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Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

THE MODERATING INFLUENCE OF CORE SELF-EVALUATION, EMOTIONAL
INTELLIGENCE AND EXTRAVERSION ON CAREER SUCCESS

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Alexander David Sevilla

June, 2014

Ronald Stephens, Ed.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Alexander David Sevilla

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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Ronald Stephens, Ed.D., Chairperson

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my amazing family, my wife Yesenia and my two children, Lauren and David. My most important role in life, by a considerable margin, is being a husband and a father. Each one of you give me that gift every day of my life. I love each of you so completely, and I thank you for your never ending support, encouragement, understanding, love, hugs, kisses, high fives and secret handshakes. Every day with you is a celebration of life and the most thrilling, joyous, rocking roller coaster. I cannot wait to see what is around the next curve.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all those who have helped and inspired me throughout this doctoral experience. Maya Angelou said, “when we give cheerfully and accept gratefully, everyone is blessed”. I am so very blessed to have had so many who have given cheerfully to support my doctoral work. It has been an honor to accept their gifts of wisdom, insight, support, and encouragement gratefully. I have reached this milestone through the good fortune of having so many friendly faces firmly in my corner, and I have a great deal of motivation to *pay it forward* as often as I possibly can.

First, I would like to thank the faculty and staff of the EDOL program at Pepperdine University for producing this outstanding doctoral program. To my dissertation chair, Dr. Ronald Stephens, thank you for your expert counsel throughout the dissertation process and for your positivity that served to propel my efforts during the more challenging stages. Dr. Linda Livingstone, thank you for serving as a strong grounding force, helping ensure that my research was well aligned with the needs of business schools. Dr. June Schneider-Ramirez, thank you for not only serving on my dissertation committee, but for your constant enthusiasm around my ideas and my potential in the field. I look forward to future collaborations with each of you.

Secondly, I would like to thank my research supporters at the University of Florida. Dr. Amir Erez, thank you for your willingness to work with me on my dissertation topic. Your spot-on insight at a critical juncture of my research helped elevate the sophistication of my study in a way that I could not have achieved without your expertise. To my primary research supporter, Andy Woolum, I deeply appreciate your mentorship, your support, your quantitative research precision, and most importantly, your patience. I have learned as much from you about research design and analysis than anyone else I have encountered in my academic career. It was a

privilege to work with you, and I look forward to partnering with you in the future when our research interests align.

I'd also like to recognize my colleagues at the University of Florida. Dean John Kraft and Dr. Selcuk Erenguc, thank you for supporting my doctoral pursuit. Having your endorsement has been essential, and I am hopeful that the current and future contributions I make, attributed to what I have learned through this experience, will continue to elevate the mission of both the UF MBA Programs and the Warrington College of Business Administration. To my UF MBA team, thank you for your continued excellence over the past four years. I could not imagine working with a finer group of professionals. Know that your stellar team performance was a vital part of maintaining my sanity while balancing my professional and academic pursuits. It is an absolute honor to work with you each day, and I look forward to continuing to *advance the brand* and *move the needle forward*.

I'd like to give a special note of thanks to my parents. All that I am today is a reflection of the world you created for me. To my father, Guillermo, from a very early age you taught me the value of hard work and to aspire to be my best self. You also gave me a love for sports, a decent midrange jumper, and a last name that I attempt to honor each day of my life. To my mother, Louise, you have always been a primary source of nurturing, wisdom, and love. Throughout my life, you have always inspired me to reach higher and farther each day. In many ways, your own academic and professional pursuits encouraged me to forge down a similar path, and I have been so wonderfully blessed along that journey.

Finally, I'd like to thank my family. To my superstar children, Lauren and David, know that everything I do begins with you, and you could not imagine how you have made my life complete. Being your father is the most rewarding part of my life. I am constantly in awe at the

beauty that lives inside of both of you and the joy you bring to me and to the world around us.

Lauren, a.k.a Daddy's little girl, you have held my heart since the day you were born, and I hope you hold on to it forever. I see such strength and love in your thoughts and actions, and you've got a spunky spirit that is whimsical, eclectic, and powerful. Believe it or not, your academic excellence over the past four years has inspired me to work harder. You are all at once brilliant, determined, charming and caring, and I could not be more proud of the young woman you have become, and the limitless future that is in front of you. You are going to change the world! Just know that you will always be Daddy's little girl first, *always*. David, my little big guy - who is now no longer little - your confidence, your laugh and your pure zest for life are always with me. You are so talented in so many ways: on the soccer field, the basketball court, on center stage singing and performing, and most importantly, in the game of life. I see so many little pieces of me in you, only far better. From the day you were born, you have been my best buddy, and our special bond as father and son is one of my most cherished treasures in life. Continue to tackle the world with your perfect blend of exuberance, passion, and talent, with your big booming heart as your trusted compass. And to my wife Yesenia, where do I begin? You are my best friend and my life co-pilot. You are my inspiration and my reason. I could not have asked for a better, better half. When we married over 18 years ago, I knew we had a blessed future in front of us, but I could not have imagined just how amazing my life has been with you, and we are just getting started. You are my everything, and so much more. Your unparalleled beauty, inside and out, is a true treasure, and a sight to behold. You make me feel safe, strong, and always loved.

Thank you for always believing in me, for being my biggest supporter, for pushing me to appreciate my best self in all facets of life, for giving me the most wonderful children and family, and for loving me unconditionally every day of our lives. I love you Bella.

VITA

EDUCATION

- Ed.D. in Organizational Leadership**, Pepperdine University, Malibu CA 2014
- Master of Business Administration**, Univ. of Miami, Coral Gables, FL 1997
Specialization: Human Resource Management
- Bachelor of Business Administration**, Univ. of Miami, Coral Gables, FL 1994
Major: Marketing

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE**The University of Florida, Hough Graduate School of Business**

- Assistant Dean and MBA Program Director** October 2006 to present
MBA Program Director October 2003 – October 2006

Program Leadership & Growth

- Chief administrative and strategic lead for (9) MBA program formats and nearly 1,000 students, including full-time, online, executive, and professional
- Lead staff of 20 professionals to defined outcomes in recruiting, admissions, student affairs, marketing, corporate development, and faculty and alumni relations
- Increased Working Professional MBA program revenue from 5M in 2003 to 18M in 2013 and increased total enrollment by 110% during same period
- Managing director of globally #1 rated online MBA Program (*The Economist*). Partner with faculty, technology, instructional design, and MBA teams to drive program excellence.
- Led innovative curriculum redesign for the full-time MBA curriculum. Collaborated with Warrington College of Business faculty through design and review process, culminating with the approval of new curriculum model.

Program Reputation

- Primary strategist for ranking and reputation development, resulting in major advances, including:
 - Top 20 U.S. public MBA program, *US News & World Report* (2014)
 - Top 20 U.S. public MBA program, *Bloomberg BusinessWeek* (2013)
 - #4 ranked EMBA program in the U.S., *The Economist* (2013)
 - Top rated online MBA program in the world, *The Economist* (2008; 2010)
 - #3 ranked online MBA program, *U.S. News & World Report* (2014)
 - #4 ranked online MBA program in the world, *Financial Times* (2014)
 - #1 “Best Administered” MBA in the U.S., *Princeton Review* (2013; 2014)

Marketing & Branding Strategy

- Chief Marketing Officer for UF MBA Program. Lead marketing strategy, market research, and ensure measureable connection between branding efforts and enrollment goals.
- Executed comprehensive effort to re-conceptualize the UF MBA logo, brand, and strategy which delivered advancements in reputation, enrollment and revenue
- Initiated College wide team to source, adopt and implement CRM strategy in 2012-13. The launch of Salesforce CRM (Fall 2012) and Pardot CRM marketing tool (Spring 2013) has transformed UF MBA recruiting efforts.

Corporate Development

- Lead and support UF MBA corporate development strategy by identifying corporate targets, building company-specific engagement strategies, and delivering results in MBA enrollment, MBA job placement, and College level gains.
- Engineered and established the creation of two corporate advisory boards and developed strategic and tactical goals to actively drive board engagement and execution of critical deliverables.
- Collaborate with College development team to build UF MBA philanthropy strategies, identify fundraising opportunities, and create alignment between donor interests and program needs.
- Successfully launched new campus center for Professional MBA in South Florida, including market research, strategic planning, branding and recruiting, and the negotiation and acquisition of a long term lease to build an executive teaching center in Fort Lauderdale, Florida

Director, MBA Student Services

August 1999 to October 2003

- Led all MBA student affairs functions, including program operations, logistics, student experience and impression management strategies, investigation and resolution of all student issues, and relationship management with faculty and other university entities
- Increased MBA student satisfaction in program administration by 100% in 1st year of leadership and maintained exceptional satisfaction throughout tenure (2000-04). EBI MBA Exit surveys.
- Worked closely with academic department chairs and faculty to create schedules, determine elective course needs, identify curriculum issues and opportunities, and enhance the MBA experience through improved course offerings
- Restructured critical components of Traditional and Working Professional MBA programs to improve program operations, academic outcomes and increase student and faculty satisfaction
- Directed eight MBA orientations and five MBA commencements annually

Associate Director, MBA Career Services

December 1998 to August 1999

- Directed MBA Internship Program to achieve 97% placement rate in 1999
- Established corporate relations program that increased employer activity by 55% from the previous year
- Managed multiple facets of team operations, including corporate development, career coaching, and career development programming
- Created regional recruiting events and corporate site visits throughout the southeast, thereby increasing career opportunities for UF MBA students

University of Miami, School of Business Administration**Assoc. Director, Graduate Business Programs**

February 1995 – December 1998

- Managed five executive MBA programs and two specialized degree programs, providing full range of program operations, student services and management leadership to over 500 students
- Created proposals, led recruiting initiatives and launched four off campus MBA programs across South Florida.
- Collaborated with strategy team to expand MBA program offerings into Tampa and Orlando, Florida
- Collaborated with faculty and academic departments to manage and support curriculum offerings
- Negotiated and secured domestic and international internships for all students in Master of International Business Program (MIBS)
- Promoted to Associate Director II in July 1998

INDUSTRY LEADERSHIP

- Board of Directors: Graduate Management Admissions Council (GMAC), 2009-12
 - Member of MET Fund Advisory Council: 2011-present
- Chairperson: GMAC Board of Directors, 2010-11
- Chairperson: 2009 GMAC Annual Industry Conference, 2008 to 2009
- Lead and/or co-presenter on industry topics such as *The Future of the MBA I & II (two part series)*, *Innovation in Distance Based & Online MBA Programs*, *The Rise of For-Profit Education and its Impact on the Graduate Business Industry*, *Effective Management of EMBA Teams*, *Marketing to Military MBA Candidates*

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the moderating influences of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion on the career success of master's level business graduates. Much was known about the relationship between this study's three dispositional variables and career success, but far less was known about how these items interact with one another to influence extrinsic and intrinsic career success. Our research involved the collection of data from master's level business alumni from a large Southeastern university who graduated between 2000 and 2012. Established measures were used as gathering instruments for the three dispositional variables, the CSES for core self-evaluation, the WEIP-S for emotional intelligence, and the IPIP proxy of the NEO-PI-R for extraversion. In total, 4,790 alumni were surveyed and 534 alumni successfully completed the survey. The survey results found partial support for 2 of the 4 hypotheses. We found a moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success. We also found that extraversion moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and participant's response to the question 'time spent happy at work'. The data also produced a strong, positive relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success, and a modest relationship between intrinsic career success and both emotional intelligence and extraversion. This study concluded that personality does matter when it comes to career success of master's level business graduates. These results have implications for business schools administrators that aim to improve the career success of their master's level business graduates. By understanding the core self-evaluation traits and emotional intelligence abilities of applicants and students, business school leaders can seek to understand how these items are associated with higher performance in terms of job placement and career success. This knowledge could be incorporated into a more

sophisticated approach to attracting student talent, developing student talent through curricula advances, and connecting student talent to hiring organizations. In doing so, business schools can advance their mission of providing not only knowledge and skill development to their students, but also more long term career success and improved results for the organizations that hire their graduate talent.

Chapter One: Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the moderating influences of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion on the outcome of career success. This study focused on graduate business alumni from a large Southeastern university, who graduated from three distinct master's level programs, Masters of Business Administration (MBA), Masters of Science in Management (MSM) and Masters of Arts in International Business (MAIB), between 2000 and 2012. Core self-evaluation was measured by the CSES Scale (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003), and emotional intelligence was measured by the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP-S) (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009; Judge et al., 2003). Extraversion was measured with the extraversion sub-scale of the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) proxy of the NEO-PI-R (Goldberg, 2013; Goldberg et al., 2006). The first chapter of this study outlines the background, the problem statement, the purpose of the study, the hypotheses, and the overall significance of the study, as well as the limitations and assumptions of the study.

Background

The influence of personality traits and attributes on job performance, job satisfaction and career success has drawn considerable attention from both organizational research scholars and corporations. Organizational scholars have long sought to better understand how certain personality traits influence the productivity of human capital. Corporations have sought to apply this knowledge to improve selection decisions, promotion decisions and ultimately improve the bottom line performance of the organization (Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012). The five-factor model of personality (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001), core self-evaluation (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Judge, 2009; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Stumpf & Tymon, 2012), and emotional intelligence (Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006) have

all been shown to predict job performance and career success. This study investigated how core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion interact to predict career success of master's level business graduates. Of specific interest was the question of whether the interplay of these traits and abilities would result in differences in extrinsic and intrinsic career success. Research findings would have the potential to hold considerable interest for individuals, corporations and business schools.

Examined individually, core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion have all been positively linked to intrinsic and extrinsic career success. Core self-evaluation, a broad personality construct, has effectively predicted a number of positive career advancing behaviors including improved performance (Judge, 2009; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998), motivation (Bipp, 2010; Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005), goal attainment (Chang et al., 2012), and goal commitment (Bipp, 2010; Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 2005; Judge et al., 1998; Srivastava, Locke, Judge, & Adams, 2010). Given that organizations have positively valued these behaviors, core self-evaluation has also predicted intrinsic and extrinsic career success indicators such as occupational prestige (Judge, 2009), job satisfaction (Judge, 2009; Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000), life satisfaction (Judge et al., 2005), and a steeper promotion and income trajectories (Judge & Hurst, 2008). Emotional intelligence has been shown to predict career advancing behaviors such as job performance (Carmeli, 2003; Cote & Miners, 2006; Sy, Tram, & O'Hara, 2006), career commitment (Carmeli, 2003; Dries & Pepermans, 2007), leader effectiveness (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005), building social capital (Lopes et al., 2006), managing upward (Sy et al., 2006), building team trust (Barczak, Lassk, & Mulki, 2010), and the ability to regulate emotions to excel at the task at hand (Sy et al., 2006). Emotional intelligence has also predicted extrinsic career success such as merit

increases (Lopes et al., 2006), an individual's job rank within an organization (Lopes et al., 2006), higher performance ratings (Lopes et al., 2006), entry level employability (Maynard, 2003), and job satisfaction (Sy et al., 2006). Similar to core self-evaluation and emotional intelligence, extraversion has been linked to career advancing behaviors (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991), extrinsic career success (Boudreau, Boswell, & Judge, 2001; Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999) and intrinsic career success (Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Although research has identified many individual relationships between core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extroversion and the outcomes of career success, far less is known about how the interaction of these traits and abilities may influence career success. This study sought to specifically identify how these interactions impact the career success of master's level business graduates.

As primary providers of human talent to organizations, business schools have a vested interest in understanding how these interactions may predict short and long term career success of their graduate business alumni. In addition, given the significance of career success for graduates, most notably MBA graduates, in relation to business schools' overall prestige and reputation, such an increased understanding may influence changes in the selection process of MBA and other master's level program candidates. Such findings may also have the potential to influence the training and professional development provided to graduate business students within the programs' curricula. Most important, business schools have a vested interest in having alumni that are both intrinsically and extrinsically satisfied with their careers. Such satisfaction naturally stems from having successful and fulfilling careers. This career success can be partially attributed to their degree program, which aids in the school's future recruiting and enrollment efforts. Successful alumni have been shown to be more likely to contribute financially to their

schools and increase their personal involvement with mission critical initiatives of their programs (Cannings, 1991; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995). Successful alumni may yield important gains for their alma mater in enrollment (recommending a colleague or protégé to enroll), recruiting (hiring a future business school graduate into their organization), or student development (speaking on campus and/or mentoring current students).

Statement of the Problem

Business schools around the world seek to provide students with the skills and attributes necessary to maximize their personal success throughout their professional careers. To meet this objective, schools admit capable students, provide a rigorous and relevant curriculum, and offer professional development training. Methods for assessing a program's overall efficacy can be categorized into short term and long term. Short term program efficacy has been measured by the ability of program graduates to secure employment at graduation. Long term program efficacy has been measured by graduates' ability to sustain continued career success over time. A program's global reputation, as defined by MBA rankings such as *Bloomberg BusinessWeek*, *US News & World Report*, *the Economist*, and *the Financial Times*, is partially related to this short term metric of employment at time of graduation. A program's ability to achieve success from a business perspective is connected to the long term metric of alumni career success. These tangible performance metrics not only influence MBA programs' global rankings, they also impact future student demand for these programs. Prospective graduate business candidates closely evaluate the job placement rates, mean starting salary figures, and longer term return-on-investment when making application and enrollment decisions. As business schools are able to successfully improve their rankings, and subsequently their reputations, the resulting increase in student demand provides an opportunity for financial gain through increased enrollment. This

increased demand creates additional reputation gain through increased student selectivity via a larger applicant pool.

All of these factors have driven business schools to better understand the ideal skills and attributes that may predict successful job placement of their graduates, as well as the long term extrinsic and intrinsic career successes of their alumni. Business schools could be prompted to adjust their evaluative criteria of candidates should results of this study's analysis reveal moderating influences affecting career success. Concurrently, graduate business programs could create learning opportunities for their students through curriculum innovation and professional development training to strengthen self-awareness and/or improve competency of these skills that yield greater career success. This study explored how core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion interact with one another to influence career success of master's level business graduates. Acquiring this insight could assist business school administrators in selecting, training and counseling graduate business students to maximize not only their immediate post-graduation employment prospects, but more important, their long term career success.

Another universal factor that influences business school strategy and innovation has been the level to which they meet the needs of the companies that employ MBA talent (Datar, Garvin, & Cullen, 2010). Business schools have received occasional criticism for their inability to develop leadership, teamwork, interpersonal skills, ethics and concern for others as part of their MBA programs (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002; Rynes & Bartunek, 2013; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Changes in the complexity of the global economy coupled with the impact of the recent economic crisis have only heightened those concerns, and hence called into question the business school value proposition for its two primary constituent groups, MBA

students and MBA hiring organizations (Datar et al., 2010). This critical line of questioning has consistently led to a push for MBA curricula reform and innovation (Datar et al., 2010). One specific recommendation proposed that business schools reconsider the right balance between *the knowing* – teaching facts and theories, *the doing* – the development of capabilities and techniques for the practice of management, and *the being* – the assessment and development of values, attitudes and beliefs that define exceptional leaders in practice (Datar et al., 2010, p.7). When looking for new ways to improve on *the doing* and *the being* elements of a MBA program curriculum, multiple areas of exploration can be considered, including the introduction or advancement of social and emotional intelligence competency training (Boyatzis, 2008). MBA applicants and corporate recruiters have continued to push business schools to broaden their training and development opportunities to include social and emotional intelligence competencies in order to develop a larger pool of well-rounded graduate business students. This study's investigation of the interactions among core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion held the potential to provide quantitative evidence of the impact that emotional intelligence competencies may have on career success for master's level business graduates.

Individually, these core competencies have all been positively associated with career success. Is it possible, however, in certain instances to have too much of a good thing? Professionals at the upper spectrum of the core self-evaluation scale may suffer from a phenomenon labeled Hyper-CSE (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005). Hyper-CSE individuals have exhibited traits such as narcissism, hubris and overconfidence that may have then resulted in career limiting actions such as excessive risk taking, grandiose initiatives and uninformed, sub-optimal decision-making (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997; Hiller & Hambrick, 2005). Hyper-CSE has been of particular interest to business schools, as common critiques of the MBA graduate

have centered on hubris and overconfidence, and how the environment business schools have created may have offered support to these tendencies (Schneer & Reitman, 2002; Tett & Meyer, 1993). For professionals and executives at the upper end of the core self-evaluation scale, long term career success may hinge upon their ability to maximize the positive elements of their personality traits, while minimizing or controlling the counterproductive elements of these traits. One potential moderator of the hyper-CSE phenomenon is emotional intelligence, as those individuals higher in emotional intelligence may be better equipped to avoid the hubris and overconfidence pitfalls compared to those lower in emotional intelligence. Is it also possible that extraversion may moderate the respective influences of either core self-evaluation or emotional intelligence on career success? Do the social attributes associated with extraversion increase one's exposure to, and ability to make use of, opportunities, thereby enabling a professional high in either core self-evaluation, or emotional intelligence, to achieve a greater level of career success? These hypothesized interactions among personality traits and social intelligence attributes were the focus of this study.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to develop a better understanding of how certain personality traits and emotional intelligence abilities interact with one another, and influence the extrinsic and intrinsic career success of master's level business graduates. Prior research has shown a positive relationship between career success and core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion, separately. Those studies, however, have not focused exclusively on a population of master's level business graduates, including MBA graduates from full-time, executive, professional and internet based programs. Research has also not examined the moderating influences of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion on career

success. The results of this study held the potential to add to the body of knowledge surrounding personality and career success. These results could also advance knowledge regarding emotional intelligence and its impact on career success. This study strengthens the comprehension of how the career successes of master's level business graduates might be improved through business schools' strategic advances in candidate selection, social and emotional competency training, and curricula reform. The short and long term career successes of MBA graduates are high-stakes enterprises for business schools, hiring corporations, and the students themselves. There are vested interests for all parties involved to gain a greater understanding of the characteristics that lead to long term career success. This study sought to provide insight on how core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion impact the career success of master's level business graduates.

Research Questions

This study investigated how core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion interact with one another to influence the extrinsic and intrinsic career success of master's level business graduates. One interaction of interest surrounded the moderating influence of emotional intelligence on the relationship between core self-evaluation and career success. Would emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic success factors such as pay and promotion? Would emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic success factors such as job, career and life satisfaction? For example, would a graduate who was adept at perceiving, using, understanding and managing emotions be better equipped to capitalize on their core self-evaluation traits to improve career success compared to those with weak emotional intelligence competencies (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004)? Would a graduate with very high core self-evaluation (Hyper

CSE) and low emotional intelligence achieve less career success than his/her Hyper-CSE counterpart with higher levels of emotional intelligence? Would this individual be more susceptible to career derailment due to an inability to use emotional intelligence competencies to regulate or defuse their Hyper-CSE behaviors?

A second interaction of interest focused on the possible moderating influence of extraversion on the relationship between core self-evaluation and career success. Would extraversion moderate the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success? Would the graduate with high levels of extraversion be better able to capitalize on his/her high core self-evaluation to achieve greater job and career satisfaction compared to those lower in core self-evaluation? Would the characteristics often associated with extraversion such as relationship building, social capital, and networking capabilities interact with core self-evaluation to influence career success (McCrae & Costa, 1987; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011)? Research has shown that job complexity is a key explanatory variable in the relationship between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2000). As a result of their increased networking and social capital within the organization, would these high core self-evaluation and high extraversion graduates be more likely to have opportunities to pursue complex and challenging job assignments, thus increasing their level of overall job and career satisfaction as compared to individuals lower in either trait (Bipp, 2010; Judge et al., 2000; Srivastava et al., 2010)?

The final interaction explored surrounded the potential moderating influence of extraversion on the relationship between emotional intelligence and career success. Would the graduate high in emotional intelligence and extraversion be better equipped to proactively showcase these skills consistently with subordinates, peers and supervisors? Would this more

frequent utilization of emotional intelligence increase one's overall career potential and exposure to higher paying, more prestigious positions? Would the more introverted graduate who scores highly in emotional intelligence have fewer opportunities to display their abilities in this area, and therefore be less focal and possibly overlooked when supervisors are considering employees for promotion? Would this graduate also have a more difficult time articulating their emotional intelligence leadership capabilities when interviewing for advancement opportunities, inside or outside of their organization?

Hypotheses

The focused hypotheses that framed this research project were:

1. The relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success would be moderated by emotional intelligence such that those individuals higher in emotional intelligence would display greater extrinsic career success compared to those lower in emotional intelligence.
2. The relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success would be moderated by emotional intelligence such that those individuals higher in emotional intelligence would display greater intrinsic career success compared to those lower in emotional intelligence.
3. The relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success would be moderated by extraversion such that those individuals higher in extraversion would display greater intrinsic career success compared to those lower in extraversion.

4. The relationship between emotional intelligence and extrinsic career success would be moderated by extraversion such that those individuals higher in extraversion would display greater extrinsic career success compared to those lower in extraversion.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study was defined by its contributions to organizational psychology research, the practice of designing and delivering MBA and other master's level business programs to the market, and the value that these programs offer to their students and to the organizations that employ this talent. This study's contribution to the field of industrial and organizational psychology was the advanced understanding of the relationship among core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion on the outcome of career satisfaction. Multiple studies have shown how core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion have each individually impacted career success. Other studies have shown how these items have interacted with other variables such as age (Sutin, Costa, Miech, & Eaton, 2009), autonomy (Barrick & Mount, 1993), job stress (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012), work-family conflict (Haines, Harvey, Durand, & Marchand, 2013), conscientiousness (Douglas, Frink, & Ferris, 2004), agreeableness (Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010), cultural difference (Gabel, Dolan, & Cerdin, 2005), and organizational politics (Kacmar, Collins, Harris, & Judge, 2009) to influence career success. This study also intended to advance the understanding of these relationships by specifically examining the moderating influences of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion on the career successes of master's level business graduates.

The findings of this study could also potentially improve the practice of training and developing human talent within MBA and other master's level business programs. Business

school administrators have been motivated to create meaningful learning experiences for their students that would lead to the acquisition of skills and attributes predictive of long term career successes. Pressure to innovate MBA curricula to increase emphasis on the development of leadership skills, emotional intelligence competencies, interpersonal skills, experiential learning, integrity and ethics in order to create path-bending leaders has continued to escalate (Bedwell, Fiore, & Salas, 2013; Datar et al., 2010; Lyons, 2012; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Results from this study would help inform business school leaders of the potential impact their curriculum advancements can have on the long term career success of their alumni. Such an impact could have significant intrinsic and extrinsic value to these schools and their administrators. Business school leaders could derive intrinsic satisfaction in knowing that their curriculum innovations have improved the lives of their alumni. These schools would earn extrinsic victories in reputation, enrollment and revenue if they could successfully connect their curriculum and strategy to the long term career success of their graduate business alumni.

Beyond the interests of business schools and students, hiring companies have had a vested interest in MBA graduate success. Companies that hire MBA graduates have invested resources into the candidate screening and selection process, and have expected a return on that investment in the form of performance (Datar et al., 2010). Many organizations have sourced specific business schools for student talent when they have found an alignment between the needs and expectations of their organization, and the capabilities and fit of the MBA graduates from these institutions. Organizations have continued to return to these schools because they have found value in the student talent and in the training students receive in these programs. Given the costs associated with graduate business and MBA recruiting, corporations have also sought to identify specific skills and attributes that would not only ensure a new hire's ability to

perform the job itself, but would also predict long term success and return on investment for the organization. If this study could more succinctly define some of the traits and skills that increase job performance, job satisfaction and career satisfaction, corporations could use this type of information to create a more sophisticated and accurate candidate screening strategy. These corporations could also elect to align themselves more closely with the business schools that have a firm commitment to screen for these traits during the application process and advance these skills in their graduate business curricula. The results of this study could also provide new insights into how organizations could restructure their hiring strategies to better assess core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion in job candidates during the applicant screening process.

Key Definitions

Several key terms were used throughout this study. These terms, in relation to the study, are defined as follows:

- *Extrinsic career success* refers to objective measures of career success such as income, ascendancy or number of promotions and occupational status (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007).
- *Intrinsic career success* refers to an individual's subjective assessment of their professional success, including their appraisal of their self-worth and capabilities, and the overall satisfaction with their job, their career, and their life (Chang et al., 2012; Judge et al., 1995).
- *Core self-evaluation* refers to a broad personality construct, introduced by Judge et al in 1997, defined as “fundamental, subconscious conclusions individuals reach about themselves, other people, and the world” (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998,

p.18). Core self-evaluation is comprised of four specific traits: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism (Judge et al., 1998).

- *Hyper core self-evaluation* (hyper CSE) refers to individuals with very high core self-evaluation who exhibit traits such as narcissism, hubris and overconfidence that may result in career limiting actions such as excessive risk taking, grandiose initiatives and uninformed, sub-optimal decision-making (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997; Hiller & Hambrick, 2005).
- *Emotional intelligence* refers to a social intelligence competency construct defined in 1990 by Mayer and Salovey as “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.5).
- *Five factor model of personality* refers to the five broad personality traits used to define human personality: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Witt, 2002).
- *Extraversion* is one of the five broad personality traits of the five factor model of personality. Extraverts generate energy from engaging with the outside world. Individuals high in extraversion might be characterized as sociable, warm, assertive, active and energetic (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001).
- *Master’s level business student* refers to a student enrolled in one of three master’s level programs offered at the participating institution. These programs include Masters of Business Administration (MBA), Masters of Science in Management (MSM) and Masters of Arts in International Business (MAIB).

Key Assumptions

This study assumed that the size of the sample collected would be sufficient to detect moderating effects between career success and the variables of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion. The study also assumed that the results could be generalizable to graduate business program populations beyond the focal population (master's level business graduates from a large Southeastern university). These results could have practical implications for master's level business graduates at other institutions. The study assumed that the measurement tools selected to assess core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion were appropriate and would lead to accurate measures. The measurement instruments included the Core Self-Evaluation Scale (CSES), the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP-S), and the 10-item extraversion section of the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP). The reliability and validity of these instruments is defined in greater detail in chapter three of this study. This study also assumed that the self-reported survey responses were completed accurately and honestly by the participants. The assumption was that the participants answered all questions related to core self-evaluation accurately, without any attempts to provide answers that were not a true reflection of their traits, feelings or beliefs. The study also assumed that the participants answered all survey questions related to extrinsic career success accurately and honestly, without any attempts to provide answers that would misrepresent their current career positioning. It was also assumed that the participants answered all survey questions related to intrinsic career success accurately and honestly, without any attempts to provide answers that would misrepresent their current level of career satisfaction. Given that the invitation to complete the survey was sent out by the Assistant Dean and MBA Program Director of the participating business school, it was assumed that some participants

could be biased in their answers. This study also assumed that the participants answered all survey questions related to emotional intelligence (WEIP-S) and extraversion (10-item extraversion section of IPIP) to the best of their ability, without any attempts to provide answers that were not true reflections of their emotional intelligence competencies or levels of extraversion, respectively.

This study assumed that its results would make a meaningful contribution to the field of organizational psychology, as well as the key stakeholders of the graduate management industry including business school leaders, graduate business students, graduates, future applicants, and organizations that would hire these graduates. In summary, this study assumed that the research to be conducted was worthwhile to the research and practice of graduate management education, was generalizable to graduate business students outside of the participating institutions, used accurate measurement tools, and contained minimum response bias from participants.

Limitations of the Study

The research had several known limitations. The time elapsed between the acquisition of the archival data and the deployment of the survey instrument provided some reassurance against socially desirable response behavior. All the same, the research project data should be considered cross-sectional. This translated into findings with less validity compared with a longitudinal design, whereby participants' career success would be tracked over time. Aside from several context-specific inter-individual ratings such as group-level contribution and performance, most of the data was obtained by way of self-report. Compared with objective and third-person data sources, this condition could call into question the validity of the findings. Such self-report data could have also introduced common method bias, where a portion of the variance is due to the measurement methodology and not necessarily variance associated with the underlying

constructs. This sample consisted of graduate-level business school graduates. Such a sample restricted the generalizability of the findings to similarly comprised samples, and should not be extrapolated to the general public. Although obtaining an adequate sample size was not a problem, the sample may have suffered from range restriction in that those individuals who are proud of their success may have responded at a greater rate than those who have been less successful. This restriction is not viewed as problematic due to the expectation that a representative sample of graduates who have been unexpectedly unsuccessful wished to relay their disappointment to researchers affiliated with the participating institution.

Summary

This research study investigated the moderating relationships among core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion in relation to career success of master's level business graduates. The results of this study could hold value for organizations and business schools. From an organization perspective, higher levels of job and career satisfaction have been shown to improve employee attitudes, motivation, performance, and other desirable contributions made to their position (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Increased employee performance has led to organizational level gains in service quality (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), workforce productivity (Whitman, Van Rooy, & Viswesvaran, 2010), organizational citizenship behavior (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Varca & James-Valutis, 1993; Whitman et al., 2010), customer satisfaction (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Parker et al., 2003), and profitability (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Harter et al., 2002; Parker et al., 2003; Whitman et al., 2010). From an education perspective, business schools leaders have sought to provide their graduate business students with a program experience that maximizes their short and long term career successes. A better understanding of the factors that lead to the career successes of their graduates could prompt

these business school administrators to review their candidate selection criteria, their curriculum, professional development and career coaching offerings. As business school administrators address these elements of their program, they could be in a better position to create a more self-aware, emotionally intelligent, path-bending brand of MBA leader, who would then be capable of making a more meaningful contribution to organizations and to society (Boyatzis, 2008; Lyons, 2012).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This literature review was designed to provide rationale for the research study and establish the groundwork for the models defined in Chapter 3. The review was divided into seven sections. The first section defines extrinsic and intrinsic career success, and why it matters to both organizations and individuals. From the organization perspective, the review of the literature connects job and career satisfaction to job performance and business unit outcomes. From the individual perspective, the literature review highlights relationships among job, career and life satisfaction. The second section provides a thorough definition for each of the dispositional variables that were central to the study: the five-factor model of personality, core self-evaluation, and emotional intelligence. The third section reviews individual predictors of career success including demographic, family structure, human capital, motivation, personality and intelligence. The fourth section identifies organizational predictors of career success including company demographics, compensation, talent development, and work environment factors. The fifth section explores the use of moderators in the career success literature, highlighting several of the variables mentioned in sections two and three. The sixth section focuses on research involving either core self-evaluation or extraversion as a moderator of outcomes directly and indirectly related to career success. The final section of this review focuses on emotional intelligence and its use as a moderator of outcomes related to career success. This chapter concludes with a summary of the extant literature to provide the theoretical rationale for the study through exploration of the moderating influences of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion on career success.

Section One - Career Success & Why it Matters

Career success was defined by Seibert and Kramer (2001) as the accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes resulting from one's work experiences. Researchers have typically categorized career success via extrinsic and intrinsic measures (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Extrinsic, or objective measures, are indicators of career success that can be seen and evaluated by others such as income, ascendancy or number of promotions, and occupational status (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007). Intrinsic, or subjective measures of career success, are those qualities generally associated with an individual's subjective assessment of their professional success, including an appraisal of their self-worth and capabilities, as well as overall job, career and life satisfaction dimensions (Chang et al., 2012; Judge et al., 1995).

Career success – the organizational perspective. From the organization's perspective, career satisfaction of its employees has been of dual significance. First, organizations are interested in the connection between employee satisfaction and employee attitudes such as motivation (Parker et al., 2003), organizational citizenship behavior (Whitman et al., 2010), turnover (Varca & James-Valutis, 1993) and individual-level productivity (Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1997; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Parker et al., 2003; Varca & James-Valutis, 1993; Whitman et al., 2010). The second, and related concern, is the direct link between employee satisfaction and the resultant impact on organization performance metrics such as customer service quality (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), customer satisfaction (Harter et al., 2002; Parker et al., 2003; Whitman et al., 2010) and profitability (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Harter et al., 2002; Heskett et al., 1997; Parker et al., 2003; Whitman et al., 2010).

Research related to the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee attitudes and performance has dated back to the Hawthorne studies from 1927-1932, and has

continued to attract significant interest from organizational scholars (Florence, 1941). More recent studies have provided evidence of the impact of job satisfaction on employee attitude. A 1985 meta-analytic review demonstrated a positive correlation between job satisfaction and performance ($r = .17$; Headey & Wearing, 1989). The Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) findings were subsequently called into question by a more recent investigation by Judge et al., (2001) which revealed that the correlation may actually be much stronger ($r = .30$). Later authors cited weaknesses of the Iaffaldano and Muchinsky study in which researchers used multiple correlations from the same sample (Judge et al., 2001). A meta-analytic study conducted by Harrison et al., (2006) showed that an employee's positive attitude and overall job satisfaction predicted contextual performance. Employee attitude and satisfaction have also been shown to predict negative behaviors such as lateness, absence, and turnover (Varca & James-Valutis, 1993). Specifically, overall job satisfaction has predicted a higher-order behavioral construct, defined as desirable contributions an employee makes to their work role, allowing them to make greater contributions, rather than withhold key inputs associated with their work roles (Varca & James-Valutis, 1993). Another meta-analytic study conducted in 2003 found that psychological climate, and an employee's perceptions of their work environment, had a significant relationship with the employee's work attitudes, motivation and overall performance (Parker et al.).

Scholars and organizations have not only been interested in the job satisfaction - job performance relationship, but also in whether or not this relationship could effectively predict organizational performance outcomes such as customer service quality (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), customer satisfaction (Harter et al., 2002; Parker et al., 2003; Whitman et al., 2010) and profitability (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Harter et al., 2002; Heskett et al., 1997; Parker et al., 2003; Whitman et al., 2010). Having highly satisfied employees has been good for individuals

within an organization, but how has such individual-level satisfaction translated into improved business outcomes? Customer service and customer satisfaction are critical elements of an organization's overall performance and profitability. Multiple studies have shown a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and customer service and satisfaction. A meta-analysis based on 7,939 business units within 36 companies found a positive relationship between overall employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction (Parker et al., 2003). In the study, employee engagement was also moderately correlated to customer satisfaction (Parker et al., 2003). Harter et al., (2002) also found relationships between employee engagement and productivity, and employee engagement and firm profitability ($r = .25$ and $r = .17$, respectively). Although significant, these correlations were weaker than the study's findings in relation to customer satisfaction ($r = .33$), which the researchers theorized may have been due to the fact that these outcomes are remote downstream variables that may also be influenced by other variables (Parker et al., 2003). A 2008 study of 206 service shops in Hong Kong found significant relationships between employee satisfaction and service quality, and between employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction ($r = .42$ and $r = .29$, respectively; Yee et al., 2008). The study also supported the relationship between customer satisfaction and firm profitability ($r = .27$; Yee et al., 2008). Yee et al., (2008) described a satisfaction-quality-profit cycle, where employee satisfaction led to improved customer service quality, which in turn influenced customer satisfaction, and by extension, financial gain for the organization. A more recent meta-analytic study provided further evidence of the significance of unit-level satisfaction and unit-level performance in relation to customer service (Whitman et al., 2010). That study demonstrated a significant link between unit-level satisfaction and unit-level productivity ($r = .35$; Meyer et al., 2002).

Career success – the individual’s perspective. From the individual’s perspective, career success stems from both extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Extrinsic career success has been positively associated with increases in pay, promotion and future opportunities – all of which have enabled an individual to improve their ability to provide financial security for themselves and their families. Income and satisfaction with pay have been shown to be positively associated with life satisfaction (Diener & Oishi, 2000; Judge & Locke, 1993). In a 1995 study, researchers showed a moderately strong correlation between one’s satisfaction with one’s finances, and life satisfaction in general (Diener & Diener). Financial resources have not only allowed individuals to satisfy their desire for material needs, but they have also served to protect their life satisfaction from environmental shocks (Johnson & Krueger, 2006). Intrinsic career success has been positively associated with subjective well-being and life satisfaction. A 1993 cross-sectional study showed a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, where both items appear to mutually influence each other (Judge & Locke). Advancing within one’s career has also been shown to improve one’s socio-metric status (the respect achieved in face-to-face groups) which then leads to increased feelings of power and social acceptance, and ultimately one’s subjective well-being (Anderson, Kraus, Galinsky, & Keltner, 2012). Increased power and prestige associated with career advancement have also been shown to correlate with general life satisfaction (Redman & Snape, 2005).

Section Two – Five-Factor Model, Core Self-Evaluation, Emotional Intelligence

The five-factor model of personality. The five-factor model of personality was defined as a hierarchical organization of five personality traits: neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (McCrae & John, 1992). First introduced as Norman’s Big Five, a significant amount of research has provided evidence of the robustness of

the five-factor model as a defined set of basic dimensions of personality, across a wide array of frameworks (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Research has also shown that the five-factor model of personality was relatively independent of cognitive ability measures (Barrick & Mount, 1991). A debate has remained among scholars regarding the precise meaning of the five-factors, and the potential inclusion of additional factors to encompass the full domain of personality, however there has been general consensus that the five-factor model is an essential construct that can be widely applied to both psychology theory and application (Barrick & Mount, 1991; McCrae & John, 1992).

The first dimension of the five-factor model is neuroticism. This term has been defined as the tendency to exhibit poor emotional adjustment leading to a negative affect such as anxiety, depression, vulnerability, insecurity, and hostility (Boudreau et al., 2001; McCrae & John, 1992). A lack of neuroticism has been defined in the literature as emotional stability. Individuals high in neuroticism have been described as anxious, tense, unstable, thin-skinned, moody, and overly self-conscious (McCrae & John, 1992). The second dimension of the five-factor model is extraversion. This dimension has been defined as the tendency to be assertive, outgoing, and sociable; thereby generating energy, zeal and enthusiasm (Boudreau et al., 2001; McCrae & John, 1992). Extraverts have often been described as active, energetic, expressive, gregarious, outgoing, and seekers of excitement and positive emotions from people and situations (McCrae & John, 1992). The third dimension of the five-factor model is openness to experience. Openness has been defined as the tendency to be imaginative, unconventional, original, and intellectually curious (Boudreau et al., 2001; McCrae & John, 1992). A person who has been described as open to experience would have a wide range of interests, would be introspective, and would place a high value on feelings, actions and ideas (McCrae & John, 1992). The fourth dimension

of the five-factor model is agreeableness. This dimension has been defined as one's tendency to be trusting, appreciative, sympathetic, compliant, generous and caring (Boudreau et al., 2001; McCrae & John, 1992). An agreeable person has been described as warm, compassionate, forgiving, modest, straightforward and altruistic (McCrae & John, 1992). The fifth and final dimension of the five-factor model is conscientiousness. The conscientious individual has often been described as efficient, organized, reliable, responsible, thorough, competent, self-disciplined, ethically grounded, able to delay gratification and possessing of a high level of aspiration without being self-indulgent (McCrae & John, 1992).

Core self-evaluation. Core self-evaluation – introduced by Judge, Locke and Durham in 1997 – has been defined as the “fundamental, subconscious conclusions individuals reach about themselves, other people, and the world” (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998, p.18). Core evaluations were derived from elements of eight literature subject areas including philosophy, psychology research and practice, social psychology, job satisfaction, stress, and personality (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998). Judge, Locke, et al., (1998) conceptualized core self-evaluation as a possible explanation of the dispositional source of job satisfaction. The construct proposes that one's evaluation of the external world is connected to both attributes of objects and one's desire for those objects, as well as deep assumptions one holds about oneself, others, and the surrounding world (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998). Judge, Locke, et al., (1998) argued that these assumptions would moderate the relationship between perceived work characteristics and job satisfaction, which would then broadly impact life satisfaction. Core self-evaluation is a broad personality construct comprised of four specific sub-facets: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998).

Self-esteem has been defined as the basic appraisal we make of ourselves, and the subsequent overall value we place on ourselves as a person (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998). Self-esteem has been connected to one's self-liking, self-respect, and self-acceptance (Judge et al., 1998). Self-esteem could fluctuate in the short-term but maintain long term stability (Harter, 1990). Individuals with high self-esteem have projected a clear, consistent and stable view of themselves (Judge, Erez, et al., 1998). This type of self-view has allowed these individuals to be rational in judgment, independent in thought, and possess the ability to act consistently on the basis of their sound judgment (Judge, Erez, et al., 1998). In contrast, those with low self-esteem have projected unclear and contradictory views of themselves (Judge, Erez, et al., 1998). This poor self-concept could lead to poor judgment such as the overgeneralization of the negative implications of failure (Brown & Dutton, 1995). Several studies have provided evidence that tied high self-esteem to job satisfaction, occupational prestige and income (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Piccolo, 2008; Locke, McClellan, & Knight, 1996).

Psychologist Albert Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy, a key tenet of Bandura's social cognitive theory, as one's judgments of how well one can succeed in specific situations. Judge, Erez, et al., (1998) extended Bandura's concept to a macro level, by defining generalized self-efficacy as "one's estimates of one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and course of action needed to exercise general control over events in one's life"(p.19). This concept represents a person's perception of their ability to perform across a wide range of situations (Judge, Erez, et al., 1998). Research has indicated that generalized self-efficacy is related to task performance, persistence and effort, self-control and effective problem solving (Bandura, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Individuals with high generalized self-efficacy have had

a strong belief in their capabilities, which has then yielded greater success in new endeavors and thus reinforced their initial assessment of their abilities (Judge et al., 1998).

Julian Rotter (1966) outlined locus of control as the degree of control individuals perceive they have over their own lives. Locus of control centers on one's own confidence in being able to control outcomes (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998). An internal locus of control has been described as the individual belief that life outcomes are contingent upon their own behavior (Rotter, 1966). This perceived ability to control situations has led those with internal locus of control to be more satisfied with their jobs (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998). Alternatively, an individual with an external locus of control believes luck, fate, chance or the behaviors of other powerful people have played a dominant role in their life outcomes (Rotter, 1966). Numerous research studies have explored the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction, motivation, effort and performance (Spector, 1982). A meta-analytic study showed locus of control accurately predicted job performance and job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001).

Neuroticism was one of the Big Five personality types and represented the negative pole of self-esteem (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998). This fourth element of core self-evaluation has sometimes been labeled with the contrasting terms of emotional stability or non-neuroticism in the core self-evaluation literature. Neurotic individuals are more likely to be insecure, timid, prone to anxiety, and susceptible to feelings of dependence and helplessness (Costa & McCrae, 1988). They have a tendency to exhibit poor emotional judgment which could manifest negative outcomes such as hostility, fear and depression (Goldberg, 1990). Neuroticism acts as a negative lens through which the world is viewed, causing neurotics to view themselves as victims (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998). These individuals tend to be less satisfied with themselves, others, their jobs, and their lives in general (Judge, Locke, et al., 1998). A meta-analysis of personality and

job performance studies found a correlation between emotional stability and job performance (Salgado, 1997).

Judge and Hurst (2006) core self-evaluation theory relied on four criteria in determining whether these four traits could be considered a higher order construct: convergent validity, lack of discriminant validity of core traits, discriminant validity relative to other traits, and incremental validity. The criteria of convergent validity sought to determine if the four core traits shared the requisite covariance to be considered a common concept (Judge & Hurst, 2006). A 2002 meta-analysis showed significant convergent validity among the four core self-evaluation traits, with an average correlation of .64 among the traits (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). Factor analyses demonstrated the four core self-evaluation traits to have been loaded on a common factor supporting the notion of a higher order construct (Judge & Hurst, 2006). A 2002 study conducted by Judge et al., along with Judge and Bono's 2001 meta-analysis review, showed the core self-evaluation traits displayed a lack of discriminant validity in terms of their correlations to job satisfaction, job performance and life satisfaction (Judge & Hurst, 2006). Some researchers have argued that core self-evaluation was not a new concept, but rather a broader view of the five-factor model personality traits (Schmitt, 2004). In order to have been considered a viable construct, core self-evaluation must have had discriminant validity relative to other traits, namely the five-factor model (Judge & Hurst, 2006). In a 2002 study, Judge et al., concluded that self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy and locus of control displayed equivocal support for discriminant validity in relation to the five-factor model. The most significant assessment required to determine the distinctiveness and usefulness of the core self-evaluation was incremental validity, or the confirmation that core self-evaluation predicted outcomes better than the isolated core traits or other measures such as the five-factor model (Judge & Hurst,

2006). Erez and Judge (2001) concluded that core self-evaluations consistently predicted motivation and performance, whereas the predictability of individual traits comprising the construct was inconsistent. A similar study in 2002 showed that the core self-evaluation construct was a better predictor of job and life satisfaction than the individual core traits (Judge, Erez, et al., 2002). In these studies, core self-evaluation predicted outcomes while controlling for some or all of the five-factor model personality traits, and provided essential incremental validity over the five-factor model (Judge & Hurst, 2006).

Hyper core self-evaluation. The review of core self-evaluation has thus far focused on the positive elements of core self-evaluation in relation to job performance, career advancing behaviors, and career success. Recent research has focused attention on potential associations between high levels of core self-evaluation, and narcissism and overconfidence, also known as hubris. Hiller and Hambrick (2005) defined this phenomenon as hyper core self-evaluation (hyper-CSE), and cited its adverse impact on the performance of the hyper-CSE executive. Hyper-CSE could hamper the objectivity of strategic judgment, causing these executives to create organizational strategies that served their own interests as opposed to those of the organization (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). This section of the literature review explores executive narcissism and hubris, how they could influence job behaviors and strategic decision making, and the potential link between hyper-CSE and these traits.

By definition, narcissism involves our feelings about ourselves, and how we regulate our self-esteem using these feelings (Lubit, 2002). Healthy narcissism has been defined as generated from secure self-esteem, and serving to shield one's self image from daily frustrations and stress (Lubit, 2002). The healthy brand of narcissism is necessary to productively relate with others, empathize, enjoy true friendships, and inspire confidence in those around you (Lubit, 2002).

Narcissists have been shown to have strong social skills and healthy doses of charisma, which facilitates the effective influence over others, and equips the narcissists for organizational leadership posts (Khoo & Burch, 2008). Narcissists also generate more leadership opportunities for themselves as they are more likely to self-nominate for challenging assignments (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006), and work harder when they assess that a successful outcome could lead to an opportunity for glory (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006; Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). They produce positive organizational effects from their ability to articulate a bold vision (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007), and then navigate through these major risks as needed in order to pursue those audacious change oriented goals (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; O'Connor, Mumford, Clifton, Gessner, & Connelly, 1995). These more audacious strategic initiatives, however, can also result in wild fluctuations in organizational performance (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007).

Destructive narcissism, unlike healthy narcissism, was defined as not deriving from high levels of self-confidence, but rather a reaction to a fragile self-esteem (Lubit, 2002). Destructive narcissism creates a number of unhealthy outcomes in organizational settings. Many of these outcomes are associated with the narcissist focusing on individual needs over organization or team needs (Lubit, 2002). Managers with destructive narcissism have been known to devalue and envy others, develop a grandiose self-image, and suffer a serious decline in functioning when under stress (Lubit, 2002). This type of manager exhibits a pattern of self-regulation that enhances the self at the direct expense of others, and their inflated self-perception most frequently occurs in areas involving status and power (Hoffman et al., 2013). Destructive narcissists view colleagues as inferior and often act in insensitive, hostile and self-enhancing ways (Judge, Piccolo et al., 2009). Narcissists also exhibit overconfidence, including overestimating their abilities and their success (Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004), and are often

unwilling to admit fault when appropriate (Campbell et al., 2004; de Vries & Miller, 1985).

Destructive narcissists typically will not realize their behavior caused problems for others, and if they were aware of this, they may not be concerned with the wake their behavior has left, thus compromising critical interpersonal relationships (Lubit, 2002).

As a result of the impact of destructive narcissism, there has been an emerging body of research that has identified some of the negative outcomes of narcissistic behaviors from leaders in organizations (Judge, Piccolo, et al., 2009). In two studies, destructive narcissistic managers were found to be more self-servicing, entitled, and more likely to allocate scarce resources to themselves than their humble counterparts (van Dijk & De Cremer, 2006). Research has shown a relationship between the destructive narcissistic leader and a lack of integrity (Blair, Hoffman, & Helland, 2008). Destructive narcissists have also neglected the functional requirements of leadership and the needs of people who work for them, potentially driving the most talented people out of the organization (Lubit, 2002). A recent study by Hoffman et al., (2013) showed that in highly ethical contexts, destructive narcissistic leaders were perceived as ineffective and unethical.

Hubris has been defined as excessive pride and an inflated self-confidence in an individual, leading to self-evaluations of their talent and ability that were far more favorable than any reasonable objective assessment would suggest (Judge, Piccolo, et al., 2009). This overconfident, inflated sense of self could cause these executives to make short sighted decisions for their organizations. This type of leader is more likely to be defensive when receiving critical feedback, or to discount information when it is in conflict with their bloated self-views, perhaps even going so far as to question the competence of the messenger in order to maintain their overconfident personal assessment (Judge, Piccolo, et al., 2009).

An executive's hubris could serve as a blind spot creating potentially negative outcomes such as paying a premium for large corporate acquisitions (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997), overvaluing of CEO or founder-developed strategies (Hayward, Shepherd, & Griffin, 2006), deviating the organization's strategy from the central tendencies of the industry (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997), introducing risky products (Simon & Houghton, 2003), and flawed decision making (Hayward et al., 2006; Hayward & Hambrick, 1997; Hiller & Hambrick, 2005; Judge, Piccolo, et al., 2009; Simon & Houghton, 2003). Reviewing a sample of 106 large corporate acquisitions, Hayward & Hambrick (1997) found that CEO hubris was highly associated with large premiums paid for acquisitions. The study showed that CEO hubris played a substantial role in the acquisition process and the decision of how much to pay for the acquisition and that the relationship between CEO hubris and acquisition premiums was stronger when vigilance from the organization's board of directors was lacking. The Hayward & Hambrick (1997) study also underscored the impact of CEO hubris on shareholders, showing that the larger the CEO's hubris, the greater the shareholder losses following an acquisition. A 2003 field study of high-technology firms showed that the presence of overconfident leaders was positively related to the degree to which the organization would launch pioneering or risky products (Simon & Houghton, 2003). This study's results suggested that managers should not rely on misplaced extreme confidence to justify the decision making process, as this could lead to resource over-commitment, an unwillingness to monitor key assumptions, and a failure to make critical adjustments when needed (Simon & Houghton, 2003).

Emotional intelligence. The first model of emotional intelligence was developed by Mayer and Salovey in 1990. Subsequently, a second model of emotional intelligence was developed by Daniel Goleman in 1995. The Mayer and Salovey definition of emotional

intelligence was as follows: “Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.5).

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004) divided emotional intelligence into four branches: the ability to perceive emotion, to use emotion to facilitate thought, to understand emotions, and to manage emotions. The first branch of emotional intelligence defines one’s ability to accurately identify and express emotions in one’s physical state, one’s thoughts and feelings, as well as one’s ability to do the same with the emotions in other people (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). This definition includes the recognition (nonverbal perception) of emotion in others’ facial expressions, voice and other communication channels (Mayer et al., 2004). Highly emotionally intelligent individuals are adept at evaluating emotion not only in themselves and others, but wherever it was expressed. This perception extended to artwork, pictures, language, architecture, etc. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotional intelligence theory suggests that there are certain universals of emotional expression that exist, and that people should be able to recognize them (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The first branch of the model also specifies that people have the ability to detect differences between honest or dishonest expression of feeling from others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

The second branch of the Mayer-Salovey emotional intelligence model involves using emotion to facilitate thinking in productive ways (Mayer et al., 2000). Emotions allowed a person to prioritize thinking by directing attention to important information, which can assist in judgment and memory concerning feelings toward said emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotions can also generate feelings that assist with planning by anticipating feelings that occur

if a particular action, or decision, is taken (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Mayer and Salovey (1997) described the second branch as an emotional theatre, where emotions are generated, felt, examined, and adjusted so they are better understood – thus this information can be used to improve decision making.

The third branch of the Mayer and Salovey (1997) emotional intelligence model entails understanding and analyzing emotions. The model refers to the ability to comprehend the relationship between emotions, transitions from one emotion to the next, and the effective labeling of emotions in words (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). It also involves one's ability to differentiate between similar emotions, such as pride and joy (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). Someone high in this particular emotional intelligence can understand relationships associated with shifts and changes in emotion (Mayer et al., 2000). An example of such a shift could be the transition from anger to shame (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). These individuals can recognize emotions, understand how they unfold, and reason about them in order to gain a comprehensive assessment of the impact of the changing emotions (Mayer et al., 2000). They can also accurately interpret complex feelings and simultaneous blends of emotion such as love and hate, or fear and surprise (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

The fourth branch in this model represents the highest level of emotional intelligence: the management and regulation of emotion (Mayer et al., 2000). This type of intelligence involves the management of one's own emotions and more important, the emotions of others (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). Effectively regulating one's emotions engenders emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Examples of effective management of emotion include the ability to stay open to both pleasant and unpleasant feelings, and the ability to engage or detach from an emotion depending on the utility of that expressed emotion in a given situation (Mayer

& Salovey, 1997). A high level of emotional intelligence in this branch enables one to manage emotions within oneself and in others, by moderating negative and accentuating positive emotions without misrepresenting or exaggerating these emotions, so as not to render the emotions inauthentic (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Mayer, Salovey and their colleagues have argued that their model of emotional intelligence meets the traditional standard of definition as an intelligence by having met three specific criteria: conceptual, correlational, and developmental (Mayer et al., 2000). The first criteria stated that an intelligence must have reflected mental performance versus preferred behavioral patterns, or non-intellectual attainments, and it must have described a set of related abilities that were similar, yet distinct from mental abilities already defined by established intelligences (Mayer et al., 2000). The second criteria required that emotional intelligence define a set of abilities that were inter-correlated, that they rise and fall in a similar fashion within the same person (Mayer et al., 2000). In a study conducted by Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000), 503 college student participants took the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) assessment. Each of the twelve tasks designed to distinctly measure specific emotional intelligence competencies within the four branches were proven to correlate positively with one another. The third criteria required that an intelligence must be able to develop with age and experience, from adulthood to childhood. The Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000) study aimed to support this criterion by comparing the performance of a group of young adolescents (ages 12-16) to the performance of the original study of 503 adult college students. The study results confirmed the authors' prediction that the adult group performed at a higher level versus the adolescent group. Mayer, Salovey and others have defended the validity of their model of emotional intelligence as having met the standard to be defined as scientifically legitimate

(Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000). Several different research studies have been conducted to define the validity of this model (Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008; Mayer et al., 2004; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

The second model of emotional intelligence reviewed for this study was developed by Daniel Goleman and Richard Boyatzis, and popularized by commercial books written by Goleman in 1995 (*Emotional Intelligence*), 1998 (*Working With Emotional Intelligence*), and 2002 (*Primal Leadership*). The Goleman model defined emotional intelligence as a “learned capability based on emotional intelligence that resulted in outstanding performance at work,” and was observed when a person demonstrated the competencies “that constitute self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills at appropriate times and ways in sufficient frequency to be effective in the situation” (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000, p.3). The Goleman emotional intelligence model originally defined twenty five competencies aligned into five clusters: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Boyatzis et al., 2000). Subsequently, the Goleman model was revised to cover eighteen competencies across four clusters: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

The first cluster of the Goleman model of emotional intelligence, self-awareness, is comprised of three competencies: emotional self-awareness, accurate self-awareness, and self-confidence (Goleman, 2000). Emotional self-awareness enables one to recognize one’s emotions and their effects, while accurate self-assessment entails the understanding of one’s strengths and limitations (Johnson, 2005). Leaders with high self-awareness are well connected to their inner emotions, and understand how their feelings impact them and their ability to perform. Leaders with high self-assessment exhibit a sense of humor about themselves and gracefulness in making

self-improvements (Goleman et al., 2002). Self-confidence has been defined as having a strong sense of self-worth and capabilities (Johnson, 2005). When a leader can accurately define their abilities, they can play to their strengths, welcome a difficult assignment, and often have a sense of presence and self-assurance that serves to highlight and showcase their abilities to others (Goleman et al., 2002).

Self-management is the model's second cluster, and is defined by six competencies: self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement, initiative, and optimism (Goleman et al., 2002). Emotional self-control involves managing one's emotions and impulses, and channeling them when necessary in productive ways, such as staying calm during a crisis or remaining strong and clear headed when dealing with a difficult situation (Goleman et al., 2002). Transparency in the Goleman model can be seen in leaders who live their values, have an authentic openness about their feelings, beliefs and actions, and are able to admit mistakes and confront unethical behavior directly (Goleman et al., 2002). Adaptability provides leaders with flexibility in dealing with changing situations and obstacles (Johnson, 2005). These leaders can adeptly manage multiple demands without losing focus, and they are comfortable with constant change and the ambiguity that naturally existed in organizations and in life (Goleman et al., 2002). The achievement competency pushes one to strive to make improvements, and the initiative competency requires one to proactively seize opportunities (Johnson, 2005). The final self-management competency, optimism, is defined as one's ability to always see issues as opportunities rather than a threat or challenge, and the tendency to see the best in others (Goleman et al., 2002).

The social awareness cluster is comprised of three competencies: empathy, organizational awareness, and service (Goleman et al., 2002). Empathy allows the high emotionally intelligent leader to understand others, and take an active interest in others' interests and concerns (Johnson,

2005). These leaders have a strong sense of emotional signals which enable them to decipher the felt, yet unspoken, emotions emitted by a person or group (Goleman et al., 2002). Organizational awareness involves one's ability to be politically astute with key networks and relationships, and therefore understand and manage through the political forces at work within the organization (Goleman et al., 2002). The service competency gives leaders an orientation that enables them to recognize and meet customer needs, and ensure their client facing teams do likewise (Johnson, 2005).

The final cluster of this model, relationship management, is defined by six competencies: inspiration, influence, developing others, change catalyst, conflict management, and teamwork and collaboration (Goleman et al., 2002). Inspiration is defined as the ability to create a common purpose, inspire others and move a team toward a shared vision (Goleman et al., 2002). Influence allows a leader to get buy-in from key players in the organization and persuade others to agree with them (Goleman et al., 2002). Leaders that developed others are natural mentors and show a genuine interest in understanding the colleagues' or subordinates' strengths and weaknesses, and how those fit into the goals they need to achieve (Goleman et al., 2002). Change catalysts initiate and manage change effectively, while those with high competency in conflict management excel at resolving conflict by understanding differing perspectives, acknowledging the feelings on both sides, and ultimately driving the energy of the group toward an acceptable shared goal (Boyatzis et al., 2000; Johnson, 2005). Teamwork and collaboration require one to build strong relationships and an atmosphere of respect, helpfulness, and cooperation which yields enthusiastic commitment from the team to work toward a shared goal (Johnson, 2005).

It is important to clarify that some researchers within the academic community have expressed a level of concern regarding the emotional intelligence construct. This concern has

been classified into a number of broad categories. There are those who have disputed the predictive validity of emotional intelligence as meeting the traditional standard definition for intelligence (Newsome, Day, & Catano, 1999). Others have found it difficult to accurately quantify the relevance of emotional intelligence as a unique construct beyond IQ and personality traits (Schulte, Ree, & Carretta, 2003). There have also been critiques of the assessment tools used to measure one's emotional intelligence, including the proprietary nature of the data collected by some of the emotional intelligence assessment tools which were not made available to researchers to validate its findings independently (Landy, 2005). Others have had concerns over the broad and inclusive nature of the concept itself (Locke, 2005). Finally, there have been those who believe that the multiple emotional intelligence models, and the multiple adjustments made to these models and measurements, have made it difficult to track (Landy, 2005).

Section Three – Individual Predictors of Career Success

Given the significance of career success for organizations and individuals, it has been important to gain a deeper understanding of the factors that influence career success. This section highlights several influential factors of career success stemming from the individual, including demographics (Judge et al., 1995), family structure (Aiken & West, 1991; Schneer & Reitman, 2002), human capital (Judge et al., 1995), motivation (Ng et al., 2005), personality (Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001;) and intelligence (Judge et al., 1999; Lopes et al., 2006).

Demographics. Many demographic variables such as age (Judge et al., 1995; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002) , gender (Booth, Francesconi, & Frank, 2003; Cox & Harquail, 1991; Judge et al., 1995), race (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Ng et al., 2005), and marital status (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005) have been shown to

influence different facets of extrinsic and intrinsic career success. A 1995 study of 1,388 executives demonstrated a positive correlation between compensation and age, gender, marital status, and spouse employment (Judge et al.). Although age has been positively linked with compensation, research has found that age may be negatively related to career satisfaction (Martins et al., 2002). This negative effect could result from individuals who focused on objective success being more likely to sacrifice time and family commitments at a younger age in order to earn more rapid career ascension and greater career satisfaction (Judge et al., 1995; Martins et al., 2002). According to a qualitative study on personal conceptions of career success held by male and female managers, women were more likely to define career success by intrinsic measurements rather than extrinsic qualities such as pay or status (Sturges, 1999). Unfortunately, this focus on intrinsic satisfaction may have partly contributed to pay inequities between men and women. A 1991 study of MBA graduates showed that women on managerial tracks received similar levels of promotion and career satisfaction, but encountered lower salary increases for these promotions (Cox & Harquail). A 2001 household panel survey made a similar discovery, showing that while full-time women were promoted at roughly the same rate as their male counterparts, they received smaller wage increases associated with their promotion, meaning they found “themselves stuck at the bottom of the wage scale for the new grade” (Booth et al., 2003, p.295). A 2012 meta-analysis of job performance found that while females scored slightly higher than males on job performance, ratings of promotion potential were higher for males (Roth, Purvis, & Bobko). This trend was consistent with the Judge et al., (1995) study which showed that after controlling for a number of factors, women and minorities had lower levels of objective career success than white men. Race has also played an important role in the career success equation. A 1990 study showed that in comparison to white managers, black managers

felt less accepted, received lower performance ratings, were more likely to reach career plateaus and experienced lower levels of career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al.). In a more recent meta-analysis study conducted in 2005, the data showed that employees reported higher salary if they were male, white and married (Ng et al.).

Family structure. Predictors associated with family structure have also been tied to career success. A 2002 study of MBA alumni over a 13 year period revealed that married men in traditional families, where the father was employed and the mother was not, were rewarded with higher levels of income and salary progression (Schneer & Reitman). In the Schneer and Reitman (2002) study, there was no family structure that allowed women to achieve career success comparable to their MBA alumni counterparts who were traditional family men. Results also showed that men with high levels of family commitment found their earnings adversely affected when compared to other men without the same family commitment level. Work-family conflict, defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect”, was strongly, negatively associated with career satisfaction according to a study of 975 managers in 2002 (p.77). Specifically, this study showed that the greater the level of work-family conflict experienced by the manager, the lower his personal career satisfaction (Martins et al., 2002). Similar results were obtained from a 1996 study of 111 entrepreneurs where family-to-work conflict decreased career satisfaction, and work-to-family conflict increased life stress ($r = -.26$ and $r = .51$, respectively; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk & Beutell, 1996). A 1993 study of 424 faculty members, at two universities, concluded that multiple role stress also had a negative association with intrinsic career success, as those faculty members who experienced high levels of multiple role stress had lower feelings of career success (Peluchette).

Human capital. Human capital factors such as quantity and quality of education (Judge et al., 1995), type of education (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005), work experience (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005) and job tenure (Judge et al., 1995) have also played a role in career success. Judge et al., (1995) demonstrated that executives who focused on developing their human capital were substantially more likely to achieve career success in the form of pay and promotions. In addition, this study also underscored the positive relationship between education and career success, citing a substantial earning gap between executives with a graduate degree and those with an undergraduate degree. The quality of the education experience, as defined by university prestige, was also found to be significant. The researchers theorized that this could have been a result of potential advantages associated with prestigious institutions such as teaching quality, student quality or influential networks. Ng et al., (2005) found a similar correlation between education level and career success ($r = .29$). The study also found a positive relationship, between work experience and career success ($r = .27$).

Motivation. There are numerous motivational factors that have been shown to influence career success such as ambition (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005), number of hours worked (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005), willingness to transfer or work internationally (Ng et al., 2005), and social capital strategies such as mentoring and networking (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Judge et al., 1995; McCrae & Costa, 1987; Ng et al., 2005; Peluchette, 1993; Sturges, 1999; Sturges, Guest, Conway, & Davey, 2002; Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991). Judge et al., (1995) showed a correlation between ambitious executives who displayed a focused desire to move forward in the organization and extrinsic career success in the form of pay and promotions. This study also showed that the executives who were ambitious for advancement worked more hours per week, made work a central part of their lives, and consequently, earned more than

other executives. Ng et al., (2005) showed meta-analytic support for a correlation between career success and ambition related factors such as number of hours worked per week, work centrality, and social capital. This study also found a significant relationship between pay and number of hours worked, work centrality, willingness to transfer, international work experience, career planning, and social capital. Additional studies have shown evidence of the impact of social capital strategies on career success. A 1991 study of 404 early career professionals found that career mentoring was related to extrinsic career success factors such as promotion and compensation, particularly for young managers from high socioeconomic backgrounds (Whitely et al.). A 2004 study of networking behaviors revealed that a professional's ability to increase their internal capital within an organization was significantly related to compensation, promotions and perceived career success (McCrae & Costa, 1987). This study also showed that gender impacted the utility of networking behavior as a career enhancing strategy, with men seeing a greater benefit from this strategy (McCrae & Costa, 1987). A 2002 longitudinal study of career management and organizational commitment concluded that graduates who successfully managed their careers received more formal career management support from their employer as a result of their networking skills, access to mentors, and the increased visibility resulting from these activities (Sturges et al., 2002). A 1993 study of 424 faculty members found that networking activities contributed to feelings of subjective career success (Peluchette). Ng et al., (2005) also found support in their meta-analytic study for the relationship between career success and self-promotion and political savvy, which could be defined as facets of effective networking within an organization. Judge and Bretz(1994) found that a supervisor-focused political tactic of ingratiation resulted in a higher level of career success over a more job-focused tactic of self-promotion, among graduates from two universities.

Personality. Personality traits, as measured by either the five-factor model of personality or core self-evaluation, has been shown in the literature to influence job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Boudreau et al., 2001; Salgado, 1997; Tett et al., 1991) and extrinsic and intrinsic career success (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge, Heller et al., 2002; Judge et al., 1999; Salgado, 1997; Tett et al., 1991; Wille, De Fruyt, & Feys, 2013). This literature review focused on the findings across both the five-factor model of personality and core self-evaluations in relation to extrinsic and intrinsic career success.

Five-factor model of personality. A 1991 meta-analytic study conducted by Barrick and Mount (1991) explored the relationship between each of the five-factor model personality dimensions to three job performance criteria across six occupational groups. This study showed that conscientiousness was a valid predictor of job performance for all occupational groups, while extraversion was a valid predictor of job performance for managers and sales representatives, the two occupational groups most likely to involve interpersonal skills (Barrick & Mount, 1991a). Extraversion was also shown to be a significant predictor of training proficiency across occupations (Barrick & Mount, 1991). A separate meta-analytic review, comprised of 494 studies, was conducted in 1991 and looked at the predictability of job performance from personality measures (Tett et al., 1991). In this study, there was an overall positive relationship between personality measures and job performance ($r = .24$; Tett et al., 1991). A third meta-analytical review of the five-factor model explored the personality dimensions relationships with job performance, defined by supervisor performance rating, training performance, and personnel data such as accidents, wages and absenteeism (Salgado, 1997). In the study, conscientiousness and emotional stability (i.e., a lack of neuroticism) were shown to be valid predictors of job performance for all three performance types (Salgado, 1997).

Extraversion was positively associated with job performance in the two occupation types where interpersonal skills were likely to be necessary and important (Salgado, 1997).

A longitudinal study conducted in 1999 sought to investigate the relationship between the five-factor model of personality and career success across a person's life span (Judge et al.). The results of the study showed that collectively, the five-factor model personality dimensions explained significant variance in both extrinsic and intrinsic career success (Judge et al., 1999). After accounting for general mental ability, the study showed that high conscientiousness was linked to intrinsic career success, while high extraversion, low neuroticism, low agreeableness, and high conscientiousness were linked with extrinsic career success (Judge et al., 1999). Additionally, knowledge or self-awareness of one's personality traits early in life was found to be an effective predictor of career success (Judge et al., 1999).

A 2001 study of personality and executive career success evaluated the relationship between the five-factor model of personality and a number of dimensions of extrinsic and intrinsic career success among executives in the U.S. and Europe (Boudreau et al.). Neuroticism was negatively associated with extrinsic and intrinsic career success for U.S. executives, while only negatively associated with intrinsic career success for European executives (Boudreau et al., 2001). Extraversion had little direct or indirect effect on extrinsic career success for U.S. executives, while for Europeans all of the direct effects and two of the three indirect effects on extrinsic career success were significantly and positively related to extraversion (Boudreau et al., 2001). Extraversion was positively associated with intrinsic career success for both U.S. and European executives, supporting prior research that indicated that extraverts have a general tendency to experience positive emotions (Boudreau et al., 2001).

Judge, Heller and Mount (2002) conducted a meta-analytic study that linked the five-factor model personality traits to overall job satisfaction. From 163 independent samples, the study showed that the five-factor model traits demonstrated a positive relation with overall job satisfaction ($r = .41$). Reviewing the five traits individually in relation to job satisfaction, the study provided correlations ($r = -.29$) for neuroticism, ($r = .25$) for extraversion, ($r = .17$) for openness to experience, and ($r = .26$) for agreeableness (Judge, Heller, et al., 2002). The study provided further evidence that the positive characteristics associated with extraversion allowed individuals to be happier in life in general, which supported a happier overall disposition in their jobs (Judge, Heller et al., 2002).

Core self-evaluation. Research studies have shown a positive relationship between core self-evaluation and job performance (Chang et al., 2012; Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001), career advancing behaviors (Chang et al., 2012; Erez & Judge, 2001; Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge & Scott, 2009), extrinsic career success (Judge 2009; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Stumpf & Tymon, 2012) and intrinsic career success (Chang et al., 2012; Judge, 2008; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge, Bono & Locke, 2000). Specific job performance factors included task performance, work commitment, motivation, job complexity, and goal commitment. Career success factors included extrinsic elements such as compensation, promotions and occupational status as well as intrinsic elements such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and life satisfaction.

Core self-evaluation has predicted a number of career advancing behaviors that could be broadly aligned with job performance. Judge and Bono's (2001) meta-analytic study showed a positive relationship between job performance and each of the four core self-evaluation traits, when using emotional stability in place of neuroticism. Core self-evaluations have also been

shown to be positively related to sales volume and rated performance within a regional division of a *Fortune 500* insurance industry company (Erez & Judge, 2001). In a study of 277 employees at a food services company, researchers showed a positive relationship between core self-evaluation and job performance (Judge, 2009).

One of the essential factors that have been shown to relate to task or job performance is work motivation. Judge, Erez and Bono (1998) surmised that core self-evaluation provided a crucial link to work motivation through an individual's bottom line assessment as to their capability and desire to accomplish a given task. For example, an individual high in core self-evaluation could view a specific work problem as manageable, within their control and scope of expertise, and concluded that with the right motivation and effort, it was solvable (Judge, Erez, et al., 1998). Conversely, the individual low in core self-evaluation could view the same work scenario in the opposite way (Judge, Erez et al., 1998). In a 2001 study, Erez and Judge linked motivation to job performance, revealing that core self-evaluation was related to the underlying motivation that drove performance. In the study, core self-evaluation was a stronger and more consistent predictor of goal-setting and job performance than any of the single core self-evaluation traits. In a 2010 study of students at a German university, individuals scoring high on the Core Self-Evaluation Scale (CSES) reported a higher importance level given to intrinsic work motivation factors (Bipp). A more recent meta-analytic study conducted by Chang et al., (2012) confirmed a positive relationship between core self-evaluation and goal level, work commitment, task performance and organizational citizenship behavior. The research supported the idea that high core self-evaluation employees would not only fulfill their own responsibilities, but they would also contribute to the well-being of the organization by helping

coworkers, promoting the company, and refraining from deviant behaviors that could harm the organization.

Additional career advancing behaviors have included goal setting, commitment, and overcoming adverse work scenarios or environments. Srivastava, Locke, Judge and Adams (2010) conducted two separate studies demonstrating that people with higher levels of core self-evaluation sought out higher level of complexity in their task, which in turn impacted their satisfaction with the task. Multiple studies have shown that individuals with high core self-evaluations sought goals that they valued, which in turn increased their motivation and likelihood that they would ultimately be successful in attaining that goal (Judge et al., 2005; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011). Judge et al., (2000) conducted two studies which concluded that job complexity was a key explanatory variable in the relationship between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction. Bipp (2010) demonstrated that people with high levels of core self-evaluation were attracted to enriched jobs with skill variety and task significance. A 2005 study of 859 health care employees showed that those low on core self-evaluation were at a greater risk for perceiving greater organizational constraints, becoming dissatisfied with their job, or ultimately burning out on the job, than those with high core self-evaluation (Best, Stapleton, & Downey). A 2009 meta-analytic review revealed that high core self-evaluation employees had fewer perceived stressors at work, less avoidance behaviors, more problem-solving behaviors, and lower strain at work (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott). Bono and Colbert (2005) conducted a longitudinal study that showed high core self-evaluation employees were more committed to developmental goals when there was a discrepancy between self and other evaluations. In contrast, low core self-evaluation employees were most committed when self and other evaluations were aligned. A large longitudinal study of unemployed workers showed that core

self-evaluation predicted persistence and intensity of the job search process (Wanberg, Glomb, Song, & Sorenson, 2005).

As has been outlined previously in this study, career success encompasses both intrinsic and extrinsic components. Extrinsic career success has been most commonly defined by income, ascendancy or number of promotions and occupational status (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007). Judge and Hurst (2007) explored the relationship between core self-evaluation and income for young individuals afforded the advantages of family socioeconomic status and academic achievement. They hypothesized that individuals with high core self-evaluation viewed situations more positively and would work harder to extract the benefits they had been afforded. The results concluded that young people with high core self-evaluation were better able to capitalize on the advantages, which translated into higher levels of income at the midcareer point. Judge, Hurst and Simon (2009) found via longitudinal data that core self-evaluations were positively associated with higher levels of income and lower levels of financial strain. Judge (2009) found a strong positive relationship between core self-evaluation and pay, early career job satisfaction and occupational status. In the study, core self-evaluation predicted the slope of time on both pay and occupational status, showing that those with high core self-evaluation gained pay increases and occupational prestige more rapidly. Stumpf and Tymon (2012) used a sampling of 638 working adults to show that core self-evaluations had a significant relationship with promotions.

Intrinsic career success has been defined as an individual's subjective assessment of their professional success, including the appraisal of self-worth and capabilities, and the overall satisfaction with their job, career, and life (Chang et al., 2012; Judge et al., 1995). Research has shown that the way people see themselves and the world around them affects how they

experience their jobs (Judge, Locke et al., 1998). Essentially, employees who believed they were worthy and capable of handling work and life challenges brought a positive frame to the scenarios they encountered at work (Judge, Locke et al., 1998). Those individuals who did not consider themselves worthy or capable brought a negative frame to the same scenarios (Judge, Locke et al., 1998). The Judge et al., (1998) meta-analytic study found a significant positive relationship between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction. Judge et al., (1998) concluded that employees who felt personally important saw their work as important too, which created a stronger sense of task significance and led to job satisfaction. A similar meta-analysis conducted by Judge and Bono (2001) indicated that each of the four core self-evaluation traits were strong dispositional predictors of job satisfaction. Judge, Bono and Locke (2000) showed that job complexity, or the attainment of challenging jobs, helped explain the nature of the relationship between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction. In the study, core self-evaluation had a significant relationship with job satisfaction in each of the four models tested. The Judge et al., (2005) study on goal self-concordance found that individuals with high core self-evaluation were more likely to pursue work goals for intrinsic, value centered reasons. Those individuals who elected to pursue and achieve goals that reflected feelings of intrinsic interest and identity alignment, over goals associated with guilt and external compulsion, would be happier and more satisfied with their jobs. A 2005 study involving health care employees showed that individuals with low core self-evaluation were more susceptible to perceived organizational constraints, and consequently, job burnout (Best et al.). Those with high core self-evaluation perceived fewer organizational constraints than their counterparts whose core self-evaluation was lower (Best et al., 2005). A study of 318 sales representatives, from a Japanese subsidiary of an American

pharmaceuticals company, replicated the positive relationship between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction in a non-US culture (Piccolo, Judge, Takahashi, Watanabe, & Locke, 2005).

As job satisfaction is focused on an employee's immediate emotional assessment of their current job, career satisfaction is a broader review of their satisfaction with past, present and future work history (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007). Many studies have focused on the relationship between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction, but fewer have focused specifically on the relationship between core self-evaluation and career satisfaction. The aforementioned studies connecting core self-evaluation with work attributes and behaviors could be linked to a subjective view of career success. Additionally, part of one's subjective assessment of career success could remain connected to objective components such as promotions. Stumpf and Tymon (2012) explored this relationship and discovered a strong influence of past promotions on a participant's core sense of self, as measured through core self-evaluations. They surmised that positive core self-evaluation would contribute to career advancement and be reinforced through advancement during one's career (Stumpf & Tymon, 2012). The study's conclusion aligned with a separate 2003 study that inferred that since core self-evaluation could be more malleable than most traits, it was possible that career success could positively impact one's self-concept (Bono & Judge, 2003). Judge and Hurst's (2008) study on core self-evaluation and career success showed that core self-evaluation predicted a number of extrinsic and intrinsic career success factors including early career satisfaction. The culmination of these positive connections allowed the high core self-evaluation professional to experience a "trend toward cumulative advantage" over the course of their career (Judge & Hurst, 2008, p.858). Early career satisfaction also led to an increase in educational attainment, contributing to individuals high in core self-evaluation earning even greater career success over a

twenty-five year period, in comparison to individuals with low core self-evaluation (Judge & Hurst, 2008).

Intelligence. An individual's intelligence, as measured by either general mental ability or emotional intelligence, has been shown in the literature to influence job performance (Cote & Miners, 2006; Hunter, 1986; Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Lopes et al., 2006; Schmidt & Hunter, 2004; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004), extrinsic career success (Judge et al., 1999; Judge et al., 2009) and intrinsic career success (Carmeli, 2003; Sy et al., 2006; Thiruchelvi & Supriya, 2009; Wong & Law 2002).

General mental ability. General mental ability has been shown to influence both job performance (Hunter, 1986; Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Schmidt & Hunter, 2004; Schmidt, Ones, & Hunter, 1992) and career success (Diener, 2000; Judge et al., 1999; Judge et al., 2009; Lounsbury, Gibson, Steel, Sundstrom, & Loveland, 2004). A meta-analysis of over 400 studies estimated the relationship between general cognitive ability and supervisor ratings (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). Hunter and Hunter (1984) found this relationship varied based upon job complexity, with a stronger association for high-complexity jobs ($r = .57$) and medium-complexity jobs ($r = .51$), in comparison to low-complexity jobs ($r = .38$). Hunter (1986) conducted a meta-analysis that found general cognitive ability had a strong positive relationship with both job knowledge and job performance. These meta-analytic findings proposed that most major cognitive skills are put to use every day at work. Judge et al., (1999) showed that general mental ability had a strong positive relationship to extrinsic career success, with intelligent children earning higher salaries and obtaining higher positions in their adult lives. Judge, Hurst and Simon (2009) identified a positive relationship between general mental ability and income and education attainment, which led to greater income potential. Lounsbury et al., (2004) found a

noteworthy relationship between general mental ability, career satisfaction and job type. In a study of 36 managers and 100 hourly employees, Lounsbury et al., (2004) showed that the correlation between general mental ability and career satisfaction was positive for managers ($r = .30$) and negative for hourly employees ($r = -.30$).

Emotional intelligence. This study's review focused on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance (Carmeli, 2003; Cote & Miners, 2006; Sy et al., 2006; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004), career advancing behaviors, and extrinsic and intrinsic career success. Specific career advancing behaviors that have been related to emotional intelligence include leadership effectiveness (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005), career commitment (Carmeli, 2003; Dries & Pepermans, 2007), team trust (Barczak et al., 2010; Carmeli, 2003), and managing upward (Sy et al., 2006). Specific career success measures associated with emotional intelligence have included extrinsic measures such as pay, company rank and merit increase (Lopes et al., 2006), entry level employability (Maynard, 2003), high potential identification (Dries & Pepermans, 2007), and job satisfaction (Austin, Saklofske, & Egan, 2005; Carmeli, 2003; Lopes et al., 2006; Poon, 2004; Sy et al., 2006; Thiruchelvi & Supriya, 2009; Wong & Law, 2002).

Business schools and corporate recruiters hiring graduate business talent seek to understand more of the characteristics that may lead to exemplary job performance and business unit performance. If research supported emotional intelligence as one factor in predicting job performance, then the notion that recruiters would seek to identify high emotionally intelligent candidates through the interview and job screening process would also be supported. A number of studies explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and both job performance and career advancing behaviors. A meta-analytic review performed by Van Rooy and

Viswesvaran (2004) examined 69 independent studies to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance outcomes. Their results showed that emotional intelligence measures had predictive validity to job performance comparable to the five-factor model of personality. The study also showed a higher correlation between emotional intelligence and work performance compared to the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance. A 2002 study explored multiple effects of both leader and follower emotional intelligence on job performance, job attitude and job satisfaction (Wong & Law). The results showed that follower emotional intelligence was correlated with both job performance ($r = .21$) and job satisfaction ($r = .40$), while the emotional intelligence of the leader displayed a significant effect on extra-role behaviors of subordinates (Wong & Law, 2002). A 2003 study of senior managers in the public sector showed that emotionally intelligent leaders performed their jobs better than their counterparts with lower emotional intelligence competencies (Carmeli). A study conducted in 2006 showed that the association between emotional intelligence and job performance became more positive as cognitive intelligence decreased, highlighting the significance of emotional intelligence for both task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (Cote & Miners, 2006). This study cautioned the usage of cognitive intelligence tests alone to predict performance, as the results indicated that employees with low cognitive intelligence could perform effectively if they had high emotional intelligence (Cote & Miners, 2006). A study of 187 food service employees from different locations of the same restaurant franchise found that employees' emotional intelligence was positively associated with both performance and job satisfaction (Sy et al., 2006). These results were consistent with previous research that employees with high emotional intelligence were more aware of how their emotions could influence behavior and were more skilled at regulating emotions in a way that

supported the task at hand (Sy et al., 2006). The study also surmised that employees with high emotional intelligence were better able to manage upward, thereby improving their relationship with their supervisor, and thus making it more likely that their supervisor would evaluate their performance favorably (Sy et al., 2006).

Emotional intelligence has also been linked to a number of career advancing behaviors which can have an indirect impact on performance, satisfaction, and career success. Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) measured the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness among 41 executives from a large Australian Public Service organization. The results of the study showed that emotional intelligence was related to a leader's effectiveness in achieving organizational goals by obtaining higher performance ratings, and thereby predicting effective leadership. The Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) study also suggested that while an executive may need a high IQ to obtain a senior leadership position, once obtained, IQ alone did not discriminate between the best and worst performing leaders. Dries & Pepermans (2007) sought to identify the potential relationship between emotional intelligence and high potential in managers, hypothesizing that high potentials had high levels of emotional intelligence and learning agility. Their study compared 51 high potential and 51 regular managers and matched them together based upon gender, age, and managerial level. The results of the study showed that some of the emotional intelligence subscales such as assertiveness, independence, optimism, flexibility, and social responsibility differentiated high potential from regular managers. All subscales of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) survey used, except for adaptability, were found to be significantly related to career commitment which also supported the high potential manager nomination. A 2003 study of senior managers in the public sector showed that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with altruistic behaviors and high career

commitment (Carmeli). A recent study conducted by Barczak, Lassk and Mulki (2010) supported the theory that team emotional intelligence promoted team trust, in turn fostering a collaborative culture that drove creativity within the team. The study reinforced the significance of screening for emotional intelligence for positions that involved substantial teamwork.

More directly, management literature has also provided support for a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and both extrinsic and intrinsic career success outcomes. The results of a study conducted in 2006, with 44 analysts and clerical employees at a Fortune 400 insurance company, demonstrated that emotional intelligence was a factor in enabling people to nurture relationships at work, work effectively in teams, and build social capital (Lopes et al., 2006). The study also concluded that emotional intelligence increased work performance by enabling people to regulate their emotions in order to deal with stress, perform under pressure and adjust to change within the organization (Lopes et al., 2006). These career advancing behaviors led to increased job performance, higher interpersonal ratings, and extrinsic career success measures such as salary, percent merit increases and company rank (Lopes et al., 2006). The study also controlled for other predictors of work performance, such as extraversion and age, to ensure that the associations found were not caused by third variables (Lopes et al., 2006). Carmeli (2003) found a positive correlation between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and high career commitment among senior executives studied. Thiruchelvi & Supriya (2009) conducted a study to test the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among white collared employees in the petroleum industry. The results of their study showed a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction at both low and mid-grade roles, across both male and female employees. Maynard (2003) identified a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and perceived entry level employability through

feedback from internship hosts of 77 college juniors and seniors. His study showed that the students who scored high on emotional intelligence were more likely to be offered a permanent entry-level position by the host organization, underscoring the notion that academic skills alone were not likely to assure entry level employment for college graduates. Wong and Law (2002) concluded that emotional intelligence was positively related to both job performance and job satisfaction. In terms of job satisfaction, the study showed that emotional intelligence had a strong positive effect on satisfaction, regardless of the nature of the job performed.

Section Four - Organizational Predictors of Career Success

Organizational predictors of career success have included factors such as company demographics (Judge et al., 1995), compensation (Green & Heywood, 2008; Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Rich, 2010), talent development (Ng et al., 2005), and work environment factors (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; McCrae & Costa, 1991; Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1982; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). According to Judge et al., (1995), executives who worked in small companies, in successful organizations, or in publicly trading companies earned higher compensation and more promotions. Green and Heywood (2008) found that performance-related pay is positively associated with overall satisfaction, satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with job security. The study provides support for the idea that performance-related pay increased opportunities for employee optimization. A Judge et al., (2010) meta-analysis on the relationship between pay and job satisfaction found a relationship between pay and job satisfaction ($r = .15$) and pay and pay satisfaction ($r = .23$). Ng et al., (2005) showed that an organization's investment in their human talent through development opportunities positively impacts career success of their sponsored employees. Ng et al., (2005) found that both career sponsorship and skill development opportunities had a positive relationship with career success

($r = .22$ and $r = .24$, respectively). An organization's investment in human talent could include a culture of mentoring. Whitely et al., (1991) found a positive relationship between career mentoring and extrinsic career success measures of compensation and promotion rate ($r = .13$ and $r = .19$, respectively). Work environment factors included how a person fits within a particular organization, their overall perceptions of the work environment, and the degree of flexibility provided by the organization in terms of work schedules, work independence and autonomy. A meta-analytical review of 172 studies showed a strong correlation between person to job fit and satisfaction and person to job fit and organizational commitment ($r = .56$ and $r = .47$, respectively; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Kristof-Brown et al., (2005) found similar results in relation to person to organization fit and job satisfaction ($r = .44$), person to organization fit and organization commitment ($r = .51$), and person to supervisor fit and job satisfaction ($r = .44$). These relationships highlighted the significance of multiple types of fit on employee satisfaction.

A meta-analytic study of 121 independent samples showed that psychological climate perceptions were related to employees' work attitudes, well-being, motivation and performance (Parker et al., 2003). The relationship between psychological climate perceptions and intrinsic factors such as satisfaction, commitment and job involvement was stronger than the relationship between these climate perceptions and job performance (Parker et al., 2003). Podsokoff, Todor and Skov (1982) showed a positive relationship between leader contingent reward behavior and both subordinate performance and work satisfaction. Scandura and Lankau (1997) examined the relationship between flexible work hours, organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Their study found that women who worked for organizations with flexible work hours reported higher levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction than women who did not have work

schedule flexibility. Flexible work hours were also found to increase organizational commitment and job satisfaction among employees with family responsibilities. A 2005 study found a curvilinear relationship between telecommuting and job satisfaction, suggesting that telecommuting had a positive relationship with job satisfaction to a point, with that relationship becoming slightly negative at more extreme levels of telecommuting (Golden & Veiga). Spector (1986) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the relationship between job autonomy and job satisfaction and found that high levels of perceived control of one's job was positively associated with job satisfaction. The same study showed a positive relationship between job autonomy and job commitment, involvement, performance, and motivation, and a negative relationship between role stress, absenteeism, and turnover (Spector, 1986).

Section Five - Moderators of Career Success

Prior research has identified a number of factors that have moderated the relationship between certain variables and career success. This segment of the literature review outlines several of these moderating variables, organized into three sections. The first section reviews moderators of the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. The next section reviews individual moderating variables that impact career success. The final section reviews organizational moderating variables that impact career success. Personality and intelligence moderating variables were reviewed in subsequent sections of this literature review.

Moderators of job performance and job satisfaction. Examining the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction, researchers found this relationship to be stronger when moderated by a work environment where rewards were linked to performance (Podsakoff & Williams, 1986). Stumpf and Rabinowitz (1981) studied 102 full-time faculty members across three career stages and discovered that an individual's career stage served as a moderator of the

relationship between job performance and both job satisfaction and role perception. Judge et al., (2001) showed that the performance-satisfaction correlation was considerably stronger in jobs marked by a high degree of complexity. A 2007 study of 109 managers of a U.S. based customer service organization showed that personal well-being moderated the performance-satisfaction relationship (Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett). Researchers found, across two different studies, that affective-cognitive consistency was a significant moderator of the job satisfaction-performance relationship (Schleicher, Watt, & Greguras, 2004).

Individual moderators of career success. Individual level career success moderators include gender, age, race, education level, cultural difference and motivation. Gender has been shown to moderate career success in multiple studies (Forret & Dougherty, 2004, Martin et al., 2002, Ng et al., 2005, Stumpf & Tymon, 2012). Stumpf and Tymon (2012) found that gender moderated the relationship between past extrinsic career success, such as pay and promotion, and current intrinsic career success such as job satisfaction, showing a stronger positive relationship for men. Forret and Dougherty (2004) identified a positive relationship between networking behavior and career success among managerial employees. This study also showed that networking behavior was more beneficial for career progress for men than for women (McCrae & Costa, 1987). Ng et al., (2005) found that the relationship between education, hours worked and salary were stronger for women than for men, potentially signifying that women may have to do more than men to succeed extrinsically. Martin, Eddleston and Veiga (2002) showed that the negative relationship between work-family conflict and career satisfaction was stronger for women than men. Gender and race served as moderators to the relationship between changing employers and compensation attainment among MBA graduates, with only white males earning a pay premium associated with changing employers (Dreher & Cox, 2000). The Martin et al.,

(2002) study also found that age moderated the work-family conflict and career satisfaction relationship, with career success of older individuals being more adversely affected by work-family conflict. A 2009 longitudinal study of personality and career success showed that age moderated the relationship between income and extraversion, with the positive impact of extraversion on income diminishing over time (Sutin et al., 2009). Organizational tenure was found to moderate the relationship between job performance and several facets of job satisfaction, including overall satisfaction, satisfaction with work and satisfaction with supervision (Norris & Niebuhr, 1984). Career stage was found to moderate the positive relationship between job promotion and job satisfaction, with a stronger association in the advancement phase, defined as greater than two years and less than 10 years in the profession (Stumpf & Rabinowitz, 1981). Judge et al., (1995) found that university prestige moderated the relationship between education obtained and compensation level, with individuals who obtained their degrees from highly recommended universities earning considerably more over the course of a 20-year career. Affective-cognitive consistency of job attitude was found to moderate the job satisfaction-job performance relationship (Schleicher et al., 2004). On the opposite end of the spectrum, Judge and Locke (1993) showed that dysfunctional thoughts, such as dependency on others to determine self-worth, belief that perfection must be achieved for task mastery and broad negative overgeneralization strongly moderated the relationship between subjective well-being and job satisfaction. Gabel, Dolan and Cerdin (2005) conducted a study that looked into the success of international managers working on overseas assignments and found that the extent of cultural differences between home and host country moderated the impact of emotional intelligence on the adjustment period for the expatriates. In a 2010 study of professional fundraisers, researchers found that the relationship between core self-evaluation and performance

was strengthened by pro-social motivation, agreeableness and duty (Grant & Wrzesniewski). In the study, this moderating relationship was found across all three tested dimensions of performance, defined as contacts made, supervisor ratings of initiatives and financial productivity (Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010).

Organizational moderators of career success. Moderators of direct and indirect (i.e. – job performance) measures of career success related to the organization have included factors related to the work environment, such as autonomy, reward structure, job environment, leadership style of the manager, and diversity climate. Barrick and Mount (1993) showed that autonomy played a moderating role on the relationship between the five-factor model of personality traits and job performance. In this study, the degree of autonomy provided on the job positively impacted supervisor ratings of job performance, with the strength of the relationship between both conscientiousness and extraversion on job performance increased for managers with jobs high in autonomy (Barrick & Mount, 1993). A 1996 study of 152 sales representatives showed that explicit reward structures moderated the relationship between extraversion and sales performance (Stewart, 1996). Seibert and Kramer (2001) showed that a people-oriented job environment moderated the relationship between agreeableness and salary. In this study, a negative relationship between agreeableness and salary emerged among people in jobs that had a strong people-oriented focus, while there was no relationship between these variables for people in jobs with a weaker people-oriented focus. Kacmar et al., (2009) showed that the relationship between core self-evaluation and job performance was moderated by both organizational politics and high perceptions of leader effectiveness. In each case, the positive relationship between core self-evaluation and job performance was shown to be stronger when the perceptions of leader effectiveness were favorable and the perceptions of organizational politics were low. A 2010

study found that the leadership style of a manager moderated the relationship between emotional valence of the leader and follower perception of leadership effectiveness (Connelly & Ruark, 2010). Connelly and Ruark (2010) showed that the relationship between emotional intelligence and follower satisfaction, leader evaluations, and task performance was moderated by the leader's activating potential. When a leader's positive emotions were combined with high activation potential, desirable employee outcomes increased in comparison to leaders with low activation potential. A study conducted of 6,130 workers across 743 retail stores showed that diversity climate moderated the mean racial-ethnic differences in employee sales performance (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008). McKay et al., (2008) found that racial-ethnic differences disfavoring Black and Hispanic sales employees over White sales employees were largest in stores with less supportive diversity climates.

Section Six - Personality Moderators of Career Success

This section of the literature review focuses on examples of personality factors that have been found in the literature to moderate extrinsic or intrinsic career success. Primary attention was given to research studies involving extraversion and core self-evaluation and as moderators of relationships involving either job performance or career success.

Extraversion as a moderator of career success. The five-factor traits have served as moderators to a select number of studies involving job performance, a condition indirectly related to career success. Given this study's focus on the five-factor model trait of extraversion, this review of prior research centered on studies involving extraversion as the moderating variable. A 2006 study involving 116 senior executives concluded that extraversion moderated the relationship between Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and performance (Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006). In this study, Bauer et al., (2006) showed that for introverted

executives, having a high-LMX relationship was critical to high performance, whereas the extraverted executive's performance was not related to their LMX relationships. In exploring various facets of the anger-performance relationship among athletes, researchers showed that extraversion moderated this relationship, as an extraverts' peak performance was shown to increase when angry (Woodman et al., 2009). Extraversion was found to moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance, with extraversion positively related to job performance for the highly conscientious worker and negatively related to job performance for the low-conscientious worker (Witt, 2002).

Core self-evaluation as a moderator of career success. Core self-evaluation has served as a moderator to a select number of studies involving direct and indirect (i.e. – job performance) measures of career success. A 2007 study of core self-evaluation and income showed that core self-evaluation moderated the relationship between income and multiple early career advantage variables such as higher socioeconomic status, parental education, and educational attainment (Judge & Hurst). Specifically, individuals with high core self-evaluation were found to capitalize on these early career advantage factors in the form of increased income, while those with low core self-evaluation were unable to translate these same advantages into extrinsic career success (Judge & Hurst, 2007). A 2013 study that drew from a sample of 289 police officers and staff found that core self-evaluation moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout, with core self-evaluation serving as a buffer to reduce the impact of work-family conflict for those with high core self-evaluation (Haines et al., 2013). A 2011 study of frontline service employees found that core self-evaluation moderated the relationship between exhaustion and job performance, with high core self-evaluation serving to reduce the negative effects of exhaustion on job outcomes (Karatepe). Researchers found that core self-evaluation moderated

the relationship between job attitude and organizational citizenship behavior, as this relationship was stronger for those high in core self-evaluation (Bowling, Wang, & Li, 2012).

Section Seven - Intelligence Moderators of Career Success

This section of the literature review focuses on studies where general mental ability or emotional intelligence serves as a moderator to studies involving direct or indirect measures of career success.

General mental ability as a moderator of career success. The research literature has shown general mental ability can operate as a moderating factor on studies involving direct and indirect measures of career success. A 2001 study found that the relationship between social skill and overall job performance was stronger among employees high in general mental ability, as opposed to those low in general mental ability (Ferris, Witt, & Hochwarter, 2001). A recent study of 130 early career stage graduates found that general mental ability moderated the relationship between three of the five-factor model personality traits (conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) and career success as defined by both salary and satisfaction (de Haro, Castejón, & Gilar, 2013). Wright, Kacmar, McMahan and Deleeuw (1995) showed that cognitive ability moderated the relationship between an employee's achievement need and their job performance. In this study, achievement need is positively related to job performance for those high in cognitive ability and negatively related for those low in cognitive ability. In a study of technical service consultants, job-relevant ability moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Varca & James-Valutis, 1993). Therefore, those employees that had both high levels of job satisfaction and cognitive ability earned significantly higher performance ratings than their counterparts with the same level of job satisfaction but a lower level of job relevant ability (Varca & James-Valutis, 1993).

Emotional intelligence as a moderator of career success. Emotional intelligence has served as a moderator in a few studies involving direct and indirect measures of career success. A 2004 study of 205 college students found that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between conscientiousness and work performance (Douglas et al.). The students high in conscientiousness without complementing emotional intelligence capabilities were unable to perform at the same level as their peers high in emotional intelligence (Douglas et al., 2004). A study of graduate business students from three Malaysian universities found that emotional perceptions had a strong moderating effect on the relationship between career commitment and salary (Poon, 2004). In other words, the relationship between career commitment and salary level was contingent upon the emotional intelligence of the graduate student, pointing to the idea that objective career success was not simply based upon career commitment (Poon, 2004). A recent study involving nurses in South Africa found that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between job stress and burnout with high emotional intelligence diminishing the onset of burnout when chronic stress exists (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012). In a 2012 study involving 212 Chinese high school teachers, emotional intelligence had a moderating effect on the work-family conflict and job satisfaction relationship, with high emotional intelligence weakening the effect of work-family conflict on job satisfaction (Gao, Shi, Niu, & Wang, 2013).

Section Eight - Summary

This study's literature review was designed to define a framework that supported the purpose for the research conducted. A definition of extrinsic and intrinsic career success, and a rationale for understanding why career success is important to both organizations and individuals was provided. Individual and organizational factors known to influence career success, including

the three central moderating variables of this study, extraversion, core self-evaluation and emotional intelligence were outlined. Known moderators of the career success literature were identified, including moderators of the job performance – job satisfaction relationship, as well as moderators derived from the individual and the organization. A deep analysis of the central dispositional variables was conducted, both in defining these respective constructs, and in exploring the literature where these variables previously served as moderators. The final section of this literature review identified the need and rationale for this study by defining how its findings would add to our understanding of how core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion interact with one another to influence career success.

Multiple studies have linked a number of individual and organizational predictors to various dimensions of job performance or career success. Additional studies have shown a relationship between core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion with various dimensions of job performance or career success. In many of these studies, there have been moderating variables that have influenced the strength of the relationship between job performance, career success and other factors. In other studies, core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion have served as moderators of studies on job performance. Only a select few studies, however, have explored core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence or extraversion collectively as moderators of career success.

Given the close association between performance and extrinsic career success in the form of promotions and greater pay, as well as relationships between satisfaction and intrinsic career success, it was surprising that research scholars had overlooked what appeared to be promising opportunities to investigate the moderating influences of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence or extraversion on career success. This study sought to advance our understanding of

these factors by hypothesizing how they might interact with one another to influence career success of master's level business graduates. Through this research, this study added to the existing literature on the multitude of factors that impact career success. It also provided a direct assessment of these moderating effects within a sample of master's level business graduates, thereby adding to the knowledge surrounding graduate business education and career success. The answers to the hypothesized questions conveys important insight to business schools, and provides the opportunity to impact their admission criteria strategies, curriculum design advancements, and professional development initiatives.

Chapter Three: Methods

Measuring and understanding the variables that influence extrinsic and intrinsic career success continue to be of significant interest to both scholars and organizations. Discovering connections between career success and employee motivation, performance, and satisfaction, along with unit level performance outcomes such as customer satisfaction, productivity and profit, would hold great value to organizations as they attempt to take care of both their human talent and the bottom line (Ng et al., 2005). Individually, core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion have all been found to predict intrinsic and extrinsic career success. This study intended to advance the understanding of the drivers of career success, by exploring the moderating relationships between core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion in relation to career success of master's level business graduates. This chapter outlines the methodology that was employed to conduct this study including reframing the research questions and hypotheses, defining data sources, analysis units, data gathering instruments and their validity and reliability, data gathering procedures, data analysis, and plans for IRB submission.

Research Questions

This study sought to determine how core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion interact with one another and influence extrinsic and intrinsic career success of master's level business graduates. Thus, the following research questions framed the study:

1. Will emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic success factors such as pay and promotion?
2. Will emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic success factors such as job, career and life satisfaction?

3. Will extraversion moderate the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success such as job, career and life satisfaction?
4. Will extraversion moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and extrinsic career success such as pay and promotion?

Hypotheses

In relation to the research questions above, the following hypotheses were established for this study:

1. The relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success will be moderated by emotional intelligence such that those individuals higher in emotional intelligence will display greater extrinsic career success compared to those lower in emotional intelligence.
2. The relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success will be moderated by emotional intelligence such that those individuals higher in emotional intelligence will display greater intrinsic career success compared to those lower in emotional intelligence.
3. The relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success will be moderated by extraversion such that those individuals higher in extraversion will display greater intrinsic career success compared to those lower in extraversion.
4. The relationship between emotional intelligence and extrinsic career success will be moderated by extraversion such that those individuals higher in extraversion will display greater extrinsic career success compared to those lower in extraversion.

Description of the Research Methodology

The research methodology involved gathering data by way of a one-time electronic survey. The population of interest was comprised of those individuals who have completed master's level, graduate education at a business school within a large Southeastern university. Specifically targeted were those individuals for whom there was archival data. The existing archival data included an assortment of individual difference variables such as personality, and group-level contribution and performance. 4,790 graduates were surveyed and a total of 534 graduates successfully completed the survey, which provided sufficient data to test the hypotheses. All analysis was quantitative in nature.

The survey was delivered by email through Qualtrics' mailer function to currently known and former (*name*@school.Edu) email addresses. The survey included three individual difference variables (extraversion, core self-evaluation and emotional intelligence) and an assortment of demographic and pseudo-demographic items known in the literature to influence career satisfaction. Examples of these items were marriage, gender, age, time with organization, position tenure, international experience and promotion history. Valid survey responses were matched to archival data by way of unique personal identifiers.

The data collection process spanned a one month period. This timeframe included the initial survey invitation as well as follow up survey reminders. Participants also had the option of opting-out from future correspondence.

Process for the Selection of Data Sources

Over the past several years, researchers at the participating institution had been collecting individual difference data as part of classroom instruction and student feedback. The majority of this data was collected as part of the curricula of graduate level negotiations and organizational

behavior courses, across multiple masters programs. These data included the five-factor model of personality, core self-evaluations and a variety of context-specific inter-individual ratings such as group-level contribution and performance. Graduates of advanced business programs for whom such archival data is available served as the target population and from whom additional survey data was requested.

After coding the survey responses, this set was matched by unique identifiers with the archival data. This matching process occurred in JMP (version 11) by way of the *join* function. Because several students may have participated in both a negotiations course and an organizational behavior course in which data was collected, a frequency count of the unique identifiers revealed duplicate entries. Such evidence was examined to determine whether the same individual difference data was obtained and if so, whether the response sets were similar. Frequency counts of the nominal unique identifiers pre and post-matching ensured no duplication of entries occurred consequential of the join function, and that there were no missing matches for which a match was available. All personally identifiable information was recoded or destroyed prior to analysis.

Definition of Analysis Unit

The techniques generally focus on linear trends; however, the focus of this investigation was at the individual-level unit of analysis. In addition, certain aggregation occurred in the post-hoc probing of significant interactions. As per recommendations put forth by Aiken et al., these groups were composed of individuals who are one standard deviation above and below the mean in traits or constructs comprising the significant interaction (Aiken & West, 1991).

Definition of Data Gathering Instruments

The vast majority of variables collected were treated as controls. The inclusion of these variables was based on findings from prior research grounded in the career success literature. Examples of these controls included salary and promotion history (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Judge & Bretz, 1994), age (Gattiker & Larwood, 1989), marriage (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Pfeffer & Ross, 1982), gender (Carlson & Swartz, 1988; Gerhart & Milkovich, 1987), position tenure (Cox & Harquail, 1991), international experience (Kets de Vries & Mead, 1992), hours worked per week (Cox & Cooper, 1989), and organizational size (Carlson & Swartz, 1988; Cox & Cooper, 1989; Cox & Harquail, 1991; Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Gattiker & Larwood, 1989; Gerhart & Milkovich, 1987; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Kets de Vries & Mead, 1992; Pfeffer & Ross, 1982). It should be noted that because many of these controls are simple one-question measures, alpha reliabilities could not be estimated. Furthermore, several of these questions involved binary outcomes and were coded as such. Continuous outcomes were left as continuous so as not to reduce the portion of available variance that remains to be explained. Continuous variables were mean-centered so as to reduce multicollinearity, provide interpretable and meaningful intercepts, and so that instances of moderation would pertain to those individuals whose values on other variables are at the mean. The dependent variable salary was log transformed. All other dependent variables were not modified.

Validity and Reliability of Data Gathering Instruments

All of the data gathering instruments were established measures within the management literature. There was no development of a new scale and there was not an adaptation of scales for the purposes of this research. Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen developed a 12-item scale entitled the Core Self-Evaluation Scale (CSES) in 2003 (Judge et al., 2003). Judge et al, established and

met a series of necessary conditions to define the validity of the CSES, and validated their work through four independent samples – two field studies and two university samples (Judge et al., 2003). First, the CSES was a reliable measure in terms of internal consistency, test-retest reliability and inter-source agreement (Judge et al., 2003). The CSES assessed a single dimension construct, displaying strong correlations with each of the four core self-evaluation traits, and showed empirical validity in correlating with job satisfaction, job performance and life satisfaction (Judge et al., 2003). Additionally, the CSES proved useful in predicting these criteria compared to the four central core self-evaluation traits, and showed incremental validity in predicting the above criteria while controlling for other related traits such as conscientiousness and extraversion (Judge et al., 2003). In 2006, Gardner and Pierce examined and compared the CSES with a more composite measure of the four core self-evaluation traits, and found that both measurements performed well (Gardner & Pierce, 2010). While the composite measure, which included 34 items, correlated more strongly than the 12-item CSES, they concluded that the CSES is likely to be more practical in organizational research, particularly when participant time is limited (Gardner & Pierce, 2010). The CSES asks respondents to rate (using a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Agree and 5 = Strongly Disagree) the extent to which certain phrases apply to themselves. Example items include ‘I am confident I get the success I deserve in life,’ ‘Sometimes I do not feel in control of my work [reverse coded]’, and ‘I am capable of coping with most of my problems.’ Prior research has demonstrated an average reliability of ($\alpha = .84$) which equates to a sufficient scale (Judge, Van Vianen, & De Pater, 2004).

The 16-item Workplace Emotional Intelligence Profile-Short Version (WEIP-S) was used to measure emotional intelligence (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009b). This instrument asks participants to rate (using a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Agree and 5 = Strongly

Disagree) the extent to which certain statements describe themselves. Examples of these statements are 'I can read fellow team members true feelings, even if they try to hide them' and 'I can discuss the emotions I feel with other team members.' This scale provides a measure of emotional intelligence as it relates to team contexts. Four sub-scales comprise the measure. These subscales include awareness of one's own emotions, management of one's own emotions, awareness of others' emotions, and management of others' emotions. Prior research has found this instrument to represent four underlying constructs across two samples and demonstrate satisfactory test-retest properties (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009b). Coefficient alphas have been previously reported as ($\alpha = .85, .77, .81$ and $.81$), respectively.

Extraversion was measured with the extraversion sub-scale of the IPIP proxy of the NEO-PI-R (Goldberg, 2013; Goldberg et al., 2006). This 10-item scale asks participants to rate statements such as '[I] Am skilled in handling social situations' and '[I] Don't talk a lot [reverse coded]' (using a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree). Prior research has demonstrated coefficient alpha reliabilities of this scale to be around ($\alpha = .80$).

Data Gathering Procedures

Data was collected by way of an electronic survey. Survey hosting was provided by Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). Qualtrics offers two delivery methods. The first method involves researchers creating a global address link. This link may then be delivered electronically via email to prospective participants who may access the survey location by following the included link. This method requires participants to enter identifying information so that researchers may correlate participant responses with archival data. This method does not preclude the possibility of participants completing multiple survey response sets or providing personally misidentifying information. The second method involves researchers compiling and

uploading participant contact information using Qualtrics' email function. This function automates the delivery of survey invitations and tracks survey completion by email address. This method requires no personally identifiable information to be entered by participants and affords researchers the opportunity to track survey completion by individual should response rates necessitate reminder invitations. Using this latter method, completed surveys cannot be overwritten. This method limits the requirements placed on participants, while providing more sophisticated survey completion tracking capabilities, thus this study used this latter delivery method.

Description of Data Analysis Procedures

As much of the individual difference data was archival, exposure to participants responding in a socially desirable fashion was reduced. For example, over the course of archival data collection, participating students were blind to the possibility that they might be later surveyed regarding career success. In addition, there exists a relatively unique position to compare the characteristics of survey participants with those who chose not to participate in terms of individual differences. This analysis took the form of a simple t-test.

To guard against inattention on the part of respondents several checks were put in place. First an inattention question which tells participants which answer to select was included. For example, a question such as 'The correct answer to this question is the response option between agree and disagree (i.e., neutral)' was included. Although researchers acknowledge the existence of inattention on the part of respondents, few actually attempt to explicitly determine which participants are guilty of inattention empirically. Survey response sets of participants who failed to select the directed response were the subject of further investigation, and highlighted as potential confounders of theorized relationships. Second, the use of reverse coded items allowed

researchers to test the consistency of responses. The forward and reverse coded items formed independent distributions across all survey participants. Individuals whose standardized scores are both positive and negative (without having reverse-item scored responses) and greater than 1 standard deviation were marked for further examination. Additionally, Qualtrics tracked the start and end times of respondents. These times were standardized across all respondents and examined for outliers (greater than 3 standard deviations). All outliers were visually surveyed for response patterns signifying inattention on the part of respondents (overuse of the same response option).

Scale instrument items were coded in accordance with forward and reverse coding specifications recommended by the scales' authors. Following coding, Cronbach alpha reliabilities were calculated in SPSS and recorded in the results section as per academic reporting convention. Scale scores were calculated according to the scale authors' recommendations.

Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations and reliabilities among the scale measures and study variables were reported per academic convention (see example). Analysis was conducted in a simple linear regression format. Interactions terms were included in the analyses where theoretically defensible. These were examined in a block format where the first block included the first-order terms with subsequent blocks representing traits and higher order terms. F-tests of statistical significance and changes in R^2 determined the inclusion or removal of these higher order terms.

Sample Tables for Data Analysis

Sample Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations and Reliabilities of Study Variables

	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5
1. Extrinsic Career Satisfaction	4.03	.68	(.76)				
2. Intrinsic Career Satisfaction	3.72	.57	.09**	(.86)			
3. Extraversion (Ex)	3.61	.65	.02	-.02	(.87)		
4. Emotional Intelligence (EI)	3.72	.57	.10**	.04	.41**	(.86)	
5. Ex x EI	.15	.41	.08**	-.02	-.05	.13**	-

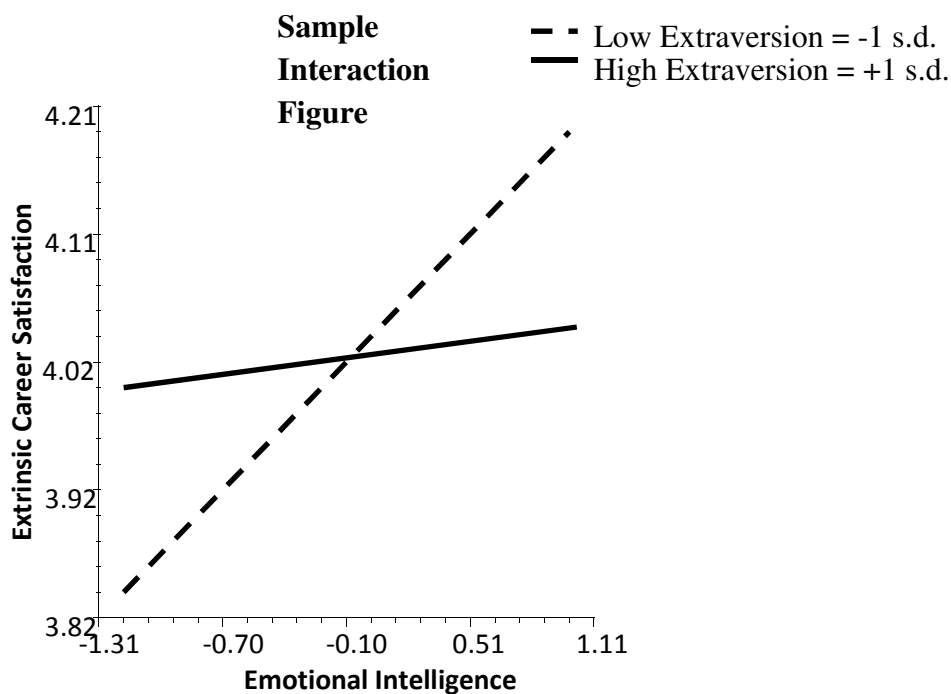
Notes: N = 489. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. Reliabilities are reported along the diagonal.

Sample Table 2

An Examination of the Moderating Effects of Extraversion on Extrinsic Career Satisfaction

	Model 1		Model 2	
	Coefficient	SE	Coefficient	SE
Intercept	4.01**	.04	4.01**	.04
Intrinsic Career Satisfaction	.08**	.03	.09**	.03
Extraversion (Ex)	.11**	.03	.11**	.03
Emotional Intelligence (EI)	-.01	.05	-.01	.05
Marriage	.11	.08	.11	.08
Hours per Week	.08*	.04	.02*	.01
Age	-.10**	.04	-.11**	.04
Ex x EI	-		.12*	.06
R^2	.17		.20	
ΔR^2	-		.03	

Note: N = 489. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$;



IRB Approval

The research was conducted by researchers with affiliations at both Pepperdine University and the participating institution, therefore two Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals was required. The research proposal was first approved at the participating institution, and then submitted to Pepperdine University for their IRB approval. To assist Pepperdine's IRB process, the IRB approval from the participating institution was included in the Pepperdine IRB submission as an appendix. Once both IRB departments approved the research project, the data collection commenced.

Summary

This research study involved the delivery of a one-time survey to 4,790 graduates of masters-level business programs from a large Southeastern university. The survey was designed to collect three individual-difference variables and an assortment of other demographic variables.

All variables and constructs appear in previously published peer-reviewed journals within the management field.

Delivery and receipt of survey information was conducted electronically. It was expected that completion of the survey would take no more than 30 minutes of participants' time. Survey data was matched to archival data. This matching process was conducted in specialized software with procedural controls in place to prevent the duplication of entries. Entries were screened for outliers based on failures to appropriately answer the inattention question, standardized survey completion times and standardized forward and reverse-coded item distributions.

All analysis conducted was quantitative in nature. Intercorrelation tables with means, standard deviations and reliabilities were reported. The testing of hypotheses occurred in a block design and relied on F-test distributions and changes in R^2 . Post-hoc probing of significant interactions was presented as figures and interpreted according to convention (± 1 s.d.).

The research conducted required IRB approval from two institutions. Approval was acquired at one institution prior to submitting the protocol to the second. The research suffered from several limitations. The known limitations included cross-sectional design, limited generalizability, socially desirable responding and common method bias.

Chapter Four: Results

Recruitment of Participants

Study participants were comprised of business graduates from a large Southeastern university that completed one of three master's degrees (MBA, MSM, or MAIB) between 2000 and 2012. Two files provided contact information for the study's sample of interest. The first file was a contact list of MBA and MSM graduates. The second file was a contact list of MAIB graduates. Prior to merging the files, each was scanned separately for duplicate entries. No duplicate entries were detected. The two files were joined by school-assigned unique personal identifiers using the JMP (version 11) *join* function. After eliminating those entries for whom contact information was unavailable, the study's sample included 4,790 individual contacts.

The survey was conducted through Qualtrics' mailer function. A letter was drafted to explain the purpose of the research and to encourage participation. This letter served as the initial survey invitation. Links to the survey as well as an option to opt-out were automatically populated within the letter. The first mailing was limited to 250 randomly selected individuals so as to reduce the impact of unforeseen and unforeseeable issues associated with either the population of interest or the Qualtrics' mailer function. Of particular concern was Qualtrics' *piped text* feature, similar to a mail merge, where the participant's first name is automatically added to create the appearance of a personalized letter of invitation.

The first invitation was sent on February 15, 2014. Of the 250 invitations sent, three contacts were no longer valid; 57 surveys were begun and 37 surveys were completed representing a response rate of 15%. A reminder letter was drafted and sent one week later to each participant who had not responded to the original invitation by either beginning the survey or by opting-out. This process was repeated for each subsequent wave of invitations. Satisfied

that there were no unforeseen issues associated with piped text or mailer function generally, a second wave of invitations was sent on February 17, 2014. Of the 1,750 invitations sent, 11 contacts were no longer valid; 356 surveys were begun and 252 surveys were completed representing a response rate of 14.5%. The third wave of invitations was sent on February 26, 2014. Of the 2,000 invitations sent, two contacts were no longer valid; 342 surveys were begun and 244 surveys were completed representing a response rate of 12%. The fourth and final wave of invitations was sent on March 5, 2014. Of the 811 surveys sent, one contact was no longer valid; 106 surveys were begun and 53 surveys were completed representing a response rate of 6.5%. Overall, the survey's response rate was 12.23%.

Data Analysis Tools and Procedures

Survey data was retrieved from Qualtrics in an SPSS format. SPSS syntax was written to rename or recode each of the variables for modeling and scale construction. In an effort to screen the data for inattention on the part of the respondent, the means of forward and reverse-coded items for both core self-evaluation and extraversion were calculated. The difference between forward and reverse coded means provided two difference scores that were then standardized. In reviewing the standardized difference scores for both core self-evaluation and extraversion, only one participant exceeded two standard deviations on both. Visual inspection of this individual's responses revealed inattention on the part of the respondent and was removed from further analysis.

Because participation in the survey was completely voluntary and individuals were free to skip questions they chose not want to answer, several response sets suffered from missing data. Most problematic were those questions associated with pay. If a response set had sufficient data for use in testing one of the hypotheses, it was retained. If a response set lacked sufficient

data for testing any of the study's four hypotheses, it was eliminated from further analyses. In all, 52 cases were eliminated resulting in a final sample consisting of 534 individual cases.

This survey set was joined to the aggregate dataset of contact information using the email variable by way of the *join* function in JMP (version 11). To this dataset, we added archival information such as graduate program, graduation year and GPA. In examining differences between those who chose to participate in the survey compared to those who did not, we found no differences in extraversion or GPA (Table 1). There was, however a significant difference between those who participated and those who chose not to participate in regards to core self-evaluation with those of higher core self-evaluation participating at a disproportionate rate. It is believed that those individuals with higher core self-evaluation were, on the basis of career success, more willing to disclose personal information.

Table 1

Comparison of Participants and Non-participants

Variable	<u>Participant</u>			<u>Non-participant</u>			<i>t</i> -ratio
	n	Mean	s.d.	N	Mean	s.d.	
1. Extraversion	534	3.63	0.59	730	3.60	0.70	0.88
2. Core Self-evaluation	534	3.95	0.51	745	3.76	0.53	6.40**
3. GPA	207	3.58	0.33	3029	3.53	0.41	1.78

Notes: N= 6312; $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$.

Data Gathering Instruments

Extrinsic career success was measured as a continuous and categorical variable. For the continuous measure, participants were asked: *What is your current salary (including bonuses, stock options, and other forms of cash compensation)?* This value was log transformed prior to

analysis. The categorical measure asked participants: *What is your current salary range (including bonuses, stock options, and other forms of cash compensation)?* Response options included: 1.) Less than \$50,000, 2.) \$50,001 - \$83,333, 3.) \$83,334-\$116,667, 4.) \$116,668-\$150,000, and 5.) Greater than \$150,000.

Intrinsic career satisfaction was measured with a scale developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley (Greenhaus et al., 1990). This instrument asks participants to respond to items using a 1 – 5 Likert-type scale where 1 = Very Dissatisfied and 5 = Very Satisfied. Example items include ‘I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career’ and ‘I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.’ Alpha reliability was $\alpha = .91$.

Life satisfaction was measured with the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). This five-item measure asks participants to respond to statements such as ‘In most ways my life is close to ideal’ and ‘So far I have gotten the important things I want in life’ using a 1 – 7 Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree. Alpha reliability was $\alpha = .93$.

Emotional Intelligence was measured using the 16-item Workplace Emotional Intelligence Profile-Short Version (WEIP-S; (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009b). This instrument asks participants to respond to questions such as ‘I can discuss the emotions I feel with other team members’ using a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Agree and 5 = Strongly Disagree. There are four subscales of the measure including awareness of one’s own emotions, management of one’s own emotions, awareness of others’ emotions, and management of others’ emotions. Alpha reliabilities were $\alpha = .85, .73, .80$, and $.83$ respectively.

Extraversion was measured using the extraversion sub-scale of the IPIP proxy of the NEO-PI-R (Goldberg, 2013; Goldberg et al., 2006). This 10-item scale asks participants to rate statements such as '[I] Am skilled in handling social situations' and '[I] Don't talk a lot [reverse coded]' (using a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree). Alpha reliability was $\alpha = .85$.

Core self-evaluation was measured using the 12-item CSES scale developed by Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoresen (Judge et al., 2003). This measure asks respondents to rate (using a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale where 1 = Strongly Agree and 5 = Strongly Disagree) the extent to which certain phrases apply to themselves. Example items include I 'am confident I get the success I deserve in life,' 'Sometimes I do not feel in control of my work [reverse coded]', and 'I am capable of coping with most of my problems.' Alpha reliability was $\alpha = .85$.

Data Analysis by Hypotheses

Turning towards the study's hypotheses, hypothesis one stated:

The relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success will be moderated by emotional intelligence such that those individuals higher in emotional intelligence will display greater extrinsic career success compared to those lower in emotional intelligence.

Because of the nature of extrinsic career success (pay), control variables included organizational tenure, age, gender, marriage status, prior experience in the field, international experience and number of employees as proxy for company or organization size.

Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations are provided in table 2.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations Among Study Hypothesis One Variables

	M	S.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Salary Range	3.51	1.30	-														
2. Current Salary (Ln)	5.12	.28	.83**	-													
3. Organizational Tenure	5.76	5.09	.25**	.28**	-												
4. Age	36.60	7.28	.32**	.30**	.41**	-											
5. Gender	.72	.45	.30**	.29**	.14**	.20**	-										
6. Marriage	.70	.46	.30**	.29**	.21**	.30**	.18**	-									
7. Prior Experience	3.76	1.63	.33**	.32**	.08	.38**	.11*	.25**	-								
8. International Experience	1.97	1.47	.16**	.19**	.12**	.29**	.13**	.09*	.18**	-							
9. Number of Employees	3.83	1.63	.15**	.09	.10*	-.10*	.03	.07	.05	-.05	-						
10. Core Self-evaluation	.00	.51	.19**	.18**	.08	.03	.06	.11*	.14**	.10*	.13**	(.85)					
11. E.I. Own Awareness	3.54	.74	-.03	-.09	.01	-.04	-.10*	-.03	.01	-.04	.06	.15**	(.85)				
12. E.I. Own Manage	4.17	.49	.02	.02	.03	.00	.06	.03	.01	-.03	.17**	.27**	.36**	(.73)			
13. E.I. Other Awareness	3.85	.54	.02	.06	.03	-.04	-.07	-.04	-.01	.04	.05	.21**	.45**	.44**	(.80)		
14. E.I. Other Manage	3.92	.58	.10*	.14*	.07	.01	-.03	.05	.06	.07	.06	.25**	.47**	.47**	.54**	(.83)	
15. E.I. Four Measures	3.67	.45	.03	.03	.04	-.03	-.06	.00	.02	.01	.11*	.28**	.79**	.70**	.77**	.80**	(.77)

Notes: N = 535; p < .05*, p < .01**. Alpha reliabilities are reported along the diagonal. Male =1, female = 0; married = 1, single = 0.

Analysis proceeded by way of linear regression using a block design. In the first block, controls were entered. In the second block, dispositional variables were entered. In the third block, interactions were entered. A significant third block implies that after controlling for the main effects of the control variables (block 1) as well as the dispositional variables (block 2), the interaction, or moderating influence, of the dispositional variable(s) accounts for a statistically significant portion of the variance in the dependent variable. The first set of regressions focused on the log-transformed self-reported measure of pay ($n = 274$). Pay is generally log transformed as it typically forms a non-normal positively-skewed distribution. Results of these analyses are presented in table 3.

Table 3

Extrinsic Career Success (Salary) Regressed on Core Self-evaluation and Emotional Intelligence

		<u>Current Salary</u>			
Model	Variable	B	Sig F Δ	ΔR^2	
Block 1	1. Intercept	4.62**	.00**	.22**	
	2. Organizational Tenure	.14*			
	3. Age	.07			
	4. Gender	.19**			
	5. Marriage	.11 [†]			
	6. Prior Experience	.19**			
	7. International Experience	.04			
	8. Number of Employees	.10 [†]			
1. Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.07	.41	.01	
	10. E.I. Own Awareness	-.05			
Block 3	11. CSE x Own Awareness	-.05	.38	.00	
2. Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.07	.59	.00	
	10. E.I. Own Manage	-.02			
Block 3	11. CSE x Own Manage	.01	.80	.00	
3. Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.06	.40	.01	
	10. E.I. Other Awareness	.07			

continued

Table 3
Extrinsic Career Success (Salary) Regressed on Core Self-evaluation and Emotional Intelligence

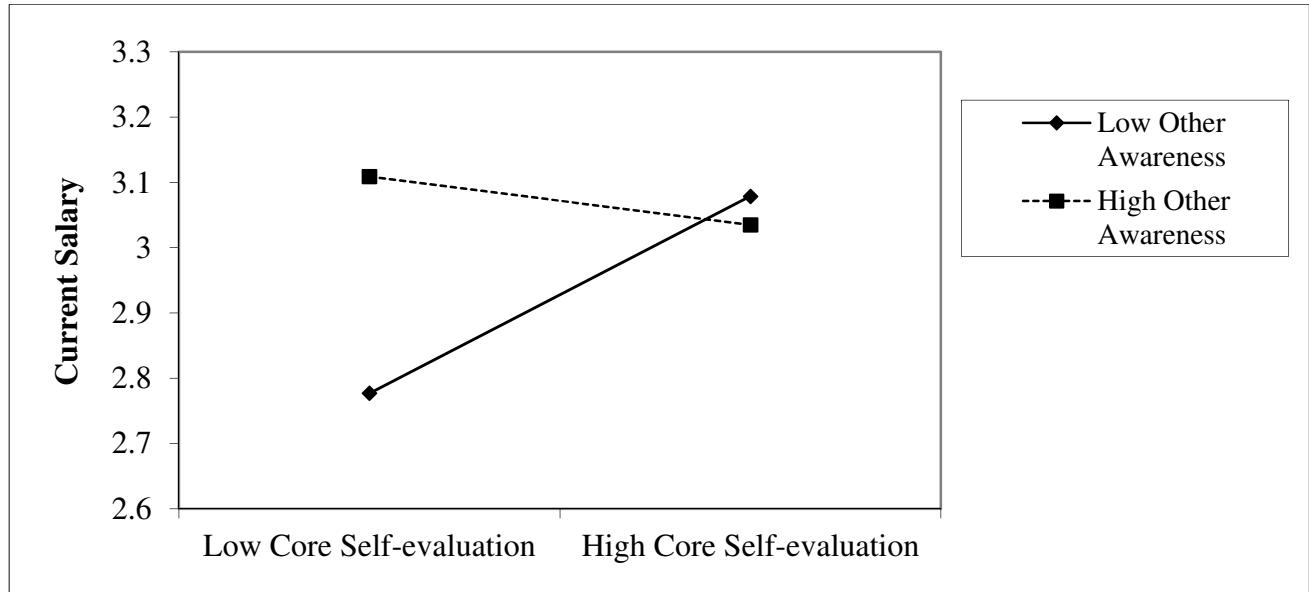
		<u>Current Salary</u>			
Model		Variable	B	Sig F Δ	ΔR^2
4.	Block 3	11. CSE x Other Awareness	-.10 [†]	.10 [†]	.02 [†]
	Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.04	.10 [†]	.01 [†]
		10. E.I. Other Manage	.11*		
	Block 3	11. CSE x Other Manage	-.05	.35	.00
5.	Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.06	.56	.00
		10. E.I. Four Measures	.03		
	Block 3	11. CSE x Four Measures	-.06	.29	.00

Notes: N = 274; $p < .10^{\dagger}$, $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$; Current salary is log transformed. Coefficients are standardized.

The results of these analyses indicate that organizational tenure, gender (male = 1), prior experience and the ability to manage others' emotions demonstrate significant positive main effects on the log transformation of salary. This implies individuals who are male, have prior work experience, are able to manage others' emotions and who have been with the organization longer, earn a larger salary. Also, marriage (married = 1), number of employees and an interaction between core self-evaluation and awareness of others' emotions are significant at the $p < .10$ level. A graphical depiction of this interaction is presented in figure 1.

Figure 1 indicates that for those individuals who are high in awareness of others' emotions, the relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success in the form of actual salary dollars is attenuated—meaning that there is less of a relationship between core self-evaluation and pay. Also, we see that for those individuals who are low in core self-evaluation, awareness of others' emotions compensates for low core self-evaluation and that these individuals who despite low core self-evaluation actually earn commensurate salary with

those who are higher in core self-evaluation but lacking sensitivity to emotions in others. Thus, we have some support for Hypothesis one.



Notes: N = 274. All variables + and – 1 S.d.

Figure 1. Effects of Emotional Intelligence on the relationship between Core Self-evaluation and Extrinsic Career Success (Current Salary)

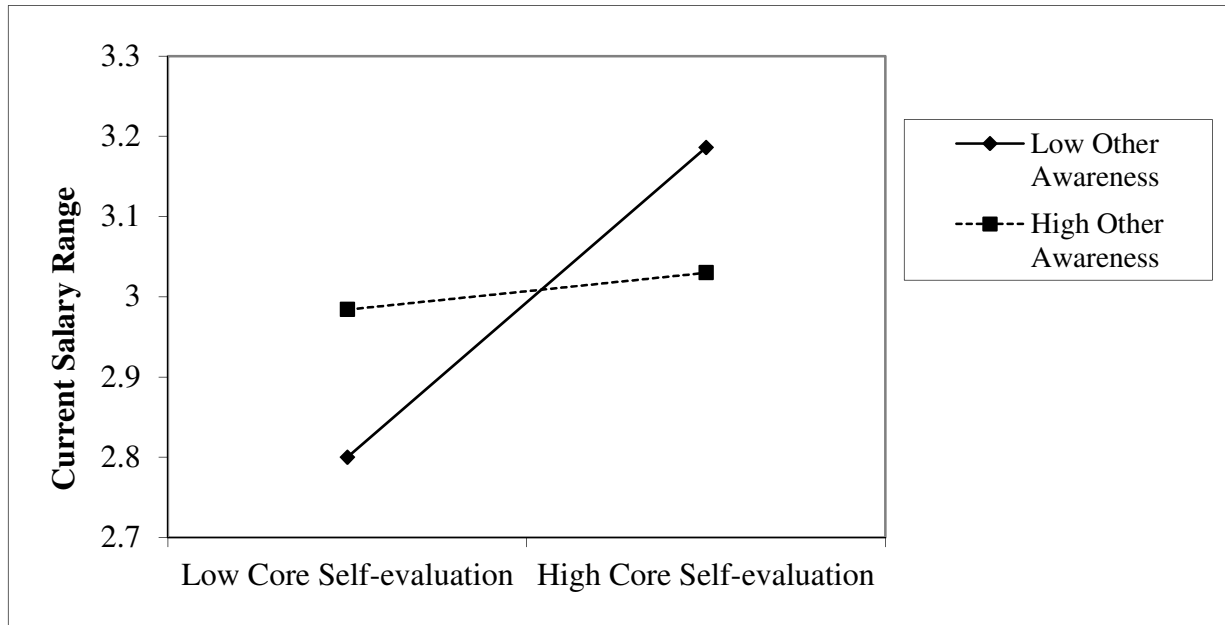
The second set of regressions focused on the pay range variable ($n = 411$). Response rates indicate individuals were much more amenable to responding to a pay range rather than disclosing actual pay.

Results of these analyses are presented in table 4. Results indicate that organizational tenure, age, gender, marriage, prior experience, number of employees and core self-evaluation demonstrate positive main effects on salary range at the $p < .05$ or $p < .01$ levels. Additionally, a significant interaction exists between core self-evaluation and awareness of others' emotions. A graphical depiction of this interaction is presented in figure 2.

Table 4
Extrinsic Career Success (Salary Range) Regressed on Core Self-evaluation and Emotional Intelligence

			<u>Salary Range</u>		
Model		Variable	β	Sig F Δ	ΔR^2
Block 1	1.	Intercept	1.03**	19.83**	.27**
	2.	Organizational Tenure	.10*		
	3.	Age	.12*		
	4.	Gender	.22**		
	5.	Marriage	.09*		
	6.	Prior Experience	.21**		
	7.	International Experience	.02		
	8.	Number of Employees	.11**		
1.	Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.11**	.04*	.01*
		10. E.I. Own Awareness	-.04		
	Block 3	11. CSE x Own Awareness	-.04	.39	.00
2.	Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.12**	.02*	.01*
		10. E.I. Own Manage	-.06		
	Block 3	11. CSE x Own Manage	-.01	.86	.00
3.	Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.11*	.05*	.01*
		10. E.I. Other Awareness	.01		
	Block 3	11. CSE x Other Awareness	-.09*	.05*	.01*
4.	Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.09*	.02*	.01*
		10. E.I. Other Manage	.06		
	Block 3	11. CSE x Other Manage	-.07	.13	.00
5.	Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.11*	.05*	.01*
		10. E.I. Four Measures	-.01		
	Block 3	11. CSE x Four Measures	-.06	.16	.00

Notes: N = 411; $p < .10^\dagger$, $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$. Extrinsic Career Success measured by salary range.



Notes: N = 411. All variables + and – 1 S.d.

Figure 2. Effects of Emotional Intelligence on the relationship between Core Self-evaluation and Extrinsic Career Success (Salary Range)

Figure 2 indicates that individuals with low core self-evaluation and low awareness of others' emotions are penalized in terms of pay range with those individuals low in both characteristics receiving lower pay. The figure also indicates that those individuals with high core self-evaluation and low awareness of others' emotions are actually better off in terms of pay than individuals who are high in both characteristics. The figure also indicates a compensatory effect where those individuals who are high in awareness of others' emotions are buffered against the negative effects of low core self-evaluation on pay. Thus we find a moderating effect of a sub-facet of emotional intelligence on the relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success thereby providing partial, albeit mixed, support of hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis two stated:

The relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success will be moderated by emotional intelligence such that those individuals higher in emotional intelligence will display greater intrinsic career success compared to those lower in emotional intelligence.

Because of the nature of intrinsic career success, control variables included organizational tenure, age, gender, marriage status, hours worked per week, nights worked per week and life satisfaction.

Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations are provided in table 5. Analysis proceeded using the same techniques used to test hypothesis one.

Results of the analysis are provided in table 6. Results indicate that hours per week, life satisfaction and core self-evaluation all demonstrate a significant positive effect on intrinsic career success. There was no support for hypothesis two. An interesting finding however pertains to the relationship between hours per week and intrinsic career success. As modeled, results would imply that working more hours per week leads to greater intrinsic success. It should be mentioned however that causally, it is perhaps more plausible that having a high degree of intrinsic career success (one derives personal satisfaction from the nature of the work) makes one more willing to work more hours per week.

Hypothesis three stated:

The relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success will be moderated by extraversion such that those individuals higher in extraversion will display greater intrinsic career success compared to those lower in extraversion.

Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations are provided in table 7. Similar to hypothesis 2, we controlled for organization tenure, age, gender, marriage, hours per week, nights per week and life satisfaction. Two dependent variables were analyzed. First we regressed the control variables, dispositional variables and the interaction on intrinsic career success.

Results of this analysis are provided in table 8.

Table 5
Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations Among Hypothesis Two Study Variables

	M	S.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Career Satisfaction	4.01	.75	(.91)													
2. Organization Tenure	5.76	5.09	.12**	-												
3. Age	36.60	7.29	.03	.41**	-											
4. Gender	.72	.45	.00	.14**	.20**	-										
5. Marriage	.70	.46	.14**	.21**	.30**	.18**	-									
6. Hours per Week	50.22	25.45	.05	-.02	-.03	.06	-.05	-								
7. Nights per Week	1.80	3.16	.03	.01	.06	-.02	.01	.39**	-							
8. Life Satisfaction	5.67	.93	.70**	.10*	.03	-.02	.17**	-.03	.07	(.93)						
9. Core Self-evaluation	.00	.51	.45**	.08	.03	.06	.11*	-.05	-.05	.55**	(.85)					
10. E.I. Own Awareness	.00	.74	.17**	.01	-.04	-.10*	-.03	.03	.02	.23*	.15**	(.85)				
11. E.I. Own Manage	.00	.49	.16**	.03	.00	.06	.03	.02	.01	.23**	.27**	.36	(.73)			
12. E.I. Other Awareness	.00	.54	.12**	.03	-.04	-.07	-.04	.04	.03	.10*	.21**	.45**	.44	(.80)		
13. E.I. Other Manage	.00	.58	.20**	.07	.01	-.03	.05	.06	.08	.28**	.25**	.47**	.47**	.54**	(.83)	
14. E.I. Four Measures	.00	.45	.21**	.04	-.03	-.06	.00	.05	.05	.28**	.28**	.79**	.70**	.77**	.80**	(.77)

Notes: N = 535; p < .05*, p < .01**. Alpha reliabilities are reported along the diagonal. Male =1, female = 0; married = 1, single = 0.

Table 6
Intrinsic Career Success Regressed on Core Self-evaluation and Emotional Intelligence

Model	Variable	Intrinsic Success		
		β	Sig F Δ	ΔR^2
Block 1	1. Intercept	.52*	.00**	.50**
	2. Organizational Tenure	.05		
	3. Age	-.01		
	4. Gender	-.02		
	5. Marriage	.02		
	6. Hours per Week	.14**		
	7. Nights per Week	-.03		
	8. Life Satisfaction	.63**		
1. Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.09*	.04*	.01*
	10. E.I. Own Awareness	-.03		
Block 3	11. CSE x Own Awareness	.03	.40	.00
2. Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.10**	.02*	.01*
	10. E.I. Own Manage	-.04		
Block 3	11. CSE x Own Manage	.04	.20	.00
3. Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.09*	.40*	.01*
	10. E.I. Other Awareness	.02		
Block 3	11. CSE x Other Awareness	-.04	.23	.00
4. Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.10**	.03*	.01*
	10. E.I. Other Manage	-.03		
Block 3	11. CSE x Other Manage	-.02	.60	.00
5. Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.10**	.04*	.01*
	10. E.I. Four Measures	-.03		
Block 3	11. CSE x Four Measures	.01	.80	.00

Notes: N = 494; $p < .10^\dagger$, $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$; Coefficients are standardized.

Table 7
Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations Among Hypothesis Three Study Variables

	M	S.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Career Satisfaction	4.01	.75	(.91)										
2. Organization Tenure	5.76	5.09	.12**	-									
3. Age	36.60	7.29	.03	.41**	-								
4. Gender	.72	.45	.00	.14**	.20**	-							
5. Marriage	.70	.46	.14**	.21**	.30**	.18**	-						
6. Hours per Week	50.22	25.45	.05	-.02	-.03	.06	-.05	-					
7. Nights per Week	1.80	3.16	.03	.01	.06	-.02	.01	.39**	-				
8. Life Satisfaction	5.67	.93	.70**	.10*	.03	-.02	.17**	-.03	.07	(.93)			
9. Core Self-evaluation	.00	.51	.45**	.08	.03	.06	.11*	-.05	-.05	.55**	(.85)		
10. Extraversion	.00	.59	.17**	-.02	-.08	-.06	.02	.00	.05	.24**	.32**	(.87)	
11. Time Spent Happy	61.04	22.29	.49**	.06	.06	.00	.10*	-.04	.07	.67**	.46**	.24**	-

Notes: N = 535; p < .05*, p < .01**. Alpha reliabilities are reported along the diagonal. Male =1, female = 0; married = 1, single = 0.

Table 8
Intrinsic Career Success Regressed on Core Self-evaluation and Extraversion

Model	Variable	<u>Intrinsic Success</u>		
		β	Sig F Δ	ΔR^2
Block 1	1. Intercept	.54*	.00**	.50**
	2. Organizational Tenure	.04		
	3. Age	-.01		
	4. Gender	-.02		
	5. Marriage	.02		
	6. Hours per Week	.14**		
	7. Nights per Week	-.02		
	8. Life Satisfaction	.63**		
Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.10**	.04*	.01*
	10. Extraversion	-.03		
Block 3	11. CSE x Extraversion	.01	.87	.00

Notes: N = 495; $p < .10^{\dagger}$, $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$. Coefficients are standardized.

Results indicate that hours per week, life satisfaction and core self-evaluation are all positively and significantly related to intrinsic career success at the $p < .01$ level. The interaction was not significant. Thus, hypothesis three was unsupported.

Next we regressed the same independent variables on time on job spent happy. Time on job spent happy was conceptualized as a proxy of intrinsic career success.

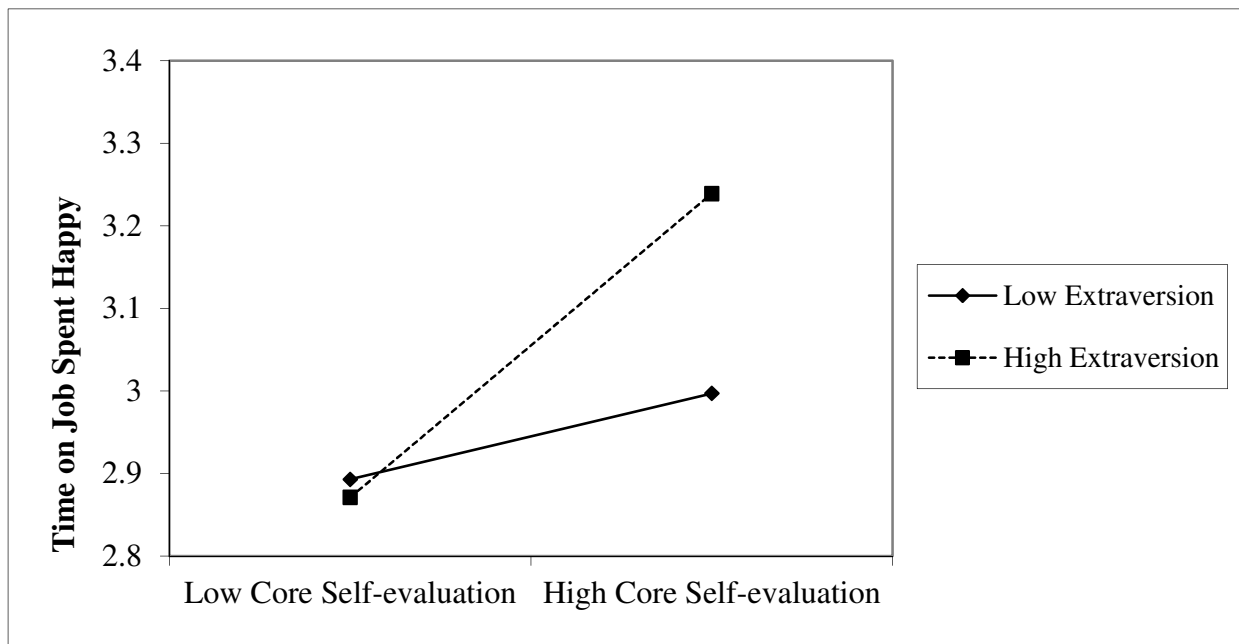
Results of this analysis are provided in table 9. Results indicate that only life satisfaction and core self-evaluation are significantly related to time on job spent happy. Interestingly, we find an interaction between extraversion and core self-evaluation that is significant at the $p < .10$ level. A graphical depiction of this interaction is found in figure 3. Figure 3 indicates that for those individuals who are low in extraversion, the relationship between core self-evaluation and time spent on job happy is attenuated—meaning that there is less of a relationship between core self-evaluation and time on job spent happy.

Table 9

Percent of Time on Job Spent Happy Regressed on Core Self-evaluation and Extraversion

Model	Variable	Time on Job Spent Happy		
		β	Sig F Δ	ΔR^2
Block 1	1. Intercept	-25.92**	.00**	.44**
	2. Organizational Tenure	-.01		
	3. Age	.05		
	4. Gender	.03		
	5. Marriage	-.04		
	6. Hours per Week	-.03		
	7. Nights per Week	.03		
	8. Life Satisfaction	.57**		
Block 2	9. Core Self-evaluation (CSE)	.12**	.00**	.02**
	10. Extraversion	.06		
Block 3	11. CSE x Extraversion	.07 [†]	.06 [†]	.00 [†]

Notes: N = 495; $p < .10^{\dagger}$, $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$. Coefficients are standardized.



Notes: N = 495. All variables + and - 1 S.d.

Figure 3. Effects of Extraversion on the relationship between Core Self-evaluation and Time on Job Spent Happy

The figure also indicates that for those individuals who are high in extraversion, the relationship between core self-evaluation and time spent on job feeling happy is magnified with those who are high in both traits experiencing more happiness on the job. Thus, with the dependent variable as time on job spent happy, hypothesis three is supported.

Hypothesis four stated:

The relationship between emotional intelligence and extrinsic career success will be moderated by extraversion such that those individuals higher in extraversion will display greater extrinsic career success compared to those lower in extraversion.

Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations are provided in table 10. The models employed to test this hypothesis were identical to those used to test hypothesis one with the exception of extraversion in place of core self-evaluation.

Results of the analyses where the log transformed salary was the dependent variable are reported in table 11. Results indicate significant positive main effects from organization tenure, gender, prior experience and the ability to manage others' emotions. Also present is an effect of marriage at the $p < .10$ level. No interaction was significant.

Results of the analyses where salary range was the dependent variable are reported in table 12. Here we find all of the controls with the exception of international experience significant at the $p < .05$ level or better. In neither set of analyses was extraversion nor the interactions formed between extraversion and the sub-facets of emotional intelligence significant. Hence, hypothesis four is unsupported.

Table 10
Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations Among Hypothesis Four Study Variables

	M	S.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Current Salary (Ln)	5.12	.28	-														
2. Salary Range	3.51	1.30	.83**	-													
3. Organizational Tenure	5.76	5.09	.28**	.25**	-												
4. Age	36.60	7.28	.30**	.32**	.41**	-											
5. Gender	.72	.45	.29**	.31**	.14**	.20**	-										
6. Marriage	.70	.46	.32**	.30**	.21**	.30**	.18**	-									
7. Prior Experience	3.76	1.63	.32**	.33**	.08	.38**	.11*	.25**	-								
8. International Experience	1.97	1.47	.19**	.16**	.12**	.29**	.13**	.09*	.18**	-							
9. Number of Employees	3.83	1.63	.09	.15**	.10*	-.10*	.03	.07	.05	-.05	-						
10. Extraversion	.00	.59	.13*	.06	-.02	-.08	-.06	.02	.09*	.07	.11**	(.87)					
11. E.I. Own Awareness	.00	.74	-.09	-.03	.01	-.04	-.10*	-.03	.01	-.04	.06	.15**	(.85)				
12. E.I. Own Manage	.00	.49	.02	.02	.03	.00	.06	.03	.01	-.03	.17**	.27**	.36**	(.73)			
13. E.I. Other Awareness	.00	.54	.06	.02	.03	-.04	-.07	-.04	-.01	.04	.05	.21**	.45**	.44**	(.80)		
14. E.I. Other Manage	.00	.58	.14*	.10*	.07	.01	-.03	.05	.06	.07	.06	.25**	.47**	.47**	.54**	(.83)	
15. E.I. Four Measures	.00	.45	.03	.03	.04	-.03	-.06	.00	.02	.01	.11*	.28**	.79**	.70**	.77**	.80**	(.77)

Notes: N = 535; p < .05*, p < .01**. Alpha reliabilities are reported along the diagonal. Male =1, female = 0; married = 1, single = 0.

Table 11
Extrinsic Career Success (Salary) Regressed on Extraversion and Emotional Intelligence

			<u>Current Salary</u>		
Model		Variable	β	Sig F Δ	ΔR^2
Block 1	1.	Intercept	4.64**	.00**	.22**
	2.	Organizational Tenure	.15*		
	3.	Age	.07		
	4.	Gender	.19**		
	5.	Marriage	.11 [†]		
	6.	Prior Experience	.19**		
	7.	International Experience	.04		
	8.	Number of Employees	.09		
1.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.09	.22	.01
		10. E.I. Own Awareness	-.06		
	Block 3	11. Ext x Own Awareness	-.04	.50	.00
2.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.08	.41	.01
		10. E.I. Own Manage	.01		
	Block 3	11. Ext x Own Manage	-.04	.56	.00
3.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.06	.28	.01
		10. E.I. Other Awareness	.06		
	Block 3	11. Ext x Other Awareness	-.04	.49	.00
4.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.45	.08 [†]	.02 [†]
		10. E.I. Other Manage	.12*		
	Block 3	11. Ext x Other Manage	-.41	.21	.01
5.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.06	.40	.01
		10. E.I. Four Measures	.05		
	Block 3	11. Ext x Four Measures	-.07	.27	.00

Notes: N = 274; $p < .10^{\dagger}$, $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$; Current salary is log transformed. Coefficients are standardized.

Table 12
Extrinsic Career Success (Salary Range) Regressed on Extraversion and Emotional Intelligence

			<u>Salary Range</u>		
Model		Variable	β	Sig F Δ	ΔR^2
Block 1	1.	Intercept	.92**	.00**	.26**
	2.	Organizational Tenure	.11*		
	3.	Age	.12*		
	4.	Gender	.23**		
	5.	Marriage	.10*		
	6.	Prior Experience	.22**		
	7.	International Experience	.02		
	8.	Number of Employees	.12**		
1.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.06	.31	.00
		10. E.I. Own Awareness	-.04		
Block 3	11.	Ext x Own Awareness	-.02	.63	.00
2.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.06	.33	.00
		10. E.I. Own Manage	-.03		
Block 3	11.	Ext x Own Manage	-.03	.45	.00
3.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.05	.42	.00
		10. E.I. Other Awareness	.02		
Block 3	11.	Ext x Other Awareness	.01	.90	.00
4.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.31	.17	.01
		10. E.I. Other Manage	.06		
Block 3	11.	Ext x Other Manage	-.28	.29	.00
5.	Block 2	9. Extraversion (Ext)	.05	.42	.00
		10. E.I. Four Measures	.01		
Block 3	11.	Ext x Four Measures	-.03	.46	.00

Notes: N = 274; $p < .10^\dagger$, $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$; Coefficients are standardized.

Chapter Five: Discussion

In broad terms, the purpose of this study was to examine the moderating influences of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion on career success. Specifically, this study sought to gain a better understanding of how these personality traits and emotional intelligence might be associated with the extrinsic and intrinsic career success of master's level graduate students. It was theorized that a better understanding of the relationship between these factors and career success would hold significant value to business schools, enabling administrators to evaluate how their practices associated with candidate selection, curriculum design and student job placement might be modified to improve career success outcomes of their graduates.

This study found partial support for two of the four hypotheses proposed. First, a moderating relationship was identified between emotional intelligence, core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success. The data showed that one's awareness of others' emotions moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and current salary. Secondly, a moderating relationship was identified between extraversion, core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success. The data showed that extraversion moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and participant's response to the question of time spent happy at work. The data failed to support two of the four hypotheses. First, there was no evidence to support the hypothesis that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success. There was also no evidence to support the hypothesis that extraversion moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and extrinsic career success.

In addition to the analysis of the four hypotheses that framed this study, support was also found for the relationship between career success and a number of this study's control variables,

previously linked to career success in the research literature. These variables were organizational tenure, age, gender, marriage, prior experience, and international experience. The comparison was also made between these findings and results from prior research on career success in this discussion chapter.

A significant finding of this research was the positive relationship between the three dispositional variables, core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion, and career success of master's level graduates. The relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic and intrinsic career success may hold broad implications for business school strategy, particularly in relation to candidate selection and job placement strategies. The relationship between emotional intelligence and career success may provide opportunities for business schools to incorporate emotional intelligence training and development within their curricula to improve their graduate's future career success. These implications will be discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

This discussion chapter is organized into three primary sections. Section one summarizes the research findings and compares these results to the existing organizational research literature on career success. Section two draws conclusions and implications from the findings. The third section provides recommendations for both future research studies as well as for practitioners who lead business schools.

Research Findings Related to Prior Literature

In comparing this study's career success findings with prior research, a number of instances of consistency were found. Some areas where the findings were not consistent with prior research were also found. This summary reviews these findings, with a focus on the three dispositional variables: core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion.

This study identified a number of demographic and pseudo-demographic items that have been known to influence career success and used them as controls in the data analysis. This analysis showed consistency in many areas with prior research regarding their relationship with career success. It was found that age was related to salary ($r = .32, p < .01$), which was similar to prior studies that have demonstrated a positive relationship between compensation and age (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Gattiker & Larwood, 1989; Judge et al., 1995). While Martins et al., (2002) found a negative relationship between age and intrinsic career success, no such relationship was found in this study. In terms of gender, it was found that gender was related to salary ($r = .30, p < .01$), which was similar to prior research on extrinsic career success (Carlson & Swartz, 1988; Cox & Harquail, 1991; Judge et al., 1995). Additionally, no relationship was found between gender and career satisfaction. These findings were similar to the 1991 study of MBA graduates that showed that while women in managerial positions received similar levels of promotion and career satisfaction, they earned lower salary increases for their promotions in comparison to their male counterparts (Cox & Harquail, 1991). Marriage was found to have a positive relationship to salary ($r = .30, p < .01$) in this study, which was similar to prior findings in the research related to career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Judge et al., 1995; Pfeffer & Ross, 1982; Schneer & Reitman, 2002). The Schneer and Reitman (2002) study is of particular interest, as it focused on a similar population, MBA alumni, and delivered a similar result, showing that married men were rewarded with higher levels of income and salary advancement. This study's findings of the positive relationship between prior work experience to salary ($r = .33, p < .01$) is similar to prior studies on career success (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Ng et al., 2005; Pfeffer & Ross, 1982). This study's finding related to the relationship between international experience and salary ($r = .16, p < .01$) is similar to the results from the 2005 study

conducted by Ng et al., that found a relationship between career success and international experience. Finally, organizational tenure was found to be positively related to salary ($r = .25, p < .01$), which was similar to prior research on extrinsic career success (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Judge et al., 1995).

Focusing on the three dispositional variables reviewed in this study, core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion, the findings provided support for prior research findings in the career success literature. Core self-evaluation was found to have a positive relationship with salary ($r = .19, p < .01$) and an even stronger positive relationship with career satisfaction ($r = .45, p < .01$). These findings are similar to prior studies that focused on core self-evaluation and career success (Judge, 2009; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Judge & Hurst, 2008; Judge, Hurst, et al., 2009). Looking at the relationship between core self-evaluation and salary specifically, the findings are similar to those of Judge, Hurst and Simon (2009) who reviewed longitudinal data to show that core self-evaluation was positively associated with higher income. Similarly the results were also consistent with Judge and Hurst (2007) that showed high levels of core self-evaluation led to higher level of income at the mid-career point. The Judge, Hurst and Simon (2009) study that showed that individuals with high core self-evaluation not only gained additional pay increases and occupational prestige, but also a higher level of early career satisfaction, was similar to this study's findings that highlighted the impact on both extrinsic and intrinsic career success measures. The strong relationship between core self-evaluation and career satisfaction shown in the results also supports prior research conducted by Judge and Hurst (2008) that produced similar findings for early career professionals.

The research analysis found a weak to moderate relationship between emotional intelligence and career satisfaction ($r = .21, p < .01$), which supports prior research that revealed similar findings between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction – which, is an element of career satisfaction (Carmeli, 2003; Thiruchelvi & Supriya, 2009; Wong & Law, 2002). The Carmeli (2003) study found a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and both job satisfaction and career commitment. The Wong and Law (2002) study linked emotional intelligence to a strong sense of job satisfaction, regardless of the nature of the job performed. The research did not find a measureable or significant relationship between emotional intelligence and extrinsic career satisfaction. The 2006 study conducted by Lopes et al., also came to a different conclusion on the relationship between these variables. The Lopes et al., (2006) study showed that emotional intelligence led to increased job performance, higher interpersonal ratings, and extrinsic career success measures, most notably pay and percent merit increases. The study's findings did not show ample support for the relationship between emotional intelligence and salary. One sub-facet of the WEIP-S scale, one's awareness of others emotions, did show a weak, yet significant relationship to salary ($r = .10, p < .05$). When using the aggregated emotional intelligence measure, however, there was no relationship of significance between emotional intelligence and salary ($r = .03, p > .1$).

Finally, extraversion was shown to have a weak relationship with both salary ($r = .13, p < .05$) and career satisfaction ($r = .17, p < .01$). These findings support prior research on the influence of extraversion on both extrinsic (Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge et al., 1999) as well as intrinsic (Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge, Heller et al., 2002) career success. Judge et al., (1999) linked high extraversion to extrinsic career success longitudinally across a person's life span, while Boudreau (2001) showed a positive relationship between extraversion and extrinsic career

success for European executives. The same Boudreau (2001) study also showed that extraversion was positively associated with intrinsic career success for both U.S. and European executives. Judge, Heller and Mount (2002) found a similar relationship between extraversion and job satisfaction as these results displayed.

Turning to the primary research questions of this study, the findings address an existing gap in organizational psychology research. Data analysis showed that emotional intelligence did moderate the relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success. When utilizing actual salary figures provided by the participants, individuals with low core self-evaluation and low awareness of others' emotions paid a penalty in terms of salary, compared to those with low core self-evaluation and high awareness of others' emotions. When utilizing salary range data provided by the participants, we saw a similar moderation effect when assessing individuals low in core self-evaluation in relation to pay. However the salary range data analysis produced a slightly different relationship with individuals with high core self-evaluation. For these participants, individuals with high core self-evaluation and low awareness of others' emotions actually earned more in terms of salary when compared to those with high core self-evaluation and high awareness of others emotions. One explanation for this result might be that these individuals who are high in core self-evaluation and low in awareness of others' emotions may self-select into occupations where an awareness of others matters less. For example, it is possible that those with high core self-evaluation and low awareness of others' emotions may prefer positions that reward individual performance, such as sales positions. It should be noted that the findings in relation to the moderating influence of emotional intelligence on the relationship between core self-evaluation and career success were only found to be significant for one of the four sub-facets of the emotional intelligence scale. The relationship was

found to be significant when using the sub-facet of awareness of others emotions, but there was no moderating effect when using the aggregated emotional intelligence measure. Therefore, the results provide limited support for this hypothesized moderating interaction. The second and final evidence of moderation found involved hypothesis three, which looked that the moderating influence of extraversion on the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success. The results showed that extraversion moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and the amount of time these participants were happy at work. The data revealed that those participants who were high in core self-evaluation and extraversion were happier at work, in comparison to participants who were high in core self-evaluation but low in extraversion. These findings are similar to prior studies that have shown extraversion to be connected to one's tendency to experience positive emotions (Headey & Wearing, 1989; McCrae & Costa, 1991).

Summary of Study Results

As noted above, these results provide support for a number of prior research studies in the area of extrinsic career success and job satisfaction. A relationship was shown between career success and many of the items in the study, beginning with the control variables and including the three dispositional variables, core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion. Given the significance of career success to organizations, their performance outcomes, and to job satisfaction and performance of their employees, this research adds depth to the organization psychology literature.

While there are many prior studies that focused on extrinsic career success, job performance and job satisfaction, there have been fewer studies centered on career satisfaction. Therefore, the findings related to the relationship between the three dispositional variables, core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion on career success have made a

meaningful contribution to organizational research in this area. Each one of the dispositional variables was found to have a positive relationship with career success for these participants. Emotional intelligence and extraversion showed a modest relationship with career success ($r = .21, p < .01$ and $r = .17, p < .01$, respectively). More significant are the findings associated with core self-evaluation, which showed a strong relationship to career success for the masters level graduates ($r = .45, p < .01$). Again, given the importance of employee level career success to organizational outcomes, these findings are of broad significance and worthy of further exploration.

Finally, the answers to this study's central research questions addressed a gap in organizational psychology research related to extrinsic and intrinsic career success. Emotional intelligence, defined by one's awareness of others' emotions, did serve as a moderator of the relationship between core self-evaluation and salary. Extraversion moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success, using time spent on the job happy as a proxy for career satisfaction. Additionally, the unsupported hypotheses also add value our understanding of career success. No evidence was found that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success. Similarly, no evidence was found that extraversion moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and extrinsic career satisfaction.

Conclusions and Implications

The goal of this research was two-fold. First, this study sought to gain a better understanding of what influences extrinsic and intrinsic career success, particularly in relation to core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion. More specifically, there was interest in assessing how these personality and intelligence items that have been known to

influence career success might interact with one another affect their relationship with one another. Secondly, there was also interest in understanding how this information might have practical application to business schools as administrators look to improve the career success outcomes of their graduates. Strengthening this comprehension of how core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion influence career success would allow business school leaders who seek to advance the career success of their graduates to take action. This action might include a comprehensive assessment of how this understanding could be applied across the program lifecycle, including candidate selection, curriculum design, professional development programming, and job placement support. Taking such action might not only result in improved career success of program graduates, but also strategic gains across many potential areas that are tied to improved career success of program graduates and alumni. These areas include enrollment, student quality, student satisfaction, alumni giving, and program rankings. Given the practical application of these findings to business schools, the conclusions, implications and recommendations of this study will be focused in this area.

In summary, it was learned that personality and emotional intelligence do matter when it comes to career success of master's level business graduates. Emotional intelligence and extraversion were both positively associated with intrinsic career success ($r = .21, p < .01$ and $r = .17, p < .01$, respectively), while core self-evaluation was positively related to both extrinsic and intrinsic career success. The most significant finding was the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success ($r = .45, p < .01$). Individuals high in core self-evaluation not only earn more, but they are more satisfied with their careers. Given the association between job performance and job satisfaction, organizations should also derive greater productivity by sourcing human talent that is high in core self-evaluation and/or emotional intelligence. This

means that graduate and MBA level hiring managers may seek to develop or strengthen their recruiting relationship with business schools that produce a higher percentage of graduates that are high in core self-evaluation and/or emotional intelligence.

Since career success of their graduates should be of great significance to business schools' for many of the reasons outlined in this study, this research makes the case for business schools leaders to evaluate macro program level strategy in order to capitalize on the positive relationship between these items and career success, particularly core self-evaluation. In doing so, school administrators that pay closer attention to the core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and extraversion of their students, may be rewarded in specific and measureable ways associated with the career success of their graduates. Some specific recommendations for application of this research in terms of business school strategy are outlined in the practitioner recommendations section of this chapter.

Recommendations for Future Research

There are a number of opportunities to advance or improve the research conducted in this study. The first suggestion would involve survey design. One of the known limitations of this study was the cross-sectional nature of the design. A longitudinal study that looked at career success of business graduates across several years would allow for a deeper assessment of the relationship between the dispositional variables and extrinsic and intrinsic career success over time. Secondly, the recommendation is made to have a more robust assessment of emotional intelligence for future studies. While a relationship was found between emotional intelligence and intrinsic career success, and one instance where a sub-facet of the emotional intelligence scale moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success, there were other areas where no relationship was found. One possible explanation for these findings

was the scale, the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP-S). While the WEIP-S has been used in prior research with acceptable coefficient alpha reliability, this measurement tool is not as comprehensive, or as well researched, as another available emotional intelligence measurement tool, the MSCEIT. The WEIP-S is also a self-report assessment tool, while the MSCEIT is a skills-based assessment, which might have improved the validity of the data collected. The MSCEIT assessment was not used due to concerns associated with the length of the assessment. In order to ensure an acceptable response rate, the WEIP-S was chosen to keep the survey completion time reasonable for an online survey to program alumni. It is also recommended that future research on emotional intelligence and career success utilize the MSCEIT assessment in order to compare results to the ones derived from this study, and assess whether this improves the results. Another recommendation for future research would be to increase the sample size. The effects of moderation are notoriously difficult to identify, and a larger pool of participants would have increased this study's ability to find meaningful interactions. Future research could be conducted in partnership with an association related to graduate management education, such as the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) or the Graduate Management Admissions Council (GMAC). These organizations may be able to identify a large pool of business schools that would be interested in participating in a similar study, thereby providing them with access to data that may advance their respective program strategies. Another recommendation for future research would be to re-evaluate the primary hypotheses by factoring job function into the analysis, by including a series of questions that requires participants to list their job function among a set of defined options. Different positions demand different levels of managerial and leadership finesse. For example, a future study of master's level business graduates who all are in positions where they are

responsible for leading work teams, may produce a different moderating relationship between the dispositional variables, versus a group that includes analysts, salespeople, and other non-managerial roles.

Finally, future studies could also take into account the differences between various master level business degree programs, both in terms of content, student quality and demographics, and desired program outcomes. A study that compared career success outcomes across different program formats would allow for program specific recommendations. For example, the career success outcomes of a pre-experience Masters of Science in Management graduate might be quite different than those of an older MBA graduate with two or more years of professional work experience upon program entry. Additionally, the career success outcomes of graduates of full-time residency programs may also differ from those of graduates from executive MBA programs, where they work and participate in the program at the same time. This study did not split these populations of graduates to evaluate the results to see if different conclusions could have been drawn, as the sample size was insufficient to detect separate and program-specific moderation effects. Each different program type has a different value to a business school and a different value proposition offered to program participants. Therefore, knowing if career success of program graduates was greater in a specific program would hold significant value to that business school, and might offer broad application to the value of this type of program for the graduate management education industry.

Recommendations for Business School Practitioners

The results of this study provide several opportunities for practical application for business schools leaders who are interested in improving the career success of their graduates,

and thereby the overall success of their programs. This section will highlight a number of specific recommendations for consideration.

As outlined in the first chapter of this study, business schools have a vested interest understanding the factors that can positively influence a higher level of career success for their graduates. Where possible, this understanding would alert business school leaders to adopt strategies that would increase these positive outcomes. If the successful adoption of these strategies did in fact yield increased career success for program graduates, the school would earn considerable advantages in the form of enrollment, reputation, and student and alumni satisfaction.

The first series of recommendations involves the findings that link core self-evaluation to career success of master's level business graduates. Given that core self-evaluation is a personality construct that remains fairly consistent over time, there is limited action a program can take to train or develop high core self-evaluation among their graduate students while they are students in their program. Rather, the true question for business schools to consider is whether or not to utilize core self-evaluation as part of the candidate selection process. The first question that must be asked is – would business school's career success outcomes be improved if core self-evaluation was incorporated into their candidate selection process? Secondly, if they believe this to be true, could school leaders use a core self-evaluation measurement in this way? One recommendation would be to conduct further research on the relationship between core self-evaluation and job placement of graduates to determine its predictive potential on this key metric. Job placement, defined as whether a student secures a job at graduation as well as their mean starting salary if they do secure employment, is of significance to all business schools. This is particularly true for MBA programs that compete on reputation and prestige defined by

external rankings sources such as *U.S. News and World Report*, *Bloomberg BusinessWeek*, *The Economist*, and *the Financial Times*, as many prominent rankings evaluate MBA programs on these metrics. If future research were to advance core self-evaluations' predictive potential of job placement success of graduating students, there may be an argument to be made that core self-evaluation has criterion validity that justifies the inclusion of this assessment to predict two important program outcomes, job placement and career success. A multi-year study of core self-evaluation's relationship with job placement would hold potential to provide the support of criterion validity. If core self-evaluation was found to be a trait directly associated with improved job placement performance, a business school would be able to consider adding core self-evaluation as an important admission metric for candidate selection. One could argue that many schools currently use a far more subjective assessment tool to evaluate many or all of the individual personality elements that comprise the core self-evaluation construct via a personal interview as part of the admissions process. Similar to how standardized test scores are used to predict academic success in a graduate program, core self-evaluation would help schools predict career success of their graduates. By adding the CSES to an established set of consideration factors, including GMA, evaluated by GMAT or GRE scores and undergraduate GPA, work experience quality, and overall program fit, a business school may be able to measurably improve their job placement rates and career satisfaction levels of their graduates. In this way, the use of core self-evaluation would be a more professional and empirical approach to candidate selection for MBA and other graduate business programs, in comparison to the subjective, often gut feel approach of admissions interviews.

It may also be possible to have core self-evaluation utilized in a business school's approach to the career services they offer to their graduate students. We have already established

the significance of job placement success for business schools, in terms of overall program performance, student satisfaction, and program rankings. Given its importance, there may also be ways to utilize the knowledge to improve resource allocation of program staff to deliver desired job placement results. If the aforementioned recommendation to study the relationship between core self-evaluation and job placement delivers a positive and significant result, this would be a signal to program staff that students low in core self-evaluation may have a more difficult time securing employment. Moving additional resources to these students would improve job placement outcomes and student satisfaction, as these students would appreciate the additional level of service deployed to assist them in their job search efforts.

The study's results showed a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and intrinsic career satisfaction. Unlike core self-evaluation and extraversion, which are fixed personality traits, emotional intelligence can be developed over time (Mayer, Caruso, et al., 2000). This would allow a business school to incorporate emotional intelligence into their curriculum in an effort to improve career success of their graduates. A school could launch a longitudinal study that would track student development in emotional intelligence, as well as any impact emotional intelligence may have on job placement. Similar to the suggested study on core self-evaluation and job placement, if a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job placement was found, business school leaders would be able to capitalize on this insight. A graduate program could administer the MSCEIT assessment at the outset of the program, providing a baseline assessment of emotional intelligence for all new students. Students would have multiple opportunities within the curriculum and with outside career development activities to improve their self-awareness and their overall emotional intelligence competencies. Students would be motivated to focus their efforts on developing these skills due to their understanding of

how higher emotional intelligence had been tied empirically to improved job placement outcomes.

One of the more significant opportunities for a business school to capitalize on in relation to these recommendations relates to how they would promote their innovative candidate selection and curriculum advancements to both prospective students and corporate recruiters. Alternatively, they may elect to keep this strategy confidential, so as to utilize their advanced selection process as a competitive advantage. Prospective students want to attend a graduate program where they have a high level of confidence that their curriculum, credential, and professional development training will deliver the desired outcome of successful job placement. Corporations spend considerable resources to identify premium talent that will perform at a high level, support a positive corporate culture, and derive high levels of job satisfaction from their work. A business school that incorporated this advanced, empirical approach to candidate selection and student development may ultimately deliver stronger job candidates that would impress corporate recruiters. A simple campaign targeted at corporate recruiters would aim to encourage these recruiters to increase their recruiting activity due to the school's unique strategy that delivered confident, effective and emotionally intelligent graduates. There is a great deal of homogeneity in how business schools promote their graduates to employers, so this recommendation presents an attractive opportunity to create a true differentiator for the school that would adopt this strategy.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the moderating influences of core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence, and extraversion on the outcomes of career success of master's level business graduates. Much was known about the relationship between these

dispositional variables and different facets of career success, but far less was known about how these items interact with one another to influence both extrinsic and intrinsic career success. New knowledge derived from this study advances the understanding of the factors that predict career success and provide an opportunity for business schools to improve their program outcomes through a focus on items found to influence career success of their graduates.

The survey results found partial support for two of the four hypotheses. A moderating effect was found of a sub-facet of emotional intelligence on the relationship between core self-evaluation and extrinsic career success. It was also found that extraversion moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and participant's response to the question 'time spent happy at work'. There was no support for the hypothesis that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success. There was also no support found for the hypothesis that extraversion moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and extrinsic career success. The data did find a strong, positive relationship between core self-evaluation and intrinsic career success. This study also showed a more modest relationship between intrinsic career success and both emotional intelligence and extraversion. Many of the control variables included in this study that had been cited in prior research to be correlated with extrinsic and/or intrinsic career success produced similar results in the analysis as well.

This study concludes that personality does matter when it comes to career success of master's level business graduates. The study results provided support for prior research associated with core self-evaluation and career success, and mixed support for prior research associated with emotional intelligence and career success. This study also made new contributions to the career success research literature, particularly in relation to the results of the

four hypotheses involving the moderating impact of our three dispositional variables on extrinsic and intrinsic career success. It is concluded that emotional intelligence does modify the relationship between core self-evaluation and pay, and that extraversion does modify the relationship between core self-evaluation and time spent on the job happy. It is also concluded that core self-evaluation is strongly associated with career satisfaction among the target population of master's level business graduates.

The results of this study have implications for business schools that aim to improve the career success of their master's level business graduates. More specifically, by understanding the core self-evaluation and emotional intelligence scores of applicants and students, business schools can seek to understand how these traits are associated with higher performance in terms of job placement and career success. This study recommends an investigation into the relationship between successful job placement and both core self-evaluation and emotional intelligence. This knowledge could be incorporated into a more sophisticated approach to attracting and retaining student talent, developing student talent through curricula advances, and connecting student talent to hiring organizations. In doing so, business school leaders can advance their mission of providing not only a wealth of knowledge and skill development to their students, but also more long term career success and improved results and productivity for the organizations that hire their graduate talent. If successful, these innovative programs may see significant advancements in applications from top candidates, enrollment, student and alumni satisfaction, program ranking and reputation, and alumni giving.

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APPENDIX A

Survey Instrument with Informed Consent

Informed Consent

Protocol Title: An Examination of Academic Program Participation and Career Success.

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of this study is to compare individual differences on the career success of recent masters-level management graduates across three academic programs. Results may be used to support or modify current curricula and best practices.

What you will be asked to do in the study: This study involves the completion of a brief online survey.

Time required: 20 minutes.

Risks and Benefits: There are no risks or benefits to participation in this study.

Compensation: There is no compensation for participation in this study.

Confidentiality: Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Any unique personal identifiers, linking a particular individual to his or her responses, will be recoded or destroyed prior to analysis. Results will only be reported in the form of group data. Your responses will be anonymous.

Voluntary participation: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating. Right to withdraw from the study: You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

Whom to contact if you have questions about the study:

Alexander Sevilla, Alex.Sevilla@school.edu

Andrew Woolum, woolum@school.edu

Dr. Amir Erez, Amir.Erez@school.ufl.edu

Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in the study: IRB02 Office, Box XXXXXX, School, City (XXX) XXX-XXXX.

Agreement: I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the survey and I have received an electronic copy of this description.

- ☐ Proceed to survey (1)
- ☐ Choose not to participate (2)

Q1 What was your last performance rating?

- ☐ 100 – 96% (1)
- ☐ 95 – 91% (2)
- ☐ 90 – 86% (3)
- ☐ 85 – 81% (4)
- ☐ 80 – 76% (5)

Q2 Other than your current job, do you have any prior experience in your field?

- ☐ 5 years or more (1)
- ☐ 3-4 years (2)
- ☐ 2-3 years (3)
- ☐ 1-2 years (4)
- ☐ (5)

Q3 Do you have any international experience?

- ☐ 5 years or more (1)
- ☐ 3-4 years (2)
- ☐ 2-3 years (3)
- ☐ 1-2 years (4)
- ☐ (5)

Q4 What is your tenure (in years) with the organization?

Q5 What is your tenure (in years) in your current job?

Q6 On average, how many hours per week do you work?

Q7 On average, how many nights per week do you work?

Q8 How many employees are in your organization?

- ☐ >1000 (1)
- ☐ 999-500 (2)

- ☐ 499 -250 (3)
- ☐ 249 – 125 (4)
- ☐ (5)

Q9 What was your pre-MBA salary (including bonuses, stock options, and other forms of cash compensation)?

Q10 What was your post-MBA salary (including bonuses, stock options, and other forms of cash compensation)?

Q11 What is your current salary range (including bonuses, stock options, and other forms of cash compensation)? If you would prefer to answer in the form of a range, please proceed to the next question.

Q12 What is your current salary range (including bonuses, stock options, and other forms of cash compensation)?

- ☐ >\$150,000 (1)
- ☐ \$150,000- 116,668 (2)
- ☐ \$116,667 – 83,334 (3)
- ☐ \$83,333 – 50,001 (4)
- ☐ (5)

Q13 How many promotions have you received since you began work with your organization?

- ☐ 0 (1)
- ☐ 1 (2)
- ☐ 2 (3)
- ☐ 3 (4)
- ☐ > 4 (5)

Please rate the extent you agree with the following statements.

Q14 I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.

- ☐ Very Satisfied (1)
- ☐ Satisfied (2)
- ☐ Neutral (3)
- ☐ Dissatisfied (4)
- ☐ Very Dissatisfied (5)

Q15 I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.

- ☐ Very Satisfied (1)
- ☐ Satisfied (2)
- ☐ Neutral (3)
- ☐ Dissatisfied (4)
- ☐ Very Dissatisfied (5)

Q16 I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.

- ☐ Very Satisfied (1)
- ☐ Satisfied (2)
- ☐ Neutral (3)
- ☐ Dissatisfied (4)
- ☐ Very Dissatisfied (5)

Q17 I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement

- ☐ Very Satisfied (1)
- ☐ Satisfied (2)
- ☐ Neutral (3)
- ☐ Dissatisfied (4)
- ☐ Very Dissatisfied (5)

Q18 I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.

- ☐ Very Satisfied (1)
- ☐ Satisfied (2)
- ☐ Neutral (3)
- ☐ Dissatisfied (4)
- ☐ Very Dissatisfied (5)

Q19 Please assign 100 points (total) to the time spent on the job feeling happy, neutral and unhappy:

_____ Happy: (1)

_____ Neutral: (2)

_____ Unhappy: (3)

Q20 Please assign 100 points (total) to the importance you place on following life domains:

_____ Work: (1)

_____ Family: (2)

_____ Religion: (3)

_____ Leisure: (4)

_____ Community: (5)

Q21 What is your level in the organization relative to the organization's starting level?

- ☐ 10 or more levels higher (1)
- ☐ 8 or more levels higher (2)
- ☐ 6 or more levels higher (3)
- ☐ 4 or more levels higher (4)
- ☐ 2 or more levels higher (5)

Q22 What is your level in the department relative to the department's starting level?

- ☐ 8 or more levels higher (1)
- ☐ 6 or more levels higher (2)
- ☐ 4 or more levels higher (3)
- ☐ 2 or more levels higher (4)
- ☐ 1 or level higher (5)

Q23 How many levels do you want to move up from your current position?

- ☐ 8 or more levels higher (1)
- ☐ 6 or more levels higher (2)
- ☐ 4 or more levels higher (3)
- ☐ 2 or more levels higher (4)
- ☐ 1 or level higher (5)

Q24 Have you already relocated to take a position of advancement?

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

Q25 Have you declined an opportunity to relocate for a position of advancement?

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

Q26 Would you be willing to relocate to take a position of advancement?

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe your (the) job, as objectively as you can. Please do not use the questionnaire to show how much you like or dislike your job. Questions about that will come later. Make your descriptions as accurate and objective as you possibly can. The scale is divided into three general levels, Very Much (7 and 6), Moderate (5, 4, and 3), and Very little (2 and 1). The top and bottom levels are further defined according to the kinds of things an employee would have to do to at this level of the specific job characteristic. For each job characteristic, first decide which of the three

levels best describes the job you are rating, High, Moderate, or Low. Then decide which number within that level best describes the job, and circle that number. For example, if you have moderate autonomy in the job, you would want to circle the number 3, 4, or 5 (with 3 being moderately low autonomy and 5 being moderately high autonomy).

Q27 How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?

- ☐ 1 Very little; the job gives me almost no personal say about how and when the work is done. (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 Moderate autonomy; many things are standardized and not under my control but I can make some decisions about the work. (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ 6 (6)
- ☐ 7 Very much; the job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done (7)

Q28 To what extent does your job involve doing a “whole” and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?

- ☐ 1 My job is only a tiny part of the overall piece of work; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service. (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 My job is a moderately sized chunk of the overall piece of work; my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome. (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ 6 (6)
- ☐ 7 My job involves doing the whole piece of work from start to finish; the results of my activities are easily seen in the final product or service. (7)

Q29 How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

- ☐ 1 Very little; the job requires me to do the same things over and over again. (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 Moderate variety. (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ 6 (6)
- ☐ 7 Very much; the job requires me to do many things using a number of skills and talents. (7)

Q30 In general, how much impact on others does your job have? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

- ☐ 1 Not very significant; the outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people. (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 Moderately significant. (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ 6 (6)
- ☐ 7 Highly significant; the outcomes of the work can affect other people in very important ways. (7)

Q31 To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing – aside from any “feedback” co-workers or supervisors may provide?

- ☐ 1 Very little; the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing. (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 Moderately; sometimes doing the job provides “feedback” to me; sometimes it does not. (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ 6 (6)

- ☐ 7 Very much; the job is set up so that I get almost constant “feedback” as I work about how well I am doing. (7)

Q32 Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job. You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate description of your job. Once again, please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement describes your job-regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Q33 The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)
- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q34 The job is arranged so that I have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)
- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q35 Just doing the work required by the job provides me many chances to figure out how well I am doing.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)

- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q36 This job is not at all simple or repetitive.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)
- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q37 This job is one where many other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)
- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q38 The job allows me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)
- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q39 The job provides me the chance to completely finish the piece of work I begin.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)
- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q40 The job itself provides many clues about whether or not I am performing well.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)
- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q41 The job itself gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)
- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Q42 The job itself is quite significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

- ☐ Very Accurate (1)
- ☐ Mostly Accurate (2)
- ☐ Slightly Accurate (3)
- ☐ Uncertain (4)
- ☐ Slightly Inaccurate (5)

- ☐ Mostly Inaccurate (6)
- ☐ Very Inaccurate (7)

Below are several statements about your life and your job. Using the scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding the item.

Q43 In most ways my life is close to ideal.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q44 The conditions of my life are excellent.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q45 I am satisfied with my life.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q46 So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q47 If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q48 Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q49 I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q50 I find real enjoyment in my work.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q51 My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q52 Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q53 I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q54 I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)
- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q55 I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.

- ☐ Strongly Agree (1)
- ☐ Mostly Agree (2)
- ☐ Slightly Agree (3)
- ☐ Neutral (4)

- ☐ Slightly Disagree (5)
- ☐ Mostly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Strongly Disagree (7)

Q56 I can explain the emotions I feel to team members.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q57 I respect the opinion of team members, even if I think they are wrong.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q58 I can read fellow team members 'true' feelings, even if they try to hide them.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q59 My enthusiasm can be contagious for members of a team.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q60 I can discuss the emotions I feel with other team members.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q61 When I am frustrated with fellow team members, I can overcome my frustration.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q62 I am able to describe accurately the way others in the team are feeling.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q63 I am able to cheer team members up when they are feeling down.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q64 If I feel down, I can tell team members what will make me feel better.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q65 When deciding on a dispute, I try to see all sides of a disagreement before I come to a conclusion.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q66 When I talk to a team member I can gauge their true feelings from their body language.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q67 I can get fellow team members to share my keenness for a project.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q68 I can talk to other members of the team about the emotions I experience.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q69 I give a fair hearing to fellow team members' ideas.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q70 I can tell when team members don't mean what they say.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q71 I can provide the 'spark' to get fellow team members enthusiastic.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Q72 Feel comfortable around people.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Disagree (7)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (8)
- ☐ Agree (9)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (10)

Q73 Have little to say.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Disagree (7)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (8)
- ☐ Agree (9)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (10)

Q74 Make friends easily.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Disagree (7)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (8)
- ☐ Agree (9)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (10)

Q75 Keep in the background.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Disagree (7)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (8)
- ☐ Agree (9)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (10)

Q76 Am skilled in handling social situations.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (6)
- ☐ Disagree (7)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (8)
- ☐ Agree (9)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (10)

Q77 Would describe my experiences as somewhat dull.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (4)
- ☐ Disagree (5)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (6)
- ☐ Agree (7)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (8)

Q78 Am the life of the party.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (4)
- ☐ Disagree (5)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (6)
- ☐ Agree (7)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (8)

Q79 Don't like to draw attention to myself.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (4)
- ☐ Disagree (5)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (6)
- ☐ Agree (7)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (8)

Q80 Know how to captivate people.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (4)
- ☐ Disagree (5)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (6)
- ☐ Agree (7)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (8)

Q81 Don't talk a lot.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (15)
- ☐ Disagree (16)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (17)
- ☐ Agree (18)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (19)

Q82 Instructions: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale next to each answer, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item.

Q83 I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q84 Sometimes I feel depressed.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q85 When I try, I generally succeed.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q86 Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q87 I complete tasks successfully.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q88 Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q89 Overall, I am satisfied with myself.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q90 I am filled with doubts about my competence.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q91 I determine what will happen in my life.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q92 I do not feel in control of my success in my career.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q93 I am capable of coping with most of my problems.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q94 There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.

- ☐ Strongly Disagree (1)
- ☐ Disagree (2)
- ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- ☐ Agree (4)
- ☐ Strongly Agree (5)

Q95 What is your age?

Q96 What is your gender?

- ☐ Male (1)
- ☐ Female (2)

Q97 What is your ethnicity?

- ☐ African American (1)
- ☐ Asian (2)
- ☐ Caucasian (3)
- ☐ Hispanic (4)
- ☐ Indian (5)
- ☐ Other (6)

Q98 Are you married?

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

Q99 Is your spouse employed outside the home?

☐ Yes (1)

☐ No (2)

APPENDIX B

Pepperdine University Graduate & Professional School IRB Approval Notice

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board

February 10, 2014

Alexander Sevilla

Protocol #: E1213D03

Project Title: An Examination of the Academic Program Participation and Career Success

Dear Mr. Sevilla:

Thank you for submitting your application, *An Examination of the Academic Program Participation and Career Success*, for expedited review to Pepperdine University's Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB). The IRB appreciates the work you and your advisor, Dr. Stephens, completed on the proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. As the nature of the research met the requirements for expedited review under provision Title 45 CFR 46.110 (Research Category 7) of the federal Protection of Human Subjects Act, the IRB conducted a formal, but expedited, review of your application materials.

I am pleased to inform you that your application for your study was granted **Full Approval**. The IRB approval begins today, **February 10, 2014**, and terminates on **February 10, 2015**. In addition, your application to waive documentation of informed consent has been **approved**.

Your final consent form has been stamped by the IRB to indicate the expiration date of study approval. One copy of the consent form is enclosed with this letter and one copy will be retained for our records. **You can only use copies of the consent that have been stamped with the GPS IRB expiration date to obtain consent from your participants.**

Please note that your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the GPS IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For **any** proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit a Request for Modification form to the GPS IRB. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for expedited review and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the GPS IRB. If contact with subjects will extend beyond **February 10, 2015**, a **Continuation or Completion of Review Form** must be submitted at least one month prior to the expiration date of study approval to avoid a lapse in approval.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the GPS IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the GPS IRB and the appropriate form to be used to report this information can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* (see link to "policy material" at <http://www.pepperdine.edu/irb/graduate/>).

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all further communication or correspondence related to this approval. Should you have additional questions, please contact me. On behalf of the GPS IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,



Thema Bryant-Davis, Ph.D.
Chair, Graduate and Professional Schools IRB
Pepperdine University

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives
Mr. Brett Leach, Compliance Attorney
Dr. Ronald Stephens, Faculty Advisor

