactions with employees and others to form and maintain functional relationships. Emotionally intelligent managers accurately see and understand emotions of themselves and others, including the cause and effects of those emotions. The ability of emotionally intelligent managers to accurately detect employee emotions through verbal and non-verbal communication (i.e., facial expression, voice, and body movement) enables them to fine-tune their responses accordingly, such as giving

emotional support to the employees, whenever it is deemed to be appropriate. Thus, managers who are well attentive to emotional cues and show sensitivity to the feelings of employees – through their day-to-day interactions – are more likely to develop high quality interpersonal relationship with their employees (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002).

Manager's emotional ability has been shown to contribute to the quality of group member work experiences involving positive and meaningful group-focus emotions (Huy, 2011). Leadership might enhance a given level of group cohesiveness, and particularly the emotional aspects of leadership have been recognized as factors that promote better within-group relations and effective cooperation within the group (Rozell & Gundersen, 2003; Wendt et al., 2009). Workgroup cohesiveness often comes with intra-group feelings of solidarity or harmony as well as positivity about carrying out the group's task (Beal et al., 2003; Carron & Brawley, 2000). When employees perceive their unit as being highly cohesive, they sense that the bonding and closeness of the group is strong, and it is also an indication of their strong ties to the in-group (Nibler & Harris, 2003).

Emotionally intelligent managers' high accuracy in detecting also negative emotions may more easily prevent those from interfering with the accomplishing of employees' tasks. For example, they know that the expression of anger can elicit reactions like fear or reciprocal anger which may undermine productive work relations (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2003; Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Hartel, 2002). Employees under emotionally intelligent supervision not only value their group membership, but they also are likely to maintain cohesive member relations in ways that are functional toward the accomplishment of the group's task (George, 2000). Thanks to the leader's ability to pay attention to and recognize accurately member's emotional cues, it could be that the leader is likely to better understand and relate "single individual's emotional cues to the broader patterns of shared emotional cues that comprise the emotional composition of a collective" (Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009, p. 22). A manager's skill in accurately 'reading' his or her unit's collective emotions should fuel his or her ability

to subsequently handle daily incidences through which he or she can steer or regulate employee behavior toward productive task accomplishment while sustaining or enriching a particular desirable social identity.

In other words, we assume that managers can be instrumental in the process of shaping employees' perceptions of cohesion. By using their emotional ability they can shape perceptions of cohesion through voicing an emotionally grounded sense of meaningful direction and high-quality interpersonal communication. Drawing on the above, we hypothesize that a manager who is seen as being highly emotionally intelligent facilitates work unit cohesiveness.

Hypothesis 1: The emotional intelligence of work unit managers relates positively to work unit cohesiveness.

Cohesiveness and Employee sales performance

Studies have shown that cohesiveness positively affects the achievement of unit goals and desired outcomes (see, Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998; Mach, Dolan, & Tzafrir, 2010; Mullen & Copper, 1994; Shields & Gardner, 1997). For high unit performance it is often crucial that individual members devote extra energy, time and effort towards the collective goals. Employees of highly cohesive units value their membership and enjoy being a member of the unit (George & Bettenhausen, 1990). A highly cohesive setting, in other words, is a fundamental motivational aspect of employees' efforts to contribute to a favorable outcome for the work unit and its members (Karau & Williams, 1997). Moreover, cohesion emphasizes the socially oriented basis of group unity, which is built by a willingness to participate and a commitment to reciprocate by behaving in ways that benefits collective goals (Beal et al., 2003; George & Bettenhausen, 1990). Thus, cohesiveness may be an important variable that drives employees to employee behaviors such as citizenship and high performance for the benefit of the unit they belong to. Employees who do not identify themselves with the unit, or those who act as peripheral members in the unit, tend to lend less

effort towards collective goals (Karau & Williams, 1997; Worchel, Rothgerber, Day, Hart, & Butemeyer, 1998) – a phenomenon known as social loafing: it is something that limits work unit effectiveness or performance (Erez & Somech, 1996; Mulvey, Bowes-Sperry, & Klein, 1998). Von Dick, Stellmacher, Wagner, Lemmer, and Tissington (2009, p. 609) has shown that one way to overcome social loafing is to heighten “the salience of group memberships.” Put differently, a strong sense of identity with the work unit and the presence of strong ties with coworkers play a role in the amount of employee efforts to be productive with little dysfunctional behavior (see, Hodson, 1997; Kidwell & Valentine, 2009). In a military as well as a project team setting, for instance, cohesive relationships with coworkers have been seen as an important element in facilitating members’ task performance and promoting positive group outcomes (Jordan, Field, & Armenakis, 2002; Wang et al., 2006). Strong interpersonal dynamics through communication, cooperation, and resource sharing within the group add value to employees’ ability to continue working together and have resulted in overall employee productivity (Barrick et al., 1998; Evans & Davis, 2005). Also sales employees who see their workplace as being characterized by mutual respect, cohesion, and support have been shown to enhance their performance (Martin & Bush, 2006).

In summary, the degree of cohesiveness in a work unit is a powerful driving force to productively align members’ attitudes and behaviors toward their jobs. Thus, we hypothesize, based on the aforementioned, that unit cohesiveness will be positively related to the extent of employee sales performance at the unit level.

Hypothesis 2: Work unit cohesiveness relates positively to employee sales performance.

Cohesiveness as a Mediator

Thus far, we have reviewed literature on 1) the emotional intelligence of managers as a potential antecedent of work unit cohesiveness, and on 2) how work unit cohesiveness affects employee sales performance. Extending this logic, we further suggest that

cohesiveness partially mediates the relationship between a unit manager's emotional intelligence and employee sales performance. A requirement for this proposition is that a leader's emotional intelligence is related to employee sales performance. An extensive range of studies have conceptualized and reported the beneficial effects of managerial emotional intelligence on various aspects of employee (sales) performance (e.g., George, 2000; Rozell, Pettijohn, & Parker, 2006; Sy et al., 2006). More specifically, managers who scored high on emotional intelligence have been shown to lead employees to perform better in a project and a customer service environment (Langhorn, 2004; Leban & Zulauf, 2004). Furthermore, managers' emotional intelligence has been shown to be capable of influencing desired employees' workplace behaviors (Wong & Law, 2002) and of promoting employees' creativity (Zhou & George, 2003). Although it is generally agreed that a manager's emotional intelligence is the factor that influences perceived employee performance and attitudes at the individual level, little empirical evidence exists on the function of emotional intelligent leadership at the work-unit level. The effects of emotional intelligence may carry over to leadership styles or to the relationship between leaders and members (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Hur, van den Berg, & Wilderom, 2011). To contribute further to this line of research, we conjecture that a manager's high emotional intelligence may affect work-unit level employee sales performance by fostering high work unit cohesiveness. Employees of a cohesive unit share both their commitment to the group's task and an attraction and mutual liking for one another. A high sense of unit cohesion can thus be a unit resource whereby unit members work well together while taking their responsibilities seriously; they know their individual performance ought to contribute to achieving collective unit objectives and they share this individual as well as collective level of work motivation.

A manager's ability to project an optimistic outlook and effectively control his or her own emotions, through stress tolerance, has shown to contribute to developing a positive emotional climate (Caruso et al., 2003; George, 2000; Goleman et al., 2001). In positive work

environments, more cooperation among members and less persisting conflict and/or tension are expected (Huy, 2002). Appropriate managerial modeling, especially in response to challenging situations, ensures that employees' attitudes and behaviors are in line with the performance norms of their unit. In summary, we expect that an emotionally intelligent manager may substantially contribute to work unit cohesiveness in order to enhance employees' performance.

Especially in work contexts with a high level of human contact, employees are expected to display cheerful or friendly emotions, regardless of their true feelings, even in difficult situations (i.e., negative or rude behavior of their customers, or peers). In situations in which anger, frustration, and resentment are suppressed, it is very likely to be accompanied by counterproductive workplace behaviors (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Grandey, 2000). These behaviors can be prevented by emotionally intelligent managers, but if they occur, nevertheless, they may potentially hinder members' cooperation with the work-unit's goals and diminish their commitment to their unit. Due to the relatively high sensitivity of their communications with their work-unit employees, an emotionally intelligent manager may have a strong impact on the cohesiveness felt amongst the group members. Emotionally intelligent managers are able to accurately perceive, understand and deal with these (various and possible) signs of emotional jolts including disturbances on the part of their employees; they are especially attuned to the signaling function of negative effects (George, 2000; Zhou & George, 2003). Then, by responding well to employees' needs in such circumstances in a timely manner, that is, helping employees to channel their emotions during work in productive ways, emotionally intelligent managers are likely to create favorable work conditions and thereby enhance the work motivation. Examples of the types of emotionally intelligent responses may include, for example, letting employees take a break away from their desks, and providing individualized support or being empathetic in cases of employee emotional exhaustion. Being able to understand the causes and

consequences of people's emotions, emotionally intelligent managers are better equipped to intervene productively in negative workplace events that may otherwise create unwanted tension and conflict (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002).

Thus, we propose that work-unit cohesiveness acts as a mediator between a manager's emotional intelligence and employee sales performance at the work-unit level. In this hypothesis, we propose partial rather than full mediation because emotionally intelligent managers may be also effective in facilitating employee performance through other mechanisms, such as by establishing leader-member relationships (see, Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005), and by implementing high-performance work practices at the unit level (e.g., employee involvement) that may directly enhance employees' skills and abilities to perform better (Liao & Chuang, 2007).

Hypothesis 3: Work unit cohesiveness partially mediates the relationship between the emotional intelligence of work unit managers and employee sales performance.

Employee and Store Performance

Since we are interested in the performance variability between similar work-units, we focus on in-role aspects of employee performance and activities relevant to sales environments (including the efficiency in performing the assigned role, efforts to increase sales volume, etc.). Employee sales performance is defined as the collective core-task performance of employees - as perceived by unit managers. It has long been acknowledged that how employees perform is significantly correlated with organizational or work units' effectiveness (i.e., sales and profitability) (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Ryan, Schmit, & Johnson, 1996; Schneider et al., 2005). Borucki and Burke's path model (1999) confirmed the positive link between employees' service performance and a unit's financial returns at the retail store level. These results are consistent with the so called service profit chain logic which refers to a causal chain, linking employee productivity to a firm's financial

performance through mediating constructs such as customer satisfaction and loyalty (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994). An organization's product and services are not merely bought by its customers; they are actively sold by its employees (Ryan et al., 1996). Particularly, in a sales context where employee-customer face-to-face interaction occurs, a unit's sales achievement may be maximized when employees are proficient in communicating with customers, actively performing to provide customers with information and knowledgeable advice or helping them locate items that will suit their needs (Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, & Spangler, 1995; Martin & Bush, 2006). The service profit chain framework leads to the assumption that customers who are the recipients of proactive sales personnel's behaviors are more likely to enjoy their shopping experience and to develop a positive opinion of the store; the store may come to be viewed as a nice place in which courteous or professional assistance is provided. This is likely to result in repeat visits to the store, increased levels of spending per visit, as well as a propensity for customers to recommend the store to friends or family (Zeithaml, 2000). Eventually, all of these potential outcomes of the level of employee performance in a sales context could ultimately affect a unit's sales achievement. Although we did not examine such customer variables in this study, we postulate, based on the above review, that work units reporting greater employee sales performance attain higher objective performance levels.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived work unit employee sales performance is positively related to actual unit sales performance.

Method

Participants and Procedures

All of the 261 stores belonging to a national electronics-retail company in South Korea were invited to participate in this study. Each store has a strong corporate image, with similar store layouts. Yet, each store operates with managerial autonomy. Hence the stores are comparable enough to support inter-unit analysis, and independent enough to allow for

variation in important variables. The employees of the stores consist mainly of sales personnel working together in an interdependent fashion in order to optimize their own store's sales achievement. Store managers manage day-to-day store operations and are responsible for both their stores' personnel and profitability.

We first sent a short survey to the store managers through the company's internal electronic mail system. All the store managers were queried about their perceptions of their employees' sales performance. One week later, all the employees of each of the stores were invited to participate in the survey. Since the non-managerial store employees do not usually use a computer during their regular working hours, it was decided to administer the non-managerial survey in a paper-and-pencil version. We delivered the non-managerial surveys to the personnel manager in the head office who distributed the surveys internally to all the non-managerial employees at the store sites. The completed surveys were returned to a regional office; from there they were mailed back to us. Each non-managerial survey contained copies of the employee questionnaire (equal to the number of employees in each store) and an introductory letter in which voluntary participation was stressed as well as assurances of confidentiality. Non-managerial store employees were queried about both the store managers' emotional intelligence and their own store's cohesiveness. Objective store sales performance figures and other store information were collected from corporate records, with the assistance of members of the corporate headquarters' human resource division.

The questionnaires were distributed to all of the 1,732 employees who worked in the stores, as well as to the 261 store managers. Of these, 1,657 non-managerial employee questionnaires (95.7% response rate), and 258 store manager questionnaires (98.9% response rate) were returned. In order to ensure store representativeness, we had to drop 5 stores: these stores returned fewer than 3 completed employee questionnaires. After further excluding the incomplete questionnaires and those that could not be matched with a store manager, the final sample comprised of 253 store managers and 1,611 employees.

The size of the 253 stores ranged from 4 to 16 members ($M = 6.75$, $SD = 1.86$). In the sample of store managers, 99.6% were males, with a mean age of 42.48 years ($SD = 4.62$). Approximately 98% of the managers had been working for the organization for more than 7 years and 53.4% of these managers had been working in their current stores for at least one to three years. About 45% of the managers in the sample had at least a bachelor's degree. Among the non-managerial sample, 53.5% were males, with a mean age of 28.47 years ($SD = 4.84$). Of these employees, 53.8% had a high school diploma, while 44.8% had completed college. More than half of the non-managerial employees had been working for the organization for more than 3 years, and 20.3% had worked in their current stores for more than 3 years. The original English language questionnaire was translated into Korean using the standard backward translation method. Pre-testing of the survey involved interviewing 10 employees from corporate headquarters to assess the applicability of all the survey items.

Measures

Emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence was measured using the 16 items from the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Wong & Law, 2002). The WLEIS is consistent with Mayer and Salovey's (1997) conceptualization of emotional intelligence, and was developed specifically for Asian respondents and has been used in prior studies including a recent Korean sample (Hur et al., 2011; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004; Sy et al., 2006). The ratings of store managers' emotional intelligence are the perceptions of the employees; this was our response to concerns about self-reported tests of emotional intelligence (see, Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). Through their daily contacts, employees in this work unit setting have ample opportunity to observe their managers. The WLEIS has demonstrated convergent and discriminant validity: as a self- as well as an observer-rating measure (see, Law et al., 2004).

The WLEIS consists of four dimensions, namely, Self-Emotion Appraisal, Others' Emotion Appraisal, Uses of Emotion to Facilitate Performance, and Regulation of Emotion

(of the self). The Self-Emotion Appraisal (SEA) dimension measures the ability to understand and express one's own emotions (e.g. "Has a good understanding of his/her own emotions"). The Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA) assesses an individual's ability to perceive and understand the emotions of others (e.g. "Is a good observer of others' emotions"). The Use of Emotion (UOE) refers to one's ability to channel one's emotions toward constructive activities that facilitate performance (e.g. "Always sets goals for himself/herself and then tries his/her best to achieve them"). Finally, the Regulation of Emotion (ROE) dimension measures the ability to regulate one's emotions (e.g. "Is able to control his/her temper and handle difficulties rationally"). We added four items to the Use of Emotion dimension. Two items were taken from Wong, Law, and Wong (2004) (e.g. "Motivates himself/herself to face failure positively"), and the other two items were from the Emotional Competency Inventory (Sala, 2002) (e.g. "Spots potential conflicts and brings disagreements into the open and helps de-escalate them"). Results of a factor analysis of the items, confirmed a one-factor solution for the Use of Emotion dimension with an eigenvalue of 15.10 and with factor loadings that explained 59.1% of the total items' variance. Each item was measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree). Cronbach's alpha for the overall emotional intelligence was .97 and the alphas for the respective dimensions were .93 (SEA), .90 (OEA), .90 (UOE), and .96 (ROE).

Cohesiveness. Eight cohesiveness items were taken from Wilson et al. (2008). Our 8-item cohesiveness measure asks respondents to use their store as a referent in accordance with the referent-shift consensus composition model (Chan, 1998). A group referent, directing respondents' attention to the common experience or characteristics of their work environment, typically engenders between-group variability as well as within-group agreement (Klein, Conn, Smith, & Sorra, 2001). Sample items include "Members in this store show that they care for one another" and "Members in this store feel a sense of belongingness to the store". The eight items were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (completely

disagree) to 7 (completely agree). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale in this study was .95.

Employee sales performance. Employee sales performance was measured with a 9-item scale, labeled "sales personnel performance" (Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1990), this scale is representative of and specific to a sales task in a retail context. Store managers were asked to rate their store sales personnel as a whole on sales growth efforts, work attitudes, and overall performance and improvement efforts using a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent). A sample item is "How would you rate the sales growth efforts of the employees in your store?" The nine items in the survey refer to a collection of behavioral features of the store employees, focusing on sales performance. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .88.

Store sales performance. Store sales performance was collected one month after our survey had been administered in order to lessen a bias that might have arisen from collecting all the data simultaneously (see, Gibson, Porath, Benson, & Lawler, 2007). This performance data was identical to the company's monthly collected store sales figure: the percentage of set targets achieved for the month. This indicator is also used for internal purposes and is the most direct assessment of store-level, bottom-line sales results in a retail setting; it is ultimately what the store managers are attempting to maximize. Therefore, it has operational validity in this study.

Control variables. It has been noted that the extent of emotional intelligence may vary as a result of the focal managers' demographic variables, such as age or gender (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Mayer et al., 2004). Because the majority of store managers were males (99.6%) in our sample, we controlled, statistically, not for gender but for store manager's age. Moreover, we controlled for company tenure and employee store tenure as well as for store size since these variables have been shown to account for employee performance and employees' perceptions of work environments (Koene, Vogelaar, & Soeters, 2002); employees gain more job-relevant knowledge and skills as a result of longer working experiences, thus those stores with more long-tenured employees may have higher

sales performance. Store tenure and company tenure refer to the mean number of years that employees have worked for the store and the company, respectively. These variables reflect the average employee experience in the specific store and within the company. Store size was based on corporate records.

Analytical Procedures

We aggregated the employees' responses on emotional intelligence and cohesiveness at the store level. This aggregation of individual perceptions to a work-unit level has certain requirements (e.g., Bliese, 2000). In order to test whether there was consensus or sufficient similarity within stores on the ratings of the two scales, we obtained the intra-class correlations (ICC1 and ICC2) and within-group inter-rater reliability ($r_{WG(J)}$). The ICC1 is a measure of within-group consensus, and the median value in organizational research is typically .12 (James, 1982). We performed multilevel analysis of an unconditional means model, or equivalently random effects one-way analysis of variance. All between-store variances were significant ($p < .01$) and the ICC1 values were around the suggested value of .20 (Bliese, 2000): .26 and .18 for emotional intelligence and cohesiveness, respectively. The ICC2 is the reliability of the group mean that is formed when individual scores are aggregated. Ostroff and Schmitt (1993) suggest that when the ICC2 values exceed .60, the reliability of group means is acceptable. In this study, the ICC2 values for emotional intelligence and for cohesiveness were .98 and .97, respectively. The interpretation of the $r_{WG(J)}$ is similar to that of other types of reliability coefficients. A value of .70 or above suggests that there is a good amount of within-group agreement (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). The median $r_{WG(J)}$ values were .99 and .98 for emotional intelligence and for cohesiveness, respectively, which indicated high levels of agreement within the stores. Thus, aggregating employees' scores on emotional intelligence and cohesiveness at the store-level was justified on statistical grounds.

For employee sales performance, we used data from the total sample. Ratings on emotional intelligence and cohesiveness were taken from the employees' responses. In order to control for percept-percept bias (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Clark, 2002), we randomly divided the employees of each store into two groups. All hypotheses involving the emotional intelligence variable were tested using responses from group one ($N = 811$, 50.3%), while the hypotheses which included cohesiveness were tested using responses from group two ($N = 800$, 49.7%).

Our hypothesized model tested a mediation relationship among managers' emotional intelligence (exogenous variable), cohesiveness (mediating variable), and employee sales performance (endogenous variable) (see Figure 1). Three conditions must be met in order to claim that mediation is present (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Little, Card, Bovaird, Preacher, & Crandall, 2007); (1) an exogenous variable must influence a potential mediating variable (path *a*), (2) the mediating variable must influence an endogenous variable (path *b*), and (3) when one controls for the mediating variable, full mediation is indicative if the influence of the exogenous variable on the endogenous variable (path *c*) becomes non-significant; if it still remains significant, partial mediation is indicative.

Mediation has been conventionally tested by analyzing a sequence of independent regression models (Judd & Kenny, 1981). However, researchers have discussed some limitations of using this approach (e.g., Baron & Kenny, 1986; Brown, 1997). That is, the use of separate regression models requires the assumption that there is no measurement error in the potential mediating variable but this assumption is rarely met. It is also assumed that the endogenous variable cannot cause the mediation, which is not always the case. Finally, once the complexity of the hypothesized mediation increases, the series of model fitting also increases making the analysis labor-intensive. As an alternative, we used the structural equation modeling (SEM) approach (Brown, 1997; Little et al., 2007; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) which tests mediation by decomposing a total effect on an endogenous variable

into direct effects and indirect effects. In Figure 1, the paths a , b , and c correspond to the direct effects. The indirect effect ab (product of a and b) represents the impact of an exogenous variable on the endogenous variable, mediated by a potential mediating variable. Because there is no known distribution for this product term, 95% bias-corrected (BC) confidence intervals (CI) of the indirect effect were derived from an empirical distribution of 5,000 bootstrap resamples (Efron, 1987). The 95% BC CI that do not include zero supported the hypothesized mediation among manager emotional intelligence, cohesiveness, and employee sales performance (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). We also tested a predictive relationship between employee sales performance and store sales performance (see Figure 1). The covariates (i.e., store size, company and store tenures of the within-store employees, and manager's age), albeit not shown in this figure for the sake of simplicity, were allowed to predict the cohesiveness and employee sales performance as well as the store sales performance. These covariates were also allowed to correlate with each other. All the parameters including a , b , c , ab , and d were simultaneously estimated in a path model, a special case of SEM. For estimation, we used the full information maximum likelihood (FIML) method and the bootstrap techniques implemented in *Mplus* 6.12 (L. K. Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2011). The two-index test of model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) was employed using an absolute fit index, Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR) and an incremental fit index, Comparative Fit Index (CFI). These indices are robust with respect to departures from multivariate normality and are insensitive to sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended the $SRMR < .08$ and $CFI > .95$ as criteria for selecting a suitable model. In addition, the chi-square test for overall model fit was conducted. However, given its sensitivity to sample size we paid less attention to this test statistic (Bentler, 1990).

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, and correlations of all the variables in the study appear in Table 1. Consistent with our hypotheses, emotional intelligence was positively related to cohesiveness ($r = .35, p < .01$), which was also positively related to employee sales performance ($r = .23, p < .01$). In addition, employee sales performance was positively associated with store sales performance ($r = .26, p < .01$). These results provide preliminary evidence in support of Hypotheses 1, 2, and 4.

[Insert Table 1 about here]

Testing the Hypotheses

Table 2 presents the standardized parameter estimates for the hypothesized model. It includes the bootstrap point estimate and 95% BC CI for the indirect effect. Emotional intelligence significantly predicted cohesiveness ($\beta = .36, p < .01$), fulfilling the first mediation condition. Cohesiveness significantly predicted employee sales performance ($\beta = .20, p < .01$), meeting the second condition. These results supported Hypotheses 1 and 2. Hypothesis 3, which states that cohesiveness partially mediates the relationship between manager emotional intelligence and employee sales performance, received moderate support. The significant effect of emotional intelligence on employee sales performance ($\beta = .15, p < .05$) was not significant when controlling for cohesiveness, $\beta = .08, p = .29$ (the third condition). These results showed (as described in the previous section) that cohesiveness fully mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee sales performance, rather than partially. This mediation was verified by the significant indirect effect, $\beta = .07$ [.02; .13]. Moreover, post-hoc analyses conducted separately for the four emotional intelligence subscales also showed full mediation relationships between emotional intelligence and employee sales performance; the indirect effect was comparable, but was highest with SEA ($\beta = .10$ [.04; .21]) followed by OEA ($\beta = .09$ [.04; .19]), ROE ($\beta = .07$

[.03; .15]), and UOE ($\beta = .06$ [.02; .12])². Overall, these results suggest that the stores with managers with higher levels of emotional intelligence have a higher degree of store cohesiveness which, in turn, is significantly associated with higher levels of store employee sales performance. In addition, store-level collective employee sales performance significantly predicted actual store sales performance, $\beta = .26$, $p < .01$. Thus, higher levels of employee sales performance yielded higher levels of sales returns. This result supported Hypothesis 4 of the study.

[Insert Table 2 about here]

Model Comparisons and Model Fit

In order to identify the degree to which there is full or partial mediation among the variables of interest (i.e., emotional intelligence, cohesiveness, and employee sales performance), the hypothesized model shown in Figure 1 (model 1) was compared with an alternative model shown in Figure 2 (model 2) where the direct effect of emotional intelligence on employee sales performance (path *c*) was removed from model 1. Thus, we were comparing two nested models, a partially mediating model (model 1) and a fully mediating model (model 2). These models were not significantly different, in terms of model fit ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.30$, $p = .25$) as well as magnitude and significance of the model estimates, suggesting that removing this partial mediation path did not significantly weakened the model. Therefore, we concluded that the full mediating model was more parsimonious and well-fitting and it was therefore the final model. The chi-square statistic was .17 with 2 degrees of freedom, $p = .92$. The SRMR was .00 and the CFI approached 1.00. Thus, following Hu and Bentler's (1999) joint criteria for model fit, the fit of the final model (model 2) was acceptable.

[Insert Figure 2 about here]

² This may show that the effects are hardly just due to the goal-setting part of UOE.

Discussion

This study has shown that the emotional intelligence of store managers (as perceived by their store employees) is significantly associated with store cohesiveness. This cohesiveness, in turn, is found to be significantly associated with store-level employee sales performance which affects store sales performance (as measured by the attainment of objective sales targets); we established that, on average, if a store manager's emotional intelligence is increased by 1 SD, there is a .15 SD increase in perceived employee sales performance (.08 directly +.07 indirectly via cohesiveness: see, Brown, 1997) as well as a .04 SD increase in the stores' sales (.15 x .26). These results add to our knowledge of how a leader's emotional intelligence relates to unit-level performance; employees who work in environments with emotionally intelligent managers are perceived to perform their tasks at much higher levels while unit cohesiveness is shown to mediate this unambiguous manager's emotional intelligence – unit employee sales performance link. The support for our four hypotheses represents a substantive advance in the literature of emotional intelligence; managerial emotional intelligence seems to have its impact on perceived employee sales performance, through the cohesiveness of the unit. The results of this study suggests a valuable unit-performance effect of not only a leader's accurate understanding of the emotions of him- or herself as well of his or her employees (see, also, Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009), but also of the handling of oneself and these employees in ways that blends the needs of both the organization (high sales performance) and the group and its members; as hypothesized, the leaders' degree of emotional intelligence is linked linearly to the amount of productive work effort within the organization's sales teams.

Earlier research on unit performance has shown that unit managers in particular are able to affect the performance of their units by treating their employees with respect, affection, and by engendering positive feelings of self-worth (e.g., Edmondson, 1999; Koene et al., 2002). Likewise, other research has shown that the context of the emotions that

managers express towards employees is conducive to team or unit performance (George, 1995; Sy et al., 2006; Van Kleef et al., 2009). The results of this study are in line with these findings and have substantial implications for advancing research on emotions in leadership contexts. In terms of the social-functional approach to emotion (see, Keltner & Haidt, 1999), it has been suggested that managerial emotional expressions need to be tuned to the situation at hand for leadership effectiveness to occur (Van Kleef et al., 2009). Therefore, on theoretical and practical grounds, emotional intelligence seems an important component of leader effectiveness and an enhancer of unit performance (Troth, Jordan, Lawrence, & Tse, 2012).

Literature on sales contexts in particular has shown before that human factors trigger much employee performance variation (e.g., Gelade & Young, 2005). In our study, employees performed better due to a highly cohesive work environment induced and/or maintained by a manager who enables both feelings of being positively involved in the unit and a sense of wanting to care about the collective goals. Some authors take into account the differences of major indicators of store sales performance such as the location of a store, intensity of competition, and demographic distribution of the population (e.g., Silvestro & Cross, 2000). We have shown that sales employees who have favorable attitudes towards their unit are inclined to perform better, thereby increasing unit performance. In other words an effective sales-unit context, seem to demand a high level of regulating both intra-unit feelings and expressions of unit goals; this study has shown that in such a context a leader's emotional intelligence has added value (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Boyatzis, Good, & Massa, 2012).

Strengths, Weaknesses and Further Research Directions

This study examined links between a store manager's emotional intelligence on store cohesiveness and performance in a large South Korean retail firm. The methodological strengths increase the confidence in its results; we acquired data from three distinct sources (i.e., employees, store managers, company records). The stores' objective performance data

were taken one month after we had held the survey. Moreover, due to applying the split-sample technique, the significant results in this study are unlikely to be affected by same-source or common-method bias while the relatively large (nearly 100%), representative sample – at the store-level ($N = 253$) – mitigates self-selection bias concerns in the results.

Prior studies in the field of emotional intelligence have mostly focused on intra- and inter-personal effects, whereas we have shown that a manager's emotional intelligence may be linked to an entire group, and more specifically, is associated with a high degree of cohesiveness within a unit. In previous survey studies, the positive link between employees' behaviors and unit or organizational performance has relied largely upon perceptual measures of performance (e.g., Bommer, Dierdorff, & Rubin, 2007; Marrone, Tesluk, & Carson, 2007). As hypothesized, we have found in this study that employee sales performance (as perceived by the store managers) is significantly correlated with actual store sales performance. The used sales performance data in this study has operational validity since it was the actual percentage of set targets achieved for the month of each store: the same measure as used by this firm internally. Although there are concerns about managers' perceptual performance assessments (because of a possible overrating effect relative to other stores' performance (Weber, 2001) and a contamination by managers' knowledge of actual store sales), the store managers in the present study were knowledgeable about the daily performance of their store employees, as they closely supervised, on average, fewer than 10 employees. Hence, in this context, store managers assessed employee sales performance realistically, although it could be the case that a manager's knowledge of the store's past performance (which is likely to correlate with current performance), would have influenced the ratings on their employee sales performance.

One other important limitation of the present study comes from the use of a survey at one point in time; we cannot show any causality in the established relationships among the perceptual variables. More time-lagged studies, enabling the examination of the dynamics

among these and related variables, are recommended. Furthermore, caution should be taken when generalizing from the results of this study, since the data came from a sales context within one single retail company. Specifically, taking into consideration the respondents' biographical data, generalizing the findings from this sector to others, e.g. to sectors that use more highly educated labour, may not be necessarily appropriate. Elfenbein, Foo, White, and Tan's meta-analysis (2007) did find, however, a significant rise in professionals' work effectiveness: as a result of accurate emotion recognition. Thus, further field studies in different (service) sectors may lend support for a generic positive group- or team-performance effect of highly emotionally intelligent managers.

Assessing store managers' emotional intelligence on the basis of non-managerial employee perception (as done in this study) draws attention to the quality of store manager and employee relationships. Hence, as part of an effort to illuminate how positive relationships between a manager and employees shape employees' perceptions of unit cohesiveness, it is recommended to employ an assessment of leader-member relationships when replicating this study. For example, Cogliser and Schriesheim (2000) have found that there is a significant relationship between LMX and group cohesiveness, but the directionality of this relationship is not known. Intelligent leadership in these settings cannot take place without intelligent followership. Hence, we need to start a more systematical exploration of the potential added value of employing emotionally intelligent employees, in part due to manager-determined selection processes and role-modeling effects. Selecting highly emotionally intelligent non-managerial employees by highly emotionally intelligent managers may add job satisfaction and performance (see, e.g., Jordan & Troth, 2012; Kidwell, Hardesty, Murtha, & Sheng, 2011; Kim, 2010). It would be worthwhile to test empirically this probable indirect performance effect of a manager's emotional intelligence: see, e.g., Chang, Sy and Choi (2012) for a study showing a compensatory-performance effect between high

average group member emotional intelligence and their leader's high level of emotional intelligence.

In the specific organizational context of this study, the employees were working on a salary basis. In addition, a store-level monetary incentive was given to them if the store met its monthly sales goal (on the basis of the percentage of set targets achieved for the month). This potential store-level incentive might be one of the contributing factors to store cohesiveness. It is known that performance appraisals based on cooperative goals may facilitate cooperation and good relationships among co-workers within a unit (Collins & Smith, 2006; Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang, & Takeuchi, 2007). Thus, various reward variables (e.g., group and/or individual) would need to be taken into consideration in similar future emotional intelligence research.

This study offers a new set of robust emotional-intelligence findings at the rarely examined unit level in a commercial-sales context in a non-western country. The data in the present study were collected in South Korea and the findings are consistent with emotional intelligence and cohesion theories developed and tested primarily in Western-world settings. East Asian cultures, including South Korea, place an importance on the values of attending to others, fitting in, and harmonious interdependence with them (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Renjun & Zigang, 2005). In particular, Koreans tend to see their relationships on the basis of 'weness' which is seen as an extension of within-family relationships to social settings (Choi & Kim, 2006). Accordingly, Koreans often show strong connectedness with members within the boundary of 'weness' (i.e., family, school, work unit). As a result, employees in our sample may take their store cohesiveness more seriously which in turn may help to explain a part of the significant link between store cohesiveness and performance. Creative replications from a cross-cultural perspective would therefore also be fascinating.

Practical Implications

Obtaining great employee performance in sales settings has often been viewed as a function of compensation and monitoring practices (e.g., Krafft, 1999). The results of this study add specificity to the monitoring skills of managers that would need to be in place; a high level of emotional intelligence on the part of a monitoring or supervisory manager in particular may enhance perceived and objective performance levels in sales settings; we uncovered that high employees' work effort and performance might be reached due to intangible, group cohesive work experiences that are fueled by an emotionally intelligent manager. Managers who displayed an emotionally intelligent supervisory skill set tend to be engaged in healthy day-to-day emotion regulation of themselves and their followers at work. This leader behavior fuels followers' sense of group cohesion (i.e., sharing a liking for both the group's task and its members) which in turn seems to spur them to perform better. This linear link between the emotional intelligence of store managers and employee sales performance through work-group cohesion, and the downstream effect of employee sales performance on market-based performance, is of practical importance for work-floor management as well as for HR practitioners. On the basis of this study's findings, highly emotionally intelligent supervisors would need to be recruited, promoted and/or trained. In other words, sales unit organizations are advised to appoint store managers who score high on emotional intelligence. It is likely that these store managers show care for the cohesion of the unit, because the results of this study implicate that this is an important factor when trying to influence employee sales performance. Given that cognitively intelligent managers tend to vary widely in terms of emotional intelligence, managerial training programs are likely to benefit from a focus on managerial emotional intelligence and group cohesiveness, also given that the frequently occurring, related condition of groupthink (see, e.g., Straus et al., 2011) is something that needs to be avoided. This study suggests that paying more heed to managerial emotional intelligence skills (vis-à-vis themselves, their followers and all the others they may be in contact with, including clients) is potentially enriching for a group of sales personnel,

spurring them to perform at their best. In a way this study's insights complements the recent results obtained by Sliter, Sliter, and Jex (2012, p.132) in that one may suggest that civil day-to-day behavior on the part of an emotionally intelligent manager represents "minor incidences of social" treatment with "major effects on employees' work experiences and outcomes" including objective sales performance. In other words, the results of our study point to the potentially performance-enhancing effect of taking the idea seriously that the act of managing (sales personnel) is one that involves regulating feelings and expressions (Joseph & Newman, 2010). As a consequence, effective management fosters "healthy emotion regulation at work" and this includes the creation of "opportunities to experience authentic positive emotions during work" (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011, p. 383; see, also Grandey, Foo, Groth, & Goodwin, 2012). Translating these insights into managerial habit is not a small feat but potentially rewarding for both the people and organized (sales) units involved (see, e.g., Jasmand, Blazevic, & de Ruyter, 2012). A healthy level of cohesiveness is not a state that is easy to reach or a given state or fact once it is attained; it requires continuous balancing behavior on the part of both the leader and followers involved: they are continuously confronted with (seemingly) different surface behaviors (of peers, clients, family and the like). The result of this employee behavior can be seen in the monthly sales figures as well as in the overall unit-performance impressions on the part of the managers; thus managers in retail sales contexts must act well on the basis of the many informal impressions they receive about how their units evolves and how this followers and they themselves feel about being part of this unit.

Finally, the results obtained by this study complements a recent finding on sales professionals with high emotional intelligence; they appeared to be not only "superior revenue generators but were also better at retaining customers" (Kidwell et al., 2011, p. 78). More collaboration between Service Marketing and Organizational Behavior type-of-researchers on assessing the effects of emotionally intelligent management, service

professionals and their clients is called for; it would yield, no doubt, new practical insights on the role of emotional intelligence in elevating the performance of all actors in and directly around a core service firm (see, Suddaby, Greenwood & Wilderom, 2008).

Conclusion

This study contributes to the larger quest for roots of unit performance variance and adds empirical evidence on the influence of managers' emotional intelligence on the cohesion of retail stores and employee and store performance. The finding that cohesiveness mediated the link between emotional intelligence and employee performance is a step forward in further uncovering the processes through which managerial behavior is likely to affect bottom-line performance; managers who are highly emotionally intelligent seem to have the needed skill repertoire to enhance performance on the store or unit level, through the cooperation performance of individuals, we have found support for the idea that work-units that are also cohesive -thanks to the emotional intelligence of their managers- reap favorable outcomes.

Based on our research and previous work-and-emotion research results, we can summarize our practical advice to companies on how to enrich their managerial selection and training practices as follows: The higher the managerial competence in the social-emotional sphere (especially in group-cohesion), the higher the expected bottom-line results.

References

- Al-Omari, M. A. M., & Hung, D. K. M. (2012). Transformational leadership and organizational innovation: the moderating effect of emotional intelligence. *International Business Management*, 6(3), 308-316.
- Ashkanasy, N. M., & Daus, C. S. (2002). Emotion in the workplace: The new challenge for managers. *Academy of Management Executives*, 16, 76-86.
- Ashkanasy, N. M., & Tse, B. (2000). Transformational leadership as management of emotion: A conceptual review. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C. E. J. Härtel, & W. J. Zerbe (Eds.), *Emotions in the workplace: Research, theory, and practice* (pp. 221-235). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., Neubert, M. J., & Mount, M. K. (1998). Relating member ability and personality to work-team processes and team effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(3), 377-391.
- Beal, D. J., Cohen, R. R., Burke, M. J., & McLendon, C. L. (2003). Cohesion and performance in groups: A meta-analytic clarification of construct relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(6), 989-1004.
- Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107, 238-246.
- Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independent and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 349-381). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bommer, W. H., Dierdorff, E. C., & Rubin, R. S. (2007). Does prevalence mitigate relevance? The moderating effect of group-level OCB on employee performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50, 1481-1494.

- Borucki, C. C., & Burke, M. J. (1999). An examination of service-related antecedents to retail store performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 943-962.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Good, D., & Massa, R. (2012). Emotional, social, and cognitive intelligence and personality as predictors of sales leadership performance. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 19(2), 191-201.
- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., Shiffman, S., Lerner, N., & Salovey, P. (2006). Relating emotional abilities to social functioning: A comparison of self-report and performance measures of emotional intelligence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 91(4), 780-795.
- Brown, R. L. (1997). Assessing specific meditational effects in complex theoretical models. *Structural Equation Modelling*, 4, 142-156.
- Brunetto, Y., Teo, S. T. T., Shacklock, K., & Farr-Wharton, R. (2012). Emotional Intelligence, job satisfaction, well-being and engagement: explaining organizational commitment and turnover intentions policing. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 22 (4), 428-441.
- Carron, A. V., & Brawley, L. R. (2000). Cohesion: Conceptual and measurement issues. *Small Group Research*, 31(1), 89-106.
- Caruso, D. R., Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (2003). Emotional intelligence and emotional leadership. In R. E. Riggio & S. E. Murphy (Eds.), *Multiple intelligence and leadership* (pp. 55-73). Mahway, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Chan, D. (1998). Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 234-246.
- Chang, A., & Bordia, P. (2001). A multidimensional approach to the group cohesion-group performance relationship. *Small Group Research*, 32, 379-405.

- Chang, J. W., Sy, T., & Choi, J. N. (2012). Team emotional intelligence and performance: interactive dynamics between leaders and members. *Small Group Dynamics*, 43, 1, 75-104.
- Choi, S. C., & Kim, K. B. (2006). Naïve psychology of Koreans' interpersonal mind and behavior in close relationships. In U. C. Kim, K. S. Yang, & K. K. Hwang (Eds.), *Indigenous and cultural psychology: Understanding people in context* (pp. 358-369). New York, NY: Springer.
- Cogliser, C. C., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2000). Exploring work unit context and leader-member exchange: A multi-level perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 487-511.
- Collins, C. J., & Smith, K. G. (2006). Knowledge exchange and combination: The role of human resource practices in the performance of high-technology firms. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 544-560.
- Dasborough, M. T., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2002). Emotion and attribution of intentionality in leader-member relationships. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 615-634.
- Davies, M., Stankov, L., & Roberts, R. D. (1998). Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 989-1015.
- Dick, R. von, Stellmacher, J., Wagner, U., Lemmer, G., & Tissington, P.A. (2009). Group membership salience and task performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24, 609-626.
- Dubinsky, A. J., Yammarino, F. J., Jolson, M. A., & Spangler, W. D. (1995). Transformational leadership: An initial investigation in sales management. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 15, 17-31.
- Edmondson, A. C. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44, 350-383.
- Efron, B. (1987). Better bootstrap confidence intervals. *Journal of the American*

Statistical Association, 82, 171–185.

Elfenbein, H. A., Foo, M. D., White, J., & Tan, H. H. (2007). Reading your counterpart: The benefit of emotion recognition accuracy for effectiveness in negotiation. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior*, 31, 205-223.

Erez, M., & Somech, A. (1996). Is group productivity loss the rule or the exception? Effects of culture and group-based motivation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 1513-1537.

Evans, W. R., & Davis, W. D. (2005). High-performance work systems and organizational performance: The mediating role of internal social structure. *Journal of Management*, 31, 758-775.

Gelade, G. A., & Young, S. (2005). Test of a service profit chain model in the retail banking sector. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78, 1-22.

George, J. M. (1995). Leader positive mood and group performance: The case of customer service. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 25, 778-794.

George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations*, 53, 1027-1055.

George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 698-709.

Gibson, C. B., Porath, C. L., Benson, G. S., & Lawler, E. E. (2007). What results when firms implement practices: The differential relationship between specific practices, firm financial performance, customer service, and quality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 1467-1480.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2001). Primal leadership: The hidden driver of great performance. *Harvard Business Review*, December, 32-41.

Grandey, A. (2000). Emotion regulation in the workplace: A new way to

- conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 95-110.
- Grandey, A., Foo, S. C., Groth, M., & Goodwin, R. E. (2012). Free to be you and me: A climate of authenticity alleviates burnout from emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 17 (1), 1-14.
- Guler, I., & Nerkar, A. (2011). The impact of global and local cohesion on innovation in the pharmaceutical industry. *Strategic Management Journal*, 33(5), 535-549.
- Han, H., & Johnson, S. D. (2012). Relationship between students' emotional intelligence, social bond, and interactions in online learning. *Educational Technology & Society*, 15 (1), 78-89.
- Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2), 268-279.
- Heskett, J., Jones, T. O., Loveman, G. W., Sasser, W. E., & Schlesinger, L. A. (1994). Putting the service-profit chain to work. *Harvard Business Review*, March-April, 164-170.
- Hodson, R. (1997). Group relations at work: Solidarity, conflict, and relations with management, *Work and Occupation*, 24, 426-445.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cut-off criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modelling*, 6, 1-55.
- Hulsheger, U. R., & Schewe, A. F. (2011). On the costs and benefits of emotional labor: A meta-analysis of three decades of research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 16, 361-389.
- Humphrey, R. H. (2002). The many faces of emotional leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*,

13, 493-504.

Hur, Y. H., van den Berg, P., & Wilderom, C. P. M. (2011). Transformational leadership as a mediator between emotional intelligence and team outcomes. *Leadership Quarterly*, 591-603.

Quarterly, 591-603.

Huy, Q. N. (2002). Emotional balancing of organizational continuity and radical change: The contribution of middle managers. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47, 31-69.

Huy, Q. N. (2011). How middle managers' group-focus emotions and social identities influence strategy implementation. *Strategic Management Journal*, 32, 1387-1410.

James, L. R. (1982). Aggregation bias in estimates of perceptual agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 65, 219-229.

James, L. R., Demaree, R. J., & Wolf, G. (1984). Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 85-98.

Jasmand, C., Blazevic, V., & de Ruyter, K. (2012). Generating sales while providing service: A study of customer service representatives' ambidextrous behavior. *Journal of Marketing*, 76, 20-37.

Jordan, M. H., Field, H. S., & Armenakis, A. A. (2002). The relationship of group process variables and team performance: A team-level analysis in a field setting. *Small Group Research*, 33, 121-150.

Jordan, P. J., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Hartel, C. E. J. (2002). Emotional intelligence as a moderator of emotional and behavioral reactions to job insecurity. *Academy of Management Review*, 27, 361-372.

Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. (2011). Emotional intelligence and leader member exchange: The relationship with employee turnover intentions and job satisfaction. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 32(3), 260-280.

- Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 54-78.
- Jordan, P. J., & Throth, A. (2011). Emotional intelligence and leader member exchange: The relationship with employee turnover intentions and job satisfaction. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 32*(3), 260-280.
- Judd, C. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1981). Process analysis: Estimating mediation in evaluation research. *Evaluation Research, 5*, 602-619.
- Karau, S. J., & Williams, K. D. (1997). The effects of group cohesiveness on social loafing and social compensation. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 1*, 156-168.
- Keltner, D., & Haidt, J. (1999). Social functions of emotions at four levels of analysis. *Cognition and Emotion, 13*, 505-521.
- Kidwell, B., Hardesty, D. M., Murtha, B. R., & Sheng, S. (2011). Emotional intelligence in marketing exchanges. *Journal of Marketing, 75*, 78-95.
- Kidwell, R. E., & Valentine, S. R. (2009). Positive group context, work attitudes, and organizational misbehavior: The case of withholding job effort. *Journal of Business Ethics, 86*, 15-28.
- Kim, S. H. (2010). The effect of emotional intelligence on salesperson's behavior and customers' perceived service quality. *African Journal of Business, 4*, 2343-2353.
- Klein, K. J., Conn, A. B., Smith, D. B., & Sorra, J. S. (2001). Is everyone in agreement? An exploration of within-group agreement in employee perceptions of the work environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 3-16.
- Koene, A. S., Vogelaar, L.W., & Soeters, J. L. (2002). Leadership effects on organizational climate and financial performance: Local leadership effect in chain organizations. *Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 193-215.

- Koman, E.S., & Wolff, S.B. (2008). Emotional intelligence competencies in the team and team leader: A multi-level examination of the impact of emotional intelligence on team performance. *The Journal of Management Development*, 27(1), 55-75.
- Krafft, M. (1999). An empirical investigation of the antecedents of sales force control systems. *Journal of Marketing*, 63, 120-134.
- Langhorn, S. (2004). How emotional intelligence can improve management performance. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16, 220-230.
- Law, K. S., Wong, C., & Song, L. J. (2004). The construct and criterion validity of emotional intelligence and its potential utility for management studies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 483-496.
- Leban, W., & Zulauf, C. (2004). Linking emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership styles. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25, 554-564.
- Le Blanc, P. M., & González-Romá, V. (2012). A team level investigation of the relationship between Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) differentiation, and commitment and performance. *Leadership Quarterly*, 23 (3), 534-544.
- Liao, H., & Chuang, A. (2007). Transforming service employees and climate: A multilevel, multisource examination of transformational leadership in building long-term service relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 1006-1019.
- Lopes, P. N., Brackett, M. A., Nezlek, J. B., Schutz, A., Sellin, I., & Salovey, P. (2004). Emotional intelligence and social interaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 30, 1018-1034.
- Mach, M., Dolan, S., & Tzafrir, S. (2010). The differential effect of team members' trust on team performance: The mediation role of team cohesion. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83, 771-794.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., & Williams, J. (2004). Confidence limits for the

- indirect effect: Distribution of the product and resampling methods. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 39, 99–128.
- Mandell, B., & Pherwani, S. (2003). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style: A gender comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17, 387-404.
- Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98, 224-253.
- Marrone, J. A., Tesluk, P. E., & Carson, J. B. (2007). A multilevel investigation of antecedents and consequences of team member boundary-spanning behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50, 1423-1439.
- Martin, C. A., & Bush, A. J. (2006). Psychological climate, empowerment, leadership styles, and customer oriented selling: An analysis of the sales manager-salesperson dyad. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34, 419-438.
- Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, S. G. (2008). Human abilities: Emotional intelligence. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 59, 507-536.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 60, 197-215.
- Mullen, B., & Copper, C. (1994). The relation between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 210-227.
- Mulvey, P. W., Bowes-Sperry, L., & Klein, H. J. (1998). The effects of perceived loafing and defensive impression management on group effectiveness. *Small Group Research*, 29, 394-415.
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (1998-2007). *Mplus user's guide* (4th ed.). Los Angeles,

CA: Muthen & Muthen.

- Nibler, R., & Harris, K. L. (2003). The effects of culture cohesiveness on intragroup conflict effectiveness. *Journal of Social Psychology, 143*, 613-631.
- Ostroff, C., Kinicki, A., & Clark, M. (2002). Substantive and operational issues of response bias and method variance across levels of analysis: An example of climate and satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 355-368.
- Ostroff, C., & Schmitt, N. (1993). Configurations of organizational effectiveness and efficiency. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*, 1345-1361.
- Patterson, M., Warr, P., & West, M. (2004). Organizational climate and company productivity: The role of employee affect and employee level. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77*, 193-216.
- Prati, L. M., Douglas, C., Ferris, G. R., Ammeter, A. P., & Buckley, M. R. (2003). Emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, and team outcomes. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 11*, 21-40.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 42*, 185-227.
- Rajah, R., Song, Z., & Arvey, R. D. (2011). Emotionality and leadership: Taking stock of the past decade of research. *Leadership Quarterly, 22*, 1107-1119.
- Renjun, Q., & Zigang, Z. (2005). Work group emotions in Chinese culture settings. *Singapore Management Review, 27*(1), 69-86.
- Rotundo, M., & Sackett, P. R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy-capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 66-80.
- Rozell, E. J., & Gundersen, D. E. (2003). The effects of leader impression management on group perceptions of cohesion, consensus, and communication. *Small Group*

Research, 34, 197-222.

Rozell, E. J., Pettijohn, C. E., & Parker, R. S. (2006). Emotional intelligence and dispositional affectivity as predictors of performance in salespeople. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 14(2), 113-124.

Ryan, A. M., Schmit, M. J., & Johnson, R. (1996). Attitudes and effectiveness: Examining relations at an organizational level. *Personnel Psychology*, 49, 853-882.

Sala, F. (2002). *Emotional competence inventory: Technical manual*. Philadelphia, PA: McClelland Center for Research, HayGroup.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9, 185-211.

Sanchez-Burks, J., & Huy, Q. N. (2009). Emotional aperture and strategic change: The accurate recognition of collective emotions. *Organization Science*, 20, 1, 22-34.

Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M. G., Mayer D. M., Saltz, J. L., & Niles-Jolly, K. (2005). Understanding organization-customer links in service settings. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 1017-1032.

Shields, D. L. L., & Gardner, D. E. (1997). The relationship between leadership behaviors and group cohesion in team sports. *Journal of Psychology*, 131(2), 196-210.

Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7, 422-445.

Silvestro, R., & Cross, S. (2000). Applying the service profit chain in a retail environment: Challenging the "satisfaction mirror." *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 11(3), 244-268.

Sliter, M., Sliter, K., & Jex, S. (2012). The employee as a punching bag: The effect of

- Multiple sources of incivility on employee withdrawal behavior and sales performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33, 121-139.
- Solansky, S. T. (2011). Team identification: A determining factor of performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 26(3), 247-258.
- Straus, S. G., Parker, A. M., & Bruce, J. B. (2011). The group matters: A review of processes and outcomes in intelligence analysis. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 15, 2, 128-146.
- Suddaby, R., Greenwood, R. & Wilderom, C. (2008). Introduction to the Journal of Organizational Behavior's special issue on professional service firm's: Where organization theory and organizational behavior might meet. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 989-994.
- Sy, T., Tram, S., & O'Hara, L. (2006). Relation to employee and manager emotional intelligence to job satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 461-473.
- Takeuchi, R., Lepak, D. P., Wang, H., & Takeuchi, K. (2007). An empirical examination of the mechanisms mediating between high-performance work systems and the performance of Japanese organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 1069-1083.
- Troth, A. C., Jordan, P. J., Lawrence, S.A., & Tse H. H. M. (2011). A multilevel model of emotional skills, communication performance, and task performance in teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(5), 700-722.
- Van Kleef, G. A., Homan, A. C., Beersma, B., Van Knippenberg, D., Van Knippenberg, B., & Damen, F. (2009). Searing sentiment or cold calculation? The effects of leader emotional displays on team performance depend on follower epistemic motivation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(3), 562-580.
- Walter, F., Cole, M.S., & Humphrey, R.H. (2011). Emotional intelligence: Sine qua none of

- leadership or folderol? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 25, 1, 45-59.
- Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Wang, D., & Chen, Z. X. (2005). Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 420-432.
- Wang, E. T. G., Ying, T. C., Jiang, J. J., & Klein, G. (2006). Group cohesion in organizational innovation: An empirical examination of ERP implementation. *Information and Software Technology*, 48, 235-244.
- Weber, J. A. (2001). Illusions of marketing planners. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18, 527-563.
- Wendt, H., Euwema, M. C., & van Emmerik, I. J. H. (2009). Leadership and team cohesiveness across cultures. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 358-370.
- Wilson, P. A., Hansen, N. B., Tarakeshwar, N., Neufeld, S., Kochman, A., & Sikkema, K. J. (2008). Scale development of a measure to assess community-based and clinical intervention group environments. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 36, 271-288.
- Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 243-274.
- Wong, C. S., Law, K. S., & Wong, P. M. (2004). Development and validation of a forced choice emotional intelligence measure for Chinese respondents in Hong Kong. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 21, 535-559.
- Worchel, S., Rothgerber, H., Day, E. A., Hart, D., & Butemeyer, J. (1998). Social identity and individual productivity within groups. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 37, 389-413.
- Wu, C., Neubert, M. J., & Yi, X. (2007). Transformational leadership, cohesion perceptions, and employee cynicism about organizational change: The mediating role of justice

perceptions. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43, 327-351.

Yammarino, F. J., & Dubinsky, A. J. (1990). Salesperson performance and managerially controllable factors: An investigation of individual and work group effects. *Journal of Management*, 16, 87-106.

Zeithaml, V. A. (2000). Service quality, profitability, and the economic worth of customers: What we know and what we need to learn. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28, 67-85.

Zhou, J., & George, M. (2003). Awakening employee creativity: The role of leader emotional intelligence. *Leadership Quarterly*, 14, 545-568.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations at the store-level (N = 253)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Emotional intelligence	113.67	12.91	(.97)							
2. Cohesiveness	44.73	5.52	.35**	(.95)						
3. Employee sales performance	38.30	3.89	.15*	.23**	(.88)					
4. Store sales performance	.91	.10	.07	.07	.26**	1.00				
5. Store size	6.75	1.86	.04	.09	.05	.00	1.00			
6. Company tenure	3.06	.55	.03	-.08	.03	.06	-.20**	1.00		
7. Store tenure	1.88	.49	.09	-.02	-.02	.01	-.15*	.29**	1.00	
8. Manager's age	42.48	4.62	.01	-.13*	-.06	-.09	.12	-.04	.04	1.00

Note. Internal consistency reliabilities are in parentheses along the diagonal. The correlations of emotional intelligence and cohesiveness were derived from the sample that was corrected for the percept-percept bias, while others were derived from the original sample. Company tenure = length of time in years employees have worked for the organization; Store tenure = length of time in years employees have worked in the current store.

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

Table 2. Standardized parameter estimates for the hypothesized model

Variable	Direct effect on			Indirect effect on
	Cohesiveness	Employee sales performance	Store sales performance	Employee sales performance via
Emotional intelligence	.36**	.08		
Cohesiveness		.20**		.07 [.02; .13]
Employee sales performance			.26**	
Store sales performance				
Store size	.08	.04	.01	
Company tenure	-.07	.06	.05	
Store tenure	-.01	-.03	.01	
Manager's age	-.15*	-.03	-.07	

Note. The numbers in the parentheses are bootstrap 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals. Only the direct and indirect effects on employee sales performance sum up to give the total effect on employee sales performance in the SEM approach for mediation.

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

Table 3. Post-hoc analysis: hypothesized mediation relationship with emotional intelligence dimensions

Variable	Cohesiveness	Direct effect on		Indirect effect on
		Employee sales performance	Store sales performance	Employee sales performance via
SEA	.36**	.09		
Cohesiveness		.20**		.10 [.04; .21]
Employee sales performance			.26**	
OEA	.34**	.08		
Cohesiveness		.20**		.09 [.04; .19]
Employee sales performance			.26**	
UOE	.35**	.06		
Cohesiveness		.20**		.06 [.02; .12]
Employee sales performance			.26**	
ROE	.29**	.06		
Cohesiveness		.21**		.07 [.03; .15]
Employee sales performance			.26**	

Note. SEA = Self-Emotion Appraisal; OEA = Others' Emotion Appraisal; UOE = Use of Emotion; ROE = Regulation of Emotion.
 * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Figure 1. Path diagram and parameters of the hypothesized and tested model

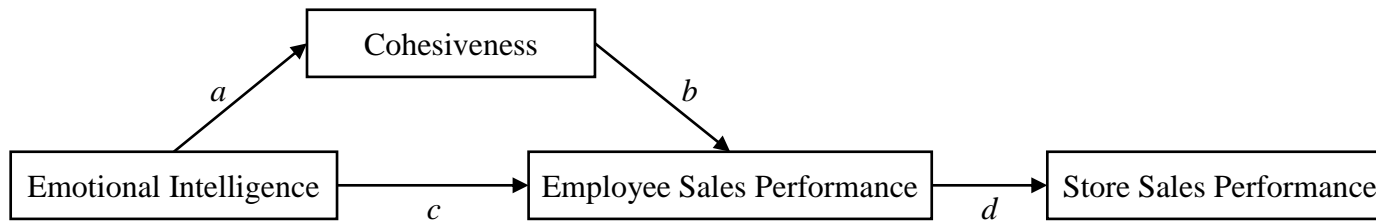


Figure 2. Path diagram and parameters of the final model

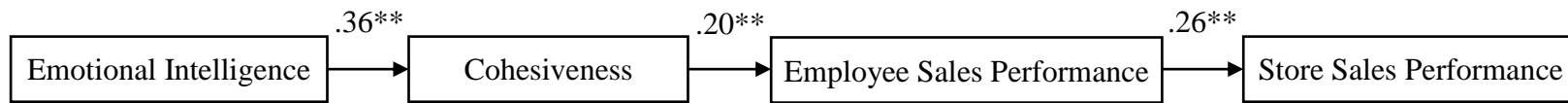


Figure Captions

Figure 1. Path diagram and parameters of the hypothesized and tested model

Figure 2. Path diagram and parameters of the final model

$$\chi^2 = .17, df = 2, p = .92$$

$$CFI = 1.00$$

$$SRMR = .00$$

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

Appendix A

Decision Letter (JOB-10-0503.R1)

From: tjosvold@ln.edu.hk

To: JOBedoffice@wiley.com

CC:

BCC: sylviaayhhur@gmail.com, Cynthia_Fisher@Bond.edu.au, yliu2@ilstu.edu

Subject: JOB-10-0503.R1 - decision

Body: Dear Author,

Manuscript ID JOB-10-0503.R1 entitled "Emotional Intelligence of Store Managers, Store Cohesiveness and Performance within a Large Retail Firm" which you submitted to Journal of Organizational Behavior, has been re-reviewed.

Two researchers have now read and commented on your revision. They continue to believe that your paper is potentially quite interesting for JOB readers and appreciate a number of your revisions. However, both reviewers have a number of issues and concerns as well as numerous suggestions about your paper. Indeed, they have specified changes that they believe are quite important for the paper. I have also read the paper and agree with their recommendations.

I will not accept this version of your paper but I am offering you the option to revise your paper in light on the comments by the reviewers. I hope you accept this offer but you should know that, taken together, the reviewers want major changes in the paper. I agree with the reviewers that these changes will strengthen your paper and its impact on the field. Please respond to all their suggestions; let us know why you have not accepted their recommendations in these cases.

Thank you for your continued work on this manuscript. Good luck with the revision.

We ask that you submit your revision within 180 days. You can upload your revised manuscript and submit it through your Author Center. Log into <http://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/job> and enter your Author Center, where you will find your manuscript title listed under "Manuscripts with Decisions".

When submitting your revised manuscript, you will be able to respond to the comments made by the reviewers in the space provided. You can use this space to document any changes you make to the original manuscript.

IMPORTANT: Please make sure you closely follow the instructions for acceptable files. When submitting (uploading) your revised manuscript, please delete the file(s) that you wish to replace and then upload the revised file(s).

Please remember that the publishers will not accept a manuscript unless accompanied by the Copyright Transfer Agreement. Please go to:
<http://www.wiley.com/go/ctabglobal>

To enable the publisher to disseminate the author's work to the fullest extent, the author must sign a Copyright Transfer Agreement, transferring the copyright of the article from the author to the publisher.

(If you do not intend to re-submit your revised manuscript please delete it from your author centre or you will receive a reminder to re-submit.)

Once again, thank you for submitting your manuscript to Journal of Organizational Behavior and I look forward to receiving your revision.

Sincerely,

Prof. Dean Tjosvold
 Journal of Organizational Behavior
 tjosvold@ln.edu.hk

Reviewers' Comments to Author:

Reviewing: 1

Comments to the Author

1. I continue to like the data set and think it has merit, but the writing and logic still need improvement.

Response: We did engage in addressing all the suggestions as specified in the below.

2. I still think the paper would read a lot better if you called employee performance “employee behavior.”

Response: We think that the term ‘employee behavior’ is too broad for what is examined in this study. The questionnaire that is used to measure ‘employee performance’ consists of three so called performance measures (‘sales growth efforts’, ‘work attitudes’, and ‘overall performance and attitudes’) which, in our view, do not encompass behavior. For a better understanding we decided to change ‘employee performance’ in ‘employee sales performance’.

3. Like the other reviewer, I too would like to see objective store performance more integrated into the model. Is there reason to hypothesize direct effects of EI or store cohesion on sales performance other than via employee behavior? Then you can reduce the goal of showing that employee behavior affects store performance as a separate issue. On p. 25 and elsewhere in the discussion, you make the case that EI does predict store performance, so I’d like to see it in the original model.

Response: Text on p. 25 and elsewhere has been rewritten, given that a direct EI effect on the performance is unlikely and would not represent the state-of-the-art in EI research. It is not significantly shown that EI or store cohesion has no

direct effects on sales performance: see also Table 1.

4. Please drop all mention of groupthink. It's not necessary at all. In the case of your sample of sales people, it's especially not relevant as they aren't making collective decisions.

Thank you indeed, groupthink has been removed.

5. The rationale for H1 seems to go on for too long. Cut to a few key points and mechanisms by which EI might affect group cohesion. A few of the points leading to H2 are also unnecessary or unclear or out of place (lines 24-36 p. 8 at the least).

Response: We cut some sentences belonging to H1 and have rewritten some parts around H1 as well. Also in the H2 section we have removed and rewritten some parts to make it clearer and more convincing.

6. There are 3.5 pages on why cohesion should mediate! This is far, far too much. A lot of this section seems to be about why EI affects coh, or why coh affects employee behavior, both of which were already established as rationales for H1 and H2. The 3.5 pages gave very little rationale for why partial rather than full mediation was hypothesized, and this is what's needed here.

Response: The section preceding H3 has been cut and rewritten to focus more on partial mediation.

7. Throughout the manuscript, there are lots of statements about how emotionally intelligent leaders might behave, many of which are quite tenuous – e.g. they might implement high involvement work practices, they might hire employees with higher EI.

Response: We have removed those; thank you for pointing this out.

8. p. 13 No need for the discussion of contextual behavior. Say you measured sales-relevant employee behavior.

Response: The part of contextual behaviour has been removed.

9. Are you using “intimacy” and “socio-emotionally rich” as synonyms for cohesion? Best to stick to one term throughout.

Response: Both terms have been changed to reduce possible confusion on part of the reader.

10. Re the ICC2 and rWG - these were calculated using all responses from all employees in the store. Makes sense. But the variables actually used in the analyses were based on half of the employees in each store. Would it be useful to check the reliability of the measures that were actually used too?

Response: We also checked the reliability of the measures with the responses that were actually used for analysis – emotional intelligence with the first half of the employees ($N = 811$, 50.3%) and cohesiveness with the second half of the employees ($N = 800$, 49.7%). The reliability of group means is acceptable and high levels of within-group agreement are evident both for emotional intelligence ($ICC2 = .98$, $r_{WG(J)} = .99$) and cohesiveness ($ICC2 = .97$, $r_{WG(J)} = .97$).

11. P21 line 25. You hypothesized partial mediation, so you shouldn't be expecting the IV's effect on the DV to "dramatically reduced to almost zero" when the mediator is in the model.

Response: We revised the texts addressing the conditions for both partial and full mediation.

12. Re the extra analysis by EI dimension. You could also make the point that this shows the effects aren't just due to the goal setting part of UOE, which otherwise could be a criticism. Not all conceptualizations of EI include goal setting, and we know goal setting ought to influence performance. So it's interesting to find that the other dimensions of EI actually predict as or more strongly than UOE.

Response: We agree with your point, but didn't find a suitable spot in the paper to include it. Hence, we added your insight to the results section: in the form of a footnote.

13. The discussion seems to go on for far too long, making the same point again and again. Please greatly shorten the discussion.

Response: The discussion has been shortened, some parts are removed, some parts are rewritten, and some parts are moved to other sections.

14. The points made throughout the discussion are also causal, which your data cannot directly prove. Some of these statements are pretty strong.

Response: The causal parlance has been rewritten or removed.

15. p. 27 line 13. "Incremental validity" over and above what? There are no other predictors.

Response: This section has been removed.

16. p.27 line 50. I don't accept the argument that emotionally intelligent leaders are better able to assess their employees' aggregated performance accurately. And if they were, it just means there's more error in the employee performance ratings of respondents who are lower on EI. Unequal error in a dv which is a function of standing on the IV is probably some kind of statistical nightmare. Drop this whole point.

Response: Thanks, the whole point has been removed.

17. I also suggest dropping the discussion of LMX.

Response: We decided to not drop the discussion because we think that it could be a valuable research direction and we added why we could not find any literature that reported on the link between group cohesion and LMX, although it looks like both variables might have some things in common.

18. The speculation about more emotionally intelligent followers goes quite wide of what your paper is about and could be dropped. The section on practical implications is far too long.

Response: With the reduced section we would like to show what impact our research might have and how it could be used in further research; we removed the further research directions that look a bit too speculative.

Reviewing: 2

Comments to the Author

This is an interesting study that examines the impact of manager's emotional intelligence on unit level outcomes of cohesion and performance. As the authors pointed out, strong empirical research that demonstrate group level outcomes of emotional intelligence is still lacking, and as such, the study is very timely and makes meaningful contribution to the literature. The use of data from multiple sources and the split sample technique is also a strength, as well as the large sample size. Below I offer some comments intended for the authors to further refinement of the manuscript:

1. While I agree with you that there is a lack of empirical research on the link between leader emotional intelligence and team outcomes, there are a few studies (e.g., Hur et al., 2011; Koman & Wolff, 2008) that have made such an attempt. It's advisable to acknowledge and give a brief review of these studies.
Response: Thank you, we integrated these, and newer studies in the paper.

2. I feel as if the link between emotional intelligence and cohesion is better argued in the lead-in to Hypothesis 3 (the mediation hypothesis) than what you did in the lead-in to Hypothesis 1. I also notice that there is some overlap between these two sections. This is somewhat unavoidable because you are building a mediation hypothesis, but it does make me wonder if it's better to integrate the conceptual development for the first 3 hypotheses into one section...

Response: We chose to rewrite the separate rationales for H1, H2, and H3: in an effort to make the distinction between the hypotheses clearer. This choice is also based on the comments of reviewer #1.

3. You generally give well-grounded support to your hypothesis, but there are a few places where your arguments need to be better supported. For example,

a. On p.6, the 2nd paragraph, you stated, "if the resulting high-quality relations as role-modeled by an emotionally intelligent manager may become the unit norm and adopted by the members of the unit, this may contribute to..." Note here you are arguing that an emotionally intelligent leader, besides being able to better manage the interpersonal relationships among members, is also able to enhance the emotional intelligence of members, and thereby, facilitate member interactions. That is an argument that demands empirical support, which I suspect is not there yet.

Response: In the article from Cogliser & Schriesheim (2000) a case has been made about these high-quality relations, but not for emotional intelligent managers. We decided to remove this sentence.

b. On p.7, 2nd paragraph, you stated, "employees under emotionally intelligent supervision ..., ...have a tendency to maintain cohesive member relations in ways that are functional toward the accomplishment of the group's task." Such a statement requires solid empirical evidence for support, too.

Response: Reference has been inserted.

c. On the same paragraph, you further cited Sanchez-Burks and Huy (2009) to indicate that a leader's skill to read group emotions as being beneficial. Note that, although this is probably true, this element of emotional skills (i.e., recognizing group emotions) is not yet conceptualized as part of what is currently considered individual emotional intelligence.

Response: Through the words 'it could be' it has been made clear that this is an assumption we made; this skill is likely one of those intuitions or insights that highly EI leaders may have.

d. P.11, 2nd paragraph, you stated, "due to the relatively high intimacy of their communications with their work-unit employees, an emotionally intelligent manager may have a strong impact on the intimacy felt amongst the group members." This argument needs to be supported by evidence that indicates that (1) emotionally intelligent managers have relatively high intimacy in their communications with their employees, and (2) such intimacy will be somehow modeled by the employees in their interactions with each other.

Response: The sentence has been rewritten, also due to the comments of the other reviewer.

4. Hypothesis 2 wasn't given much attention in the discussion of your results. What is the contribution of this particular finding? Is this simply a replication of prior research? What are the practical implications of this finding? Especially because you open your discussion in the introduction of your study by focusing reader attention on cohesion, this part of the finding deserves some attention.

Response: Good point; we added some discussion text about cohesion and its link with performance. See also point 10.

5. You have very good research design, and you handled data analysis with care and skill.

Response: Thank you very much.

6. Although this doesn't seem to evident itself in the observed correlations reported in Table 1, I do wonder – It's likely that a manager of a store that generally reaches its sales goals will also evaluate his or her employees' performance positively. So, given managers' knowledge of the store's past performance (which is likely to highly correlate with current performance), this would have influenced their ratings of employee performance. You may want to briefly discuss this possibility in your manuscript.

Response: Thank you for your comment. This suggestion is inserted in the manuscript.

7. P.27, 2nd paragraph, you stated, "the results of this study thus show that the managers who were seen by their followers as being highly accurate in seeing, understanding and channeling follower emotions were at the same time quite able to accurately assess their unit's aggregate performance." I'm not sure what this means. What about those managers who are low in EI, should we question the accuracy of their reports of unit aggregate performance?

Response: We have removed this sentence.

8. P.28, 1st paragraph under "Limitation," you stated, "this might be due to the

more individualized way highly educated (sales) professional work.” Explain this briefly.

Response: We have removed this sentence; this was too much of a stretch.

9. P.31, the last part of the first paragraph, you commented on the emotional labor element of a manager’s job. Till this point, emotional labor was never discussed, and as such, readers are not given a clear understanding in terms of how you view emotional intelligence as being associated with emotional labor. As such, it may cause some confusion. I would either omit this discussion or extend it a bit so that it is more clear.

Response: We extended this part a bit to make it more clear.

10. Practical implication. As I mentioned in point 4 above, I would add some discussion on cohesion and its relationship on performance in this section.

Response: We have added discussion text about cohesion and its link with performance.

11. I think your conclusion section is a bit of stretch from the core of your study. For example, you stated that “managers who are highly emotionally intelligent seem to have the needed skill repertoire to prevent or reduce groupthink and other unwanted group behavior.” This is not shown in the results of your study. I would in this section focus on the core findings/message of the study.

Response: Based on your excellent criticism, we removed parts of the conclusion and we have rewritten many other parts as well.

12. Minor issues

a. P.15, you introduced Figure 1 right before the Method section. I would move this earlier before you introduce the specific hypotheses.

Response: Thank you, the Figure has been moved.

b. Table 2, the role of “store sales performance” may be removed from the table.

Response: Thank you, this has been removed.

c. I would remove the little circles and arrows pointing to the boxes in Figures 1 and 2.

Response: Thank you, this has been removed

d. Occasionally you have word choice and sentence structure issues, as well as some format issues. The manuscript may benefit from some professional proof editing.

Response: Done.

I enjoyed reading about your study! I encourage you to further this line of research in the future! Hope my comments help!

Response: Yes, very much, so many thanks!

Reference

Koman, E.S., & Wolff, S.B. (2008). Emotional intelligence competencies in the

team and team leader: A multi-level examination of the impact of emotional intelligence on team performance. *The Journal of Management Development*, 27(1), 55-75. :added to the new version.

30-Mar-2012.

Date Sent: Response: Due to a major car accident, the first author has not immediately received these comments when they were sent by the associated editor. Much later the other authors made an inquiry: hence the late resubmission of this paper; in this version we included all the relevant published new literature that appeared since.

Appendix B: Aanvullende analyse

Naar aanleiding van het gehypothiseerde model in het originele artikel wordt er in dit hoofdstuk een aanvullende analyse gedaan. Het getoetste model (figuur 1) laat verschillende relaties zien tussen verschillende variabelen. In het artikel wordt over de richting van deze relatie een duidelijke aanname gemaakt, die echter niet statistisch onderbouwd kan worden. In het artikel wordt namelijk duidelijk gemaakt dat emotionele intelligentie zorgt voor een hogere cohesie in de groep. Deze hogere cohesie zorgt weer voor een hogere prestatie van werknemers, welke weer een hogere prestatie van de winkel tot gevolg heeft. Een aantal van deze relaties kunnen ook de andere kant op gaan. In deze discussie wordt groepscohesie uit het artikel gebruikt om dieper op in te gaan.

De centrale variabele waar onduidelijk over bestaat is cohesie. Ten eerste zijn er verschillende constructen van cohesie. In het algemeen wordt cohesie nu omschreven als de neiging van groepsleden om sociale relaties met elkaar aan te gaan om als groep bij elkaar te blijven en een eenheid te vormen (Casey-Campbell & Martens, 2009). Een meta-analyse van Beal, Cohen, Burke & McLendon (2003) laat echter zien dat cohesie gezien wordt als interpersonele aantrekkelijkheid (sociale cohesie), als groepstrots of als taakcommitment (taakcohesie). Deze hebben alledrie een relatie met prestatie. Cohesie is echter ook beschreven als de weerstand van een groep tegen krachten die verstorend zijn (Friedkin 2004).

In tegenstelling tot het artikel in deze bacheloropdracht wordt cohesie positief gelinkt aan groepsprestatie, in het artikel wordt namelijk geen link gevonden met groepsprestatie maar met individuele prestatie. Ook volgens een meta-analyse van Mullen en Cooper (1994) over de link cohesie-prestatie is het zo dat cohesie een positief effect heeft op prestatie, maar dat prestatie ook een positief effect heeft op cohesie (Chang & Bordia, 2001). De laatste is zelfs een sterkere richting. Volgens hen zegt dit effect dat de impact van prestatie op cohesie groter is dan de impact van cohesie op prestatie.

In tegenstelling tot het artikel van deze bacheloropdracht en een onderzoek van Bech, Mossholder, Steel, & Bennett (1998) heeft cohesie in de hierboven beschreven meta-analyses juist een negatieve invloed op individuele prestaties terwijl het een positief effect heeft op groepsprestatie. Ook een onderzoek van Shin en Park (2002) is gekeken naar de invloed van groepscohesie op individuele prestatie en op groepsprestatie. Uit de resultaten bleek dat groepscohesie een negatieve invloed heeft op de competentie-prestatie relatie van een individu, terwijl groepscohesie een positieve invloed heeft op de competentie-prestatie relatie van een groep. Er is dus veel verwarring over de relatie tussen cohesie en groeps- en individuele prestatie.

Een verklaring voor dit verschil kan zijn dat de onderzoeksopzet, methodiek en statistische procedures verschillen. In de meta-analyses is bijvoorbeeld literatuur gebruikt die cohesie vanuit het individu bekijken maar ook vanuit de groep (Casey-Campbell & Martens, 2009). Dion (2000) zegt namelijk dat de onderzoeksvraag bepaalt hoe groepscohesie moet worden onderzocht. Om uit een meta-analyse concrete resultaten te krijgen is dus moeilijk omdat er verschillende constructen zijn voor groepscohesie, maar ook omdat er verschillende effecten zijn voor bijvoorbeeld grootte van het team, het meten vanuit individueel perspectief of groepspectief en ook de setting waarin het onderzoek zich afspeelt (Chiochio & Essiembre, 2009). Er is namelijk nog niet veel onderzoek gedaan naar groepscohesie en zijn effect op prestatie in een organisationele context (Casey-Campbell & Martens, 2009). Het artikel uit deze bacheloropdracht draagt hier dus aan bij, want groepscohesie is wel een belangrijk topic waar managers veel aan kunnen hebben wanneer ze groepsprestatie willen verhogen, ook in een context van dienstverlening (George & Bettenhausen, 1990).

Uit bovenstaande blijkt dat er tussen cohesie en prestatie vaak een causale relatie zit. Omgekeerd kan dit ook, prestatie kan ook zorgen voor een hogere (waargenomen) cohesie (Mullen & Cooper, 1994). Dit blijkt ook uit een studie van Carron, Brawley, Eys, Bray, Dorsch, Estabrooks, et al. (2003). Wanneer er consistent succes wordt behaald door een

groep, dan kunnen de groepsleden gaan zeggen dat hun groepscohesie hoog is, terwijl bij consistent falen de groepsleden kunnen gaan zeggen dat hun groepscohesie laag is. Ook een artikel van Turner, Hogg, Turner, & Smith (1984) zegt dat prestatie kan zorgen voor cohesie. Zij concluderen dat falen zorgt voor meer cohesie in een groep wanneer de leden een hoge commitment hebben.

Een meta-analyse over de relatie cohesie-prestatie van Beal et al. (2003) laat zien dat cohesie verschillende impacten heeft op verschillende situaties. Wanneer efficiëntie heel belangrijk is in een organisatie, dan is groepscohesie een groot voordeel. Groepscohesie heeft een kleiner voordeel wanneer groepsleden onderling hun taken niet met elkaar delen. Groepscohesie kan ook doorslaan naar de verkeerde kant, een te hoge groepscohesie kan negatieve effecten hebben. Groupthink is een voorbeeld van een groepscohesie die is doorgeslagen naar de verkeerde kant. Wanneer de cohesie in een groep te hoog is kan het zo zijn dat de groepsleden zich gaan binden aan normen voor de eenheid in de groep en niet meer realistisch kijken naar de prestaties van het team (Rovio, Eskola, Kozub, Duda, & Lintunen, 2009).

Uit al deze onderzoeken blijkt dat cohesie een veelomvattend begrip is dat in elke situatie andere resultaten geeft. Kleine verschillen zoals hoge commitment of lage commitment, context van het onderzoek etc hebben al invloed op de resultaten over de link tussen cohesie en prestatie. Er moet dus goed gekeken worden naar wat precies gemeten wordt met cohesie, welke richting de relatie opgaat en wat de sterkte van deze richting is om te bepalen of bepaalde resultaten overeenkomen met de resultaten uit andere onderzoeken.

- Beal, D.J., Cohen, R.R., Burke, M.J., & McLendon, C.L. (2003). Cohesion and performance in groups: A meta-analytic clarification of construct relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(6), 989-1004.
- Carron, A.V., Brawley, L.R., Eys, M.A., Bray, S., Dorsch, K., Estabrooks, P., Hall, C.R., Hardy, J., et al. (2003). Do individual perceptions of group cohesion reflect shared beliefs?: An empirical analysis. *Small Group Research*, 34(4), 468-496.
- Casey-Campbell, M. & Martens, M.L. (2009). Sticking it all together: A critical assessment of the group cohesion- performance literature. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 11(2), 223-246.
- Chang, A., & Bordia, P. (2001). A multidimensional approach to the group cohesion-group performance relationship. *Small Group Research*, 32(4), 379-405.
- Chiocchio, F., & Essiembre, H. (2009). Cohesion and Performance: A meta-analytic review of disparities between project teams, production teams, and service teams. *Small Group Research*, 40(4), 382-420.
- Dion, K. (2000). Group cohesion: From 'field of forces' to multidimensional construct. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 4(1), 7-26.
- Friedkin, N.E. (2004). Social cohesion. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 30, 409-425.
- George, J.M. & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(6), 698-709.
- Gully, S.M., Devine, D.J., & Whitney, D.J. (2012). A meta-analysis of cohesion and performance: Effects of level of analysis and task interdependence. *Small Group Research*, 43(6), 702-725.
- Mullen, B., & Copper, C. (1994). The relation between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115(2), 210-227.
- Rovio, E., Eskola, J., Kozub, S.A., Duda, J.L., & Lintunen, T. (2009). Can high group

cohesion be harmful? *Small Group Research*, 40(4), 421-435.

Turner, J.C., Hogg, M.A., Turner, P.J., & Smith, P.M. (1984). Failure and defeat as determinants of group cohesiveness. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 23(6), 97-111.

Wech, B.A., Mossholder, K.W., Steel, R.P., & Bennett, N. (1998). Does work group cohesiveness affect individuals' performance and organizational commitment?: A cross-level examination. *Small Group Research*, 29(2), 472-494.