EMOTIONAL MATURITY AND LOCUS OF CONTROL AS PREDICTORS OF PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Ph.D. THESIS

by

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A THESIS

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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in the thesis entitled **"EMOTIONAL MATURITY AND LOCUS OF CONTROL AS PREDICTORS OF PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS"** in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the Department of Management Studies of the Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from December, 2015 to January, 2019 under the supervision of Dr. Santosh Rangnekar, Professor, Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee.

The matter presented in this thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute.

(NAGENDRA SINGH NEHRA)

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of my knowledge.

(Santosh Rangnekar)
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Date:_____

The Ph. D. Viva-Voce Examination of Mr. Nagendra Singh Nehra, Research Scholar, has been held on ....

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This is to certify that the student has made all the corrections in the thesis.

Signature of Supervisor (s)   Head of Department
Dated:.................................

ABSTRACT

The study aimed at examining the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control on employee personal effectiveness. Specifically the study investigated that how the dimensions of emotional maturity (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression, and independence) and locus of control (internal locus of control and external locus of control) influences employees' personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). The present study also examined the role of demographics (age, gender and hierarchical level) in impacting the dependent and independent variables of the study.

To accomplish the objectives of the study the data were collected from 410 Indian employees. The convenient sampling technique has been chosen for administering the survey for this study. The organizations selected for this study were from Haridwar, SIDCUL and Bagwanpur region of Uttarakhand State of India. The researcher target organisations with at least 1000 employees and an annual turnover of INR 100 crore. The organisations selected belonged to power, cement and manufacturing sectors. The different statistical techniques are used in this study are correlation analysis, multiple hierarchical regression analysis, independent sample t-test and MANOVA. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS and AMOS. Before analyzing the data were subject to preliminary screening of data, normality test and the assessment of common method bias (CMB).

After the preliminary data screening, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to test the factor structure of study variables in Indian context. Further various hypotheses were tested. Following this, the role of demographics has been tested using independent sample t- test and MANOVA. Further, multiple hierarchical regression were employed to determine the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control on employees personal effectiveness. In the final section of analysis, multiple hierarchical regression analysis was deployed to test all dimensions of emotional maturity and locus of control on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness.

The findings revealed that emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration and emotional progression associated with an emotional maturity varied with employees' age and the only dimension, i.e. independence did not vary with employees' age. Further, it was found that there exists no difference between the perception of males and females concerning all dimensions of emotional maturity. Finally, the results revealed that there exists significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception

with dimensions of emotional maturity, i.e. emotional stability, personality integration, emotional progression and independence, however, there are no differences among employees' hierarchical levels for social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity. The findings revealed that all dimensions of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control differ significantly depending upon employees' age. Further, it was found that there exists no significant difference among employees' gender concerning both dimensions of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control. Finally, the results revealed that their exist a significant difference in the perception of internal locus of control and external locus of control as perceived by the employees in different hierarchical levels.

The results revealed that there exists significant difference among employees' age concerning dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure. However, there are no significant differences among employees' age for other dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Further, while examining the influence of employees' gender on the dimensions of personal effectiveness, it was found that there exist no significant differences among employees' gender with respect to both dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure, and perceptiveness; but there exists significant differences of employees' gender on the dimension of personal effectiveness i.e. openness to feedback. Finally, the results demonstrated that there exists significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception about the dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure. However, there are no significant differences among hierarchical levels with respect to other dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness.

The results of the study revealed that overall emotional maturity was found to be significantly associated with employee personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that emotional maturity dimension (emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure and openness to feedback). Further, emotional stability dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that an emotional maturity dimension (social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure and openness to feedback). Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which assert that social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that an emotional maturity dimension (personality integration) has a significant

effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure and openness to feedback). Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results, which assert that personality integration dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which asserts that emotional progression dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on all dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback). Further, the results demonstrated that emotional maturity dimension (independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which asserts that independence dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on other two dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness).

The results demonstrated that overall locus of control (internal locus of control and external locus of control) is significantly associated with personal effectiveness. The result revealed that internal locus of control has a significant effect on (self-disclosure and openness to feedback). The results also showed that internal locus of control dimension of locus of control has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Finally, the result revealed that external locus of control has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness).

The study has many key implications: First, this study suggested that creation of emotional maturity is not limited to the process of recruitment. This study strongly suggests the yoga (like pranayama), training, spiritual counselling sessions and meditations activities at the workplace enhance the emotional maturity, positive self-concept and self-esteem. Thereby enabling employees to maintain their performance without external intervention and keep them motivated to work better than their normal limits to enhance the workplace performance. Second, organizations and managers need to plan accordingly and enable HR manager to strategically plan HR policies in line with the organizational objectives that eventually sustain a higher level of emotional maturity and internal locus of control within the employees. Third, the study recommends organizing employees' social gathering, festival celebration, and recreational activities that are likely to create a positive feeling and enhances the sense of belongingness to official group as a family; eventually it will lead to reasons for better interpersonal relationship and favourable work climate, which in turn to enhance the personal effectiveness. Fourth, the study suggested that organizations strongly stress to

develop the self-disclosure among employees. This helps to enhance positive feeling at workplace and reduces negative thought, which in turn improve the collective work culture and positive work environment.

Further, the results of the study effectively contribute to existing literature on emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness in following ways: First, this study attempted to investigate the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control with personal effectiveness. Therefore, by exploring and investigating the impact of relatively unknown relations between proposed relationships, this study fulfils the gap in existing literature and overcome the limitations in the academic research. Secondly unlike earlier studies which principally intended to investigate individual dimensions of emotional maturity and locus of control on personal effectiveness. This study is offers an insight where the influence of all dimensions of emotional maturity and locus of control on all dimensions of personal effectiveness was empirically examined.

Third, literature claimed that personal effectiveness issues are culture-specific; thus, what is rejected in one culture may be appreciated in other cultures. Importantly, literature continuously stresses on the culturally situated study of personal effectiveness may lead to insights about essential variables affecting personal effectiveness. It is notable, because of cultural complexity of India; it would be beneficial to the personal effectiveness literature to investigate the varied dimensions that likely to enhance the personal effectiveness in understudied, non-Western culture, like India. The study helps to clarify better how personality variables, i.e. emotional maturity and locus of control influence the individual personal effectiveness in a culture outside that of the Western countries like the United States.

Conclusively, this study contributes to the literature by fulfilling the existing gap by providing empirical shreds of evidence supporting the relationship between the emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness.

Keywords: Emotional maturity, locus of control, personal effectiveness

CONTENTS

Chapter-1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter-5 DISCUSSION

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ASV	Average Shared Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMB	Common-Method Bias
CR	Composite reliability
CV	Control Variable
df	Degree of Freedom
DV	Dependent Variable
EM	Emotional Maturity
ES	Emotional Stability
EP	Emotional Progression
ELoC	External Locus of Control
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
H	Hypothesis
HR	Human Resource
IV	Independent Variable
ILoC	Internal Locus of Control
I	Independence
LoC	Locus of Control
M	Mean
MSV	Maximum Shared Variance
N	Sample Size
NFI	Normed Fit Index
ns.	Non-significant
OF	Openness to feedback
P	Perceptiveness
PE	Personal Effectiveness
PI	Personality Integration
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
RQ	Research Questions

SA	Social Adjustment
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TLI	Tucker Lewis Index
α	Reliability Coefficient
χ^2	Chi-square

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INTRODUCTION

First Section
• The first section provides the background of the study.

Second Section
• The second section narrates the conceptual framework and theoretical foundation of emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness. The second section also entails the dimensions of emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness.

Third Section
• The third section is acquaintance with the rationale of the study.

Fourth Section
• The fourth section is provides with statement of the research problem.

Fifth Section
• The fifth section is provides with the scope of the study.

Sixth Section
• The sixth section detailed the research questions.

Seventh Section
• The final seventh section detailed the organization of the study along with chapter summary

Figure 1.1: Organization of the chapter 1

1.1 Background of the study

India has a complex culture because of the linguistic, religious, geopolitical, social, and cultural diversities (National Portal Of India, 2014). On religious ground, India comprises of Hindus (approximately 80.5%), Muslims (about 13%), Christians (approximately 5.84%), Sikhs (approximately 1.86%), Buddhist (approximately 0.82%) and people from other religions such as Jains and Parsis (Croucher, Faulkner, Oommen, & Long, 2010; National Portal of India, 2014). From linguistic aspect, India has more than 200 dialects, approximately 1.32 billion people, and 36 states (Dalal, 2006). Owing to religious and linguistic diversities, there are regional differences (Akbar, 2003). Each state acts as a country that occupies different layers of linguistic, religious, geopolitical, social and cultural dissimilarities. Further, India is a multifaceted fusion of an ancient culture and colonial heritage (Sen, 2005). Despite the facts of complex diversities in historical, cultural, political, linguistic, and religious domains, India keeps it intact as one nation and has a single federal government (Madan, 2005). Furthermore, India has become one of the emerging economies in the world, which has attracted global organizations because of the potential opportunities present in the country (Kumar, 1995; Ready, Hill, & Conger, 2008).

With regard to the prospective utilization of the opportunities and fulfilling the expectations of the 21[st]century, organizations are consistently stressing on the enhancement of personal effectiveness of employees for a country like India with complex diversities. The reason is that personal effectiveness encompasses self-disclosure, perceptiveness, and openness to feedback, which is necessarily a social phenomenon (Pasupathi, McLean, & Weeks, 2009). Furthermore, self-disclosure is inherently embodied within personal effectiveness. Moreover, there exists a positive association between self-disclosure and religion (Ragdale, 1994). Religiosity is also associated with self-knowledge and self-description, which in turn affect personal effectiveness (Blaine, Trivedi, & Eshleman, 1998). Further, culture is a system of shared meaning where people are likely to evaluate and interpret various circumstances and management practices in a consistent manner (Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990). Therefore, culture too plays a decisive role in understanding the actual mechanism of personal effectiveness of employees for organizations in India. Thus, it becomes crucial for these organisations to continuously build and support the possible practices and policies for enhancing the personal effectiveness of employees.

Personal effectiveness has received massive attention in various disciplines because of it strong association with goal-oriented behaviour and self-management. Therefore, personal effectiveness plays a central role in job effectiveness, job performance, and job satisfaction (Hartijasti & Fathonah, 2014; Jain, Shahnawaz, Gupta, Jha, & Bhatta, 2014). Studies in the field of organizational psychology have examined the relationship of personal effectiveness with leadership effectiveness, organizational effectiveness, and managerial effectiveness (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007). Furthermore, various studies have suggested the different determinants of personal effectiveness in different context. For instance, the primary determinants of personal effectiveness are reliability, initiative, critical thinking, and flexibility, specifically among the hospitality students in Malaysia (Shariff & Abidin, 2015). Another study conducted in the United Kingdom among the doctoral students suggested that personal qualities (self-confidence, responsibility, self-reflection, enthusiasm, integrity, perseverance), self-management (time management, work-life balance, commitment to research, preparation, prioritization), and career development (responsive to opportunity, career management, networking, esteem) are the determinants of personal effectiveness (Marbouti & Lynch, 2013). Sharma (2007) conducted the study on Indian executive and found that personal effectiveness has three major determinants—self-disclosure, perceptiveness, and openness to feedback.

Nehra and Rangnekar (2017) in their recent study suggested that self-disclosure is a significant determinant of personal effectiveness among Indian executives. Furthermore, few studies conducted in the United Kingdom, the United States, Hong Kong, Canada, South Africa, and New Zealand have examined the coping mechanism of employees with workplace challenges, promotion of positive work environment and supportive work culture as well as the development of better interpersonal relationship that eventually leads to personal effectiveness (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Pathak, 2001; Wolf & Housley, 2017). Furthermore, personal effectiveness better supports the adaptors and innovators ability within the individual (Gupta, 1993). Ojha (2015) in his study suggested that individual personal effectiveness better supports operational and organizational productivity. It is noteworthy that the enhancement of positive emotion supports personal effectiveness, which makes life more fulfilling and satisfactory (Kumar, Philip, & Sharma, 2014; Manz, 2014). The "broaden-and-build" of Fredrickson (1998) states that positive emotion enhances attention, cognition, and action attributes within individuals, which encourages the thought-action repertoire and boosts the intellectual, social, and physical resources (Fredrickson, 2001). Moreover, positive

emotion is an integral part of emotional maturity, which in turn relates emotional maturity with personal effectiveness.

Emotional maturity is considered as a variable of organizational psychology and as one of the most essential and decisive personality traits that are strongly associated with job satisfaction and job performance. Emotional maturity plays a crucial role in regulating and controlling emotions, which has relevance in various fields of study like social psychology and clinical psychology (Birajdar, 2016; Gholampour, Hafezian, Kazemian, Damirchi, Kani, & Gholizadeh, 2013; Liu & Liu, 2013; Pathak, Jaiswal, & Patwardhan, 2013; Sharma, 2011). Thus, emotional maturity helps in enhancing and regulating emotional tendencies that facilitates attainment of the desired goals of the organizations (Yusoff, Rahim, Mat Pa, See, Ja'afar, & Esa, 2011). Hence, it can be stated that emotional maturity is positively related to positive emotions, self-motivation, self-management, social maturity, self-awareness, and social skills, which supports the overall social adjustment in the society and workplace (Bernard, 1954; Coco & Guttionda, 2015; Shee & Pathak, 2006). Therefore, emotional maturity helps in developing better-coping capacity and reduces work stress that ultimately leads to leadership ability, smart workability, and enhanced superior-subordinate relationship (Park & Kim, 2013; Nicholls, Levy, & Perry, 2015). From the above discussion, it can be stated that emotional maturity supports thought-action repertoire and social resources that may lead to personal effectiveness. However, very few studies have explored the relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness, and these studies have been specifically conducted in the Western context. Therefore, this study seeks to fill this gap in the existing literature by investigating the proposed relationship in India.

Another crucial organizational construct that supports the personal effectiveness of employees is the locus of control (LoC). Over the last 50 years, LoC is one of the most important organizational psychological phenomenon that gets widespread attention from researchers, especially related to workplace outcomes like job performance, job satisfaction, job stress, self-efficacy, and self-monitoring (Chen & Silverthorne, 2008; Christopher, Saliba, & Deadmarsh, 2009). LoC refers to a common belief in the controllability of outcomes of events that are happening in one's life (Rotter, 1966). Rotter (1966) suggested two forms of locus of control - the internal locus of control and external locus of control. An internal locus of control (ILoC) refers as people believe in their capabilities and skills, that they can impact outcomes by appropriate actions (Perlow & Latham, 1993). ILoC has a positive association with self-management, self-esteem, self-efficacy, which leads to better autonomy in their behaviour (Judge & Bono, 2001). Moreover, ILoC has high self-esteem and shows higher job

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satisfaction; thereby they take an initiative to perform adequately, to maintain the positive self-image that eventually may lead to personal effectiveness (Korman, 1970; Spector, 1982). Whereas, external locus of control (ELoC) refers as people believe that the outcome of any events rest with luck, chance and others; therefore, they have no control over such events. ELoC has inactive, non-assertive, passivity and negative self-concept, this in turn to introvert and silent behaviour that leads to depression and anxiety (Benassi, Sweeney, & Dufour, 1988). Therefore, ELoC commonly leads to isolation and will not supports the personal effectiveness. Moreover, few studies have been conducted between the relationship of self-disclosure and locus of control among the students at the California State University and the University of Maine at Los Angeles (Ryckman, Sherman, & Burgess, 1973).

Additionally, Sandoz (1992) work on the locus of control demonstrates the relationship of locus of control and emotional maturity between the drinkers and non-drinkers' respondents, that too specifically in the context of social psychology. In spite of this, very few studies have independently investigated the relationship of emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness in the context of India. This study seeks to fill up above mention gap in the existing body of literature by investigating the proposed relationship in the context of India. To address the existing gap, this study aims to examine the relationship of emotional maturity and locus of control with personal effectiveness in the context of the organisational setting in India.

The discussion on two crucial constructs (emotional maturity and locus of control) considers the two independent variables and personal effectiveness as the dependent variable for this study. On the premise of existing literature, emotional maturity and locus of control possibly support the personal effectiveness of employees, specifically in the context of understudied non-Western culture like India. The next sections highlight the significance and research framework of the one dependent and two independent variables for this study. (Please see Figure 1.1)

1.2 EMOTIONAL MATURITY (EM)

1.2.1 Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation

Over the last 90 years, emotional maturity has been investigated extensively and plays a crucial role in guiding and facilitating emotional tendencies within people (Yusoff et al., 2011). Since 1924, the concept of emotional maturity first comes into existence by Alfred Adler in his book '*The practice and theory of individual psychology*'. Adler suggests that emotional maturity is comprised of self-confidence and positive, secure characteristics. The

weakness of physical, social, and intellectual characteristics leads to maladjustment and frustration that eventually cause the various problems of personality. The term emotional maturity is defined in multiple disciplines by numerous researchers. Emotional maturity plays a central role in controlling the emotions, this in turn to supports the positive emotions; therefore, emotional maturity has got widespread consideration from researchers in various disciplines (Birajdar, 2016). Emotional maturity implies an ability to keep control of emotion under specified bounds and show neutral fashion (Hollingworth, 1928). Moreover, emotional maturity refers to the ability to use political powers effectively, this in turn, to achieve desired goals (Morgan, 1934). Emotional maturity majorly acts as organisational psychology construct phenomena, despite its importance in various fields of studies in sociology, social psychology, and clinical psychology; emotional maturity considers as one of the most important constructs in organisational psychology (Hyatt, Hyatt, & Hyatt, 2007). Coleman (1948) refers to emotional maturity is the ability to cope with tension. Therefore, it better supports the unreasonable fear and threat (Bernard, 1954).

Moreover, emotional maturity is the ability of people to self-control, thinking capacity and possesses knowledge (Chamberlain, 1960) conventionally. Jersild (1960) work on emotional maturity refers to an indication of stress tolerance ability that leads to a higher level of compassion. The positive emotions are guided in part by emotional maturity; thus, emotional maturity has characteristics to effectively use the emotional resources to achieve the desired goals in a dynamic environment (Carmichael, 1968). Emotional maturity is an indicator of people emotional health that involves intra-psychically and intra-personally domains (Waller, 1974). In this sense, emotional maturity acts as a complex psychological process that maintains the emotional health. Hurlock (1981) argue that emotional maturity has three different characteristics; first emotional maturity keeps intact of emotions in balance, thus helping not to blow up the emotions; second rationally analyse the difficult situations ineffective way; and third, not to over and under the swing of emotions in any case. Consequently, emotional maturity supports the ability to easily influence the behaviours of the other (Fox & Zauderer, 1987). Harari (1995) argue that emotional maturity acts as a fundamental characteristic of a successful manager. Furthermore, emotional maturity maintains psychological equity between the brain and emotion that leads to maintaining the proper balance between the inner and outer world of the people (Landau, 1998). Therefore, emotional maturity comfortably faces the life challenges and accepts the actual reality of life that supports to the offering (nature) to others rather than receiving (Menninger, 1999). Avkiran (2000) work on emotional maturity argued that emotional maturity is positively

associated with entrepreneurial style and interpersonal skills among the bank's employees in the context of Australia. Dogan and Vecchio (2001) argue that emotional maturity can regulate the emotions and to withstand with emotion-based dysfunctional influences.

Emotional maturity has possessed good emotional health and supports emotional excitement (Chaube, 2002). Emotional maturity cannot anaesthetise the emotions; yet they control the emotions in an effective manner (Eddington, 2003). Hurley and Rankin (2008) suggest six levels of emotional maturity (i) emotional responsibility; (ii) emotional honesty; (iii) emotional openness; (iv) emotional assertiveness; (v) emotional understanding; and (vi) emotional detachment. Therefore, emotional maturity supports interpersonal interaction and fostering trust between employees (Mathers, 2009). Besides this, emotional maturity refers to the ability to support and guide emotional tendencies that support to accomplish the projected targets at the workplace (Yusoff et al., 2011). Emotional maturity has a comprehensive social adjustment this in turn, to better interpersonal interaction at the workplace and in society (Sharma, 2011). In line with previous studies, Goralnik, Millenbah, Nelson, and Thorp (2012) suggest that emotional maturity easily manage the pain, this in turn to enhance the stress tolerance ability that ultimately leads to survive against life failure. In this way, emotional maturity has better ability to learn various phases in life. It is noteworthy that leadership ability is inherently embodied within emotional maturity; therefore the better interpersonal relationship between followers and supervisors goes with emotional maturity (Hyatt et al., 2007; Lam & Higgins, 2012). Moreover, Devda and Makvana (2014) suggest that emotional maturity control the feelings and thoughts of people. Emotional maturity better interpreted and perceive others behaviour and was less likely to be suffering from misperception (Standen, Paull, & Omari, 2014). Therefore, emotional maturity is positively associated with social maturity; this would result in a better interpersonal relationship (Mallick, Singh, Chaturvedi, & Kumar, 2014). Emotional maturity was positively related to self-awareness, self-management, social skills and self-motivation (Coco & Guttionda, 2015). Nicholls et al. (2015) suggest that emotional maturity is positively related to coping effectiveness that leads to stress management. Recent research by Birajdar (2016) argued that emotional maturity demonstrates creativity at the correct time and not support destructive and discourteous behaviour. It is noteworthy that emotional maturity acts as a situated positive emotions practice and emotion regulation process that impacts social skills, social sharing, and interpersonal relationship (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Luminet, Bouts, Delie, Manstead, & Rimé, 2000; Rimé, Finkenauer, Luminet, Zech, & Philippot, 1998).

1.2.2 Emotional Maturity Dimensions for Current Research

Early studies provide evidence of various dimensions of emotional maturity in multitude of disciplines. Furthermore, numerous studies have framed and conceptualised the various dimensions of emotional maturity in a diverse context (Pastey & Aminbhavi, 2006). For instances, a study by Dean (1966) proposed the twenty-two items composite emotional maturity scale. This scale provides the fourteen types of emotional maturity (i) capacity to manage stress; (ii) capacity to manage anger; (iii) relationship in relation to authority; (iv) integration; (v) judgement; (vi) self-control; (vii) heterosexual responsibility; (viii) attitude with respect to learning; (ix) intellectual maturity; (x) responsibility; (xi) ego-centeredness; (xii) communication; (xiii) emotional security, and (xiv) social pose. However, this scale is widely accepted in the context of social psychology. On similar lines, Cole, Cole, and Dean (1980) used the emotional maturity scale as proposed by Dean's (1966) among the husband-wife pairs in the Ohio state of United States. Besides this, Nicholls et al. (2015) study explored the relationship between the emotional maturity, dispositional coping and coping effectiveness among the adolescent athletes that involves of Caucasian, Asian and African-Caribbean athletes. Nicholls et al. (2015) also adopted USM emotional quotient inventory (USMEQ-i; Yusoff et al., 2011) to measure the emotional maturity among the athletes. These above scales are widely provided substantial evidence and contextual utility in the field of social psychology, and sports psychology in the context of western culture. However, Singh and Bhargava (1990) is the well-known research that laid down the various dimensions of emotional maturity, specifically in the context of the organisational setting in India that highlighted in figure 1.2 below. Additionally, numerous studies also support the substantial evidence and contextual utility of emotional maturity dimensions among the Indian population (Rathee & Salh, 2010). Singh and Bhargava (1990) laid down five underlying dimensions of emotional maturity: emotional stability, social adjustment, emotional progression, personality integration and independence. This measure is the first of its kind where the dimensions are validated across many studies, specifically in the context of the organisational setting in India (Singh, Pant, & Dhyani, 2014).
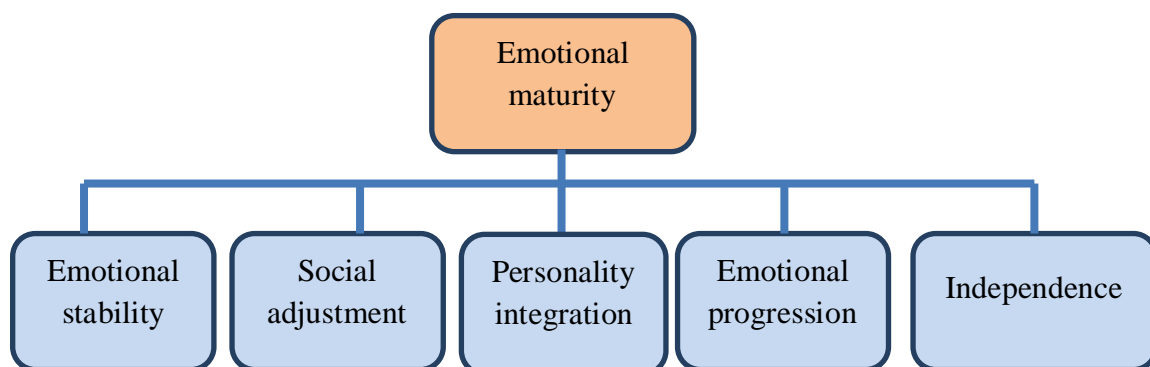
Figure. 1.2 Emotional maturity dimensions for current research

1.2.2.1 Emotional Stability (ES)

Emotional stability is one of the dimensions of emotional maturity and it refers to the ability of being calm in a situation of stress or work pressure (Bhagat, Simbak, & Haque, 2015). The positive association of emotional stability with positive emotion encourages social behavior (Rogosch & Cicchetti, 2004). Therefore, emotional stability shows characteristics that best support to social norms this in turn to social skills (Pisedtasalasai & Gunasekarage, 2007; Wong, Steinfeldt, LaFollette, & Tsao, 2011). Emotional stability has effective coping mechanisms, self-control and patience that support to cope up with the novel situations and ultimately in turn to less worry (Ang, Van Dyne, & Koh, 2006). Therefore, emotional stability is believed to be higher life satisfaction and to be happier (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). Emotional stability can regulate the emotions and better support stress tolerance capacity that eventually leads to personal strength within the individual (Friborg, Barlaug, Martinussen, Rosenvinge, & Hjemdal, 2005). Additionally, emotional stability supports personal resources that regulate negative emotions and efficiently manage adverse life circumstances (Nelis, Kotsou, Quoidbach, Hansenne, & Mikolajczak, 2011). Emotional stability can control impulses and handle the life challenges (Costa & McCrae, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1999). Therefore, emotional stability has a better adjustment in stressful situations (Ho, Cheung, You, Kam, Zhang, & Kliewer, 2013; Pisedtasalasai, 2010). Emotional stability embodied with positive self-concept and self-organised that leads to a connection with supreme soul (spiritual intelligence), this in turn to higher job satisfaction and business ethics (Cherati, Mahdavi, & Rezaeian, 2013; Mahdavi, 2009). Emotional stability has high self-esteem and negatively associated with depression and anxiety (McCrae, 1990). In this sense, emotional stability can regulate their emotional resources that lead to balance emotional functioning and to overcome stressful circumstances. Eventually, it reduces the symptoms of depression and anxiety (Ho et al., 2013). Emotional stability has an impulse to respond calmly to work stress and to support the occurrence of positive emotional states (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Pisedtasalasai & Rujiratpichathorn, 2017). Furthermore, emotional stability better controls individual inner states like feelings and attitude that eventually supports smart work (Park, 2014). Emotional stability is efficiently managing stress-events because of its capacity to remain calm (Korotkov, 2008). Consequently, emotional stability encompasses confident, positive and active characteristics that lead to effective social skills and this in turn to support the retention and work adjustment (Judge, Van Vianen, & De Pater, 2004).

1.2.2.2 Social Adjustment (SA)

Social adjustment means to live with others as adjusted, satisfied, adapted; and not as dissatisfied, unadjusted and maladjusted (Wright, 1942). The social adjustment has received extensive consideration among researchers in medicine, social psychology, clinical psychology and social sciences studies (Pollastri, Raftery-Helmer, Cardemil, & Addis, 2018; Savickas, Briddick, & Watkins, 2002; Suveg, Kingery, Davis, Jones, Whitehead, & Jacob, 2017). In addition to this, many conceptualisations have been studied to investigate the phenomena of social adjustment and its relationship to various personality characteristics (Russell-Carroll & Tracey, 2011). In spite of this, the concept has got lack of consideration within empirical research specifically concerning organisational psychology. Social adjustment is the skills require to satisfying, maintaining and supporting the interpersonal relationship that helps to cope up with social environment (Baker & Siryk, 1989). The social adjustment refers to an adaptation to the social environment that allows to changing the surrounding environment to suit the self (Cauce, 1986). Social adjustment is positively related to self-regulation among the preschool-aged children (Pecora, Sette, Baumgartner, Laghi, & Spinrad, 2016). A social adjustment has majorly two forms of significance; (i) subjective significance and (ii) objective significance. Subjective significance refers to a person who is satisfied as one lives with others. Objectively refers to a person who is live harmoniously and amicable (Cook, 1938; Waller, 1940). Social adjustment is positively associated with social sharing and social acceptance, that leads to supports social relationship (Collins & Miller, 1994; Ignatius & Kokkonen, 2007; Posey, Lowry, Roberts, & Ellis, 2010). An early study by Rogers (1961) argued that social adjustment has a positive relationship with a higher level of self-disclosure. Furthermore, social adjustment better supports individual to best fit with organisational environment (Tyagi & Gupta, 2005). In contrast, another study claimed that social adjustment is positively related to a lower level of self-disclosure (Truax, Altmann, & Wittmer, 1973). On similar lines Fantasia, Lombardo, and Wolf (1976) work on self-disclosure and social adjustment in State University of New York College at Cortland argued that social adjustment has a positive relationship with the higher level of self-disclosure than that of the lower level of self-disclosure. Research suggests that social adjustment is positively related to the high level of self-disclosure. Low-level self-disclosure show socially anxious and have occurrence high anxiety in comparison to high-level self-disclosure, specifically in the context of social circumstances. Furthermore, low-level self-disclosures have a fear of receiving a negative evaluation from the recipient.

1.2.2.3 Personality Integration (PI)

Personality integration is an approach for better understanding the optimal adjustment and active behaviour (Seeman, 1959). Personality integration is widely examined construct in social psychology and clinical-psychology (Cooley & Seeman, 1979; Odom, Seeman, & Newbrough, 1971; Rubinstein, 1954). In spite of this, personality integration has received little consideration within organisational psychology. Personality integration keeps intact of various motives into a single goal, and structure can achieve these goals into high-order values and service of long terms plans (Hirsh, 2014). Personality integration acts as a positive personality trait that can efficiently express her/his feeling (Doyne, 1969; Thomas & Seeman, 1971). Personality integration has reduces the tendency of hostile and threatening that leads to supports the positive and safe environment (Hearn, 1968). Personality integration is inherently embodied with high self-esteem, subjective well-being, positive self-concept and social adjustment (Fitts, 1971; Seeman, 1983). An individual having personality integration is task-oriented, and displays closed relation with their parents, which in turn enhance direct person-to-person interaction (Odom et al., 1971). Consequently, personality integration better supports individuals in making positive interpersonal relationships (Cooley & Seeman, 1979). Seeman (1963) suggests that personality integration encompasses self-organised and positive self-concept characteristics, which in turn lead to smooth interpersonal relationship. Self-esteem plays a crucial role in the enlargement of well-integrated personality (Brook, Ning, Balka, Brook, Lubliner, & Rosenberg, 2007). Moreover, high self-esteem readily accepts oneself and supports optimal psychological functioning (Kernis, Brown, & Brody, 2000). The research argued that high self-esteem and positive self-concept associated with integrated personality (Robins, Tracy, Trzesniewski, Potter, & Gosling, 2001). Importantly, high self-esteem and positive self-concept support self-disclosure (Comer, Haynes, Hamilton-Lee, Boger, & Rollock, 1987) and self-disclosure in an integral part of personal effectiveness.

1.2.2.4 Emotional Progression (EP)

Emotional progression plays a vital role in exploring the actual mechanisms of emotional advancement; however, emotional progression has got very less consideration within modern empirical literature specific to organisational context (Owaa, Aloka, & Raburu, 2015). Emotional progression supports better emotional advancement that leads to developing the righteousness and contentment capacity within the individual (Singh & Bhargava, 1990). Emotional progression can manage problems effectively and constructively; this, in turn, leads to speedily looking for best solutions rather than relying merely on emotional support. Emotional progression encompasses positive self-concept and high self-confidence that leads

to supports active personality (Loosemore & Lam, 2004). On this premise, emotional progression better supports interaction activities and interpersonal relationship between the people (Posey et al., 2010). Nehra and Rangnekar (2018) argued that emotional progression can make non-judgmental decisions; and supports self-regulation characteristics. In this sense, emotional tendencies are guided in part by the emotional progression that leads to non-judgemental decisions this ultimately in turn to support personal effectiveness.

1.2.2.5 Independence (I)

Independence is considered as one of the most highly desirable traits of personality that has a crucial role in the social and personal development of the individual (Stott, 1938). Interestingly, literature provides substantial evidence that independence would be examined in various fields of studies like social sciences, medicine, economics, psychology and organisational psychology (Arubayi, 2010; Parris, Varjas, Meyers, Henrich, & Brack, 2017). However, many studies stress on the central theme that independence implies as the individual ability to avoid overdependence and to facilitate self-development that leads to achieving the desired objectives (Edwards, Rust, McKinley, & Moon, 2003; Stöber & Seidenstücker, 1997). Independence supports self-regulation and self-development ability that leads to developing the decision-making capacity within the individual (Singh & Bhargava, 1990). Research suggests that independence is positively associated with psychological well-being and effective individual functioning (Marušić, Bratko, & Zarevski, 1995). Joplin, Quick, Nelson, and Turner (1995) suggest that individual having lack of independence results an inappropriately close or distant relationship with others. Whereas individual having independence exhibits moderate and secure contact with others that reduces stress and anxiety (Borkovec, Robinson, Pruzinsky, & DePree, 1983).

1.3 LOCUS OF CONTROL (LoC)

1.3.1 Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation

Locus of control implies the common belief concerning the controllability of outcomes of any events that occur in one's life (Rotter, 1966). Locus of control has importance in multitude disciplines such as sociology and clinical-psychology; in spite of this, locus of control plays a crucial role in organizational psychology related explicitly to workplace outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction and job stress (Chen & Silverthorne, 2008; Christopher et al., 2009; Hoffman, Novak, & Schlosser, 2003; Spector, Cooper, Sanchez, O'Driscoll, Sparks, Bernin, & Miller, 2002). An early study demonstrates the relationship of locus of control with social adjustment in individuals with learning disabilities (Estrada, Dupoux, & Wolman,

2006). Research suggests that the individuals with learning disabilities score high in social adjustment than their colleagues without learning disabilities. Moreover, the research argued that individuals having an external locus of control better support social adjustment. Research by Chen and Silverthorne (2008) explores the relationship between locus of control, job stress, job performance, and job satisfaction among the employees of public accountant firms in Taiwan. The research argued that locus of control plays a crucial role in predicting the job stress, job performance and job satisfaction. Research also suggests that employee having an internal locus of control shows the higher level of job satisfaction and job performance, but the lower level of job stress than that of an employee having an external locus of control. Besides this, another study by Judge and Bono (2001) explores the relationship of core self-evaluation traits – generalised self-efficacy, emotional stability, self-esteem, and locus of control with job performance and job satisfaction. Research suggests that the positive relationship between all four traits – emotional stability, internal locus of control, self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy with job satisfaction and job performance. A recent study by Ariza-Montes, Leal-Rodríguez, Rodríguez-Félix, and Albort-Morant (2017) investigate the relationship between the locus of control, social support, stress, and strain among owners and manager in Spanish manufacturing organisations. The study argued that social support and locus of control emerge as significant variables that influence the level of anxiety and stress among the managers and owners in Spanish manufacturing organisations. Furthermore, another study explores the relationship between the locus of control, self-concept and interpersonal conflict resolution approaches in Ankara state of Turkey (Şahin, Basım, & Çetin, 2009). Research suggests that internal locus of control plays a vital role in the selection of problem resolutions approaches. Lam and Mizerski (2005) indicate the relationship between the locus of control and word-of-mouth communication among the individuals at the University of Perth, Australia. The research found that internal locus of control positively associated with the word-of-mouth communication with out-groups; whereas external locus of control positively associated with the word-of-mouth communication within-groups. Here, out-groups refer to individuals having a weak interpersonal relationship with others; and in-groups implies as individuals having a strong interpersonal relationship with others.

1.3.2 Locus of Control Dimensions for Current Research

Rotter (1966) in his well-established research, shows that the dimensions of locus of control are; (i) internal locus of control and (ii) external locus of control. Many studies support the substantial evidence of locus of control dimensions in multitude disciplines; despite the fact, Phares (1976) argued that this scale is rough measure, and there is imperative necessity to

develop the domain-specific measures. Considering this, the locus of control by Spector's (1988) suggests the work specific dimensions. Therefore, we employ locus of control dimensions by Spector (1988) in this study. Thiruchelvi and Supriya (2012) work on the locus of control and well-being relationship among the information technology professionals in the Indian context. The research provides the reliability and contextual utility of Spector's locus of control in an Indian context. Similarly, another study by Jain, Giga, and Cooper (2013) demonstrates the utility of Spector's locus of control among the middle levels executives specific to the manufacturing sector in the context of North India. The entire dimension has been described underneath in brief. Please refer figure 1.3 for dimensions of locus of control for this study.

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            │    Locus of     │
            │     control     │
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│  Internal locus │    │  External locus │
│    of control   │    │    of control   │
└─────────────────┘    └─────────────────┘
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Figure. 1.3 Locus of control dimensions for current research

1.3.2.1 Internal Locus of Control (ILoC)

Internal locus of control (ILoC) refers to believe in their skills and capabilities, which lead to impact the outcomes (Perlow & Latham, 1993). Studies argued that ILoC has a positive relation with self-esteem, self-management, self-efficacy, that in turn, to self-sufficiency in self-behaviour (Judge & Bono, 2001). ILoC can take the initiative to perform effectively that supports in maintaining the positive self-image and ultimately leads to better performance (Korman, 1970). ILoC can reduce the loneliness and enhances hope and optimism that in turn, supports the strong desire for intimacy (Mikulincer & Segal, 1991). Moreover, ILoC has adopted a problem-focused coping strategy that leads to enhancing the intimacy tendency (Gerson & Perlman, 1979; Marangoni & Ickes, 1989). ILoC is inherently embodied with activeness, self-confidence and positive self-concept (Anderson, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2005). ILoC has encompassed high self-esteem which, in turn, allows to freely express the self-concept issues that ultimately lead to an interpersonal relationship (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Shapiro & Swensen, 1977). ILoC can make better cost-benefit analysis in various domains (Cobb-Clark, Kassenboehmer, & Sinning, 2016). ILoC has the relevance to support for the fully functioning person (Butterfield, 1964; Fish & Karabenick,

1971; Ryckman et al., 1973). ILoC has associated with a secure emotional base that supports in developing a close relationship with others (Prager, 1986). ILoC has a positive influence on employee effectiveness and trust. ILoC adopts effective coping mechanisms for resolving various conflicts; this, in turn to supports the constructive way of addressing the problems (Şahin et al, 2009). ILoC has emotional expression ability that inherently embodied with activeness, self-confidence and positive self-concept (Anderson et al., 2005; Loosemore & Lam, 2004). The research argued that there is a positive correlation between the positive self-concept, emotional support, better friendship relationships and organisational performance (Cauce, Hannan, & Sargeant, 1986; Vernberg, 1990; Zhang & Bruning, 2011). Furthermore, there is a positive association with happiness, high self-esteem, positive emotions, intrinsic job satisfaction and democratic leadership style (Baumeister et al., 2003; Garbato, 2010). Research by Yeşilyaprak (2000) suggests that ILoC has dynamic, active and enterprising characteristics that lead to useful conflict solving ability. ILoC has positive self-perception that supports inner motivation within the people (Fazey & Fazey, 2001).

1.3.2.2 External Locus of Control (ELoC)

External locus of control (ELoC) implies to believe that the outcome of any events largely depends on chance, luck and others; and they have no control over such events. ELoC posses various characteristics such as passivity, non-assertive, negative self-concept and inactive, that leads to silent and introvert behaviour which ultimately results in anxiety and depression (Ashby, Kottman, & Draper, 2002; Benassi et al., 1988). Therefore, ELoC has adopted emotion-focused coping strategies that eventually lead to isolation (Mikulincer & Segal, 1991). ELoC has passive behaviour ability that leads to prefer the delegating decision-making process (Merton, 1947). Kasperson (1982) suggests that a high positive correlation between ELoC and negative attitudes that leads to low job satisfaction. Besides this, ELoC commonly ignores the challenges of professional growth and learning; because of their perception that knowledge will not influence them (Anderson et al., 2005; Salazar, Hubbard, & Salazar, 2002). ELoC depends upon the supervisory support to reduce the level of job stress (Yang & Wang, 2010). Therefore, ELoC results in less job satisfaction due to job stress. Organ and Greene (1974) argued that ELoC is positively associated with role ambiguity and negatively associated with job satisfaction. Bradley and Sparks (2002) found that supervisor having ELoC show less response towards subordinate achievements. ELoC is likely to be less committed towards the organisations (Furnham & Greaves, 1994; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987). ELoC is not actively involved in searching for the required information that leads to perceiving fewer alternatives (Coleman, Irving, & Cooper, 1999).

ELoC has shown depression and anxiety that leads to lower self-efficacy, quality of life, happiness and well-being (Omani, Maroufizadeh, Navid, & Amini, 2017). ELoC has not supported the risk-taking behaviour that leads to the lower tendency of information search for decision making (Howell & Avolio, 1993). An individual with ELoC commonly has low income, are less educated, and possess lower corporate position. ELoC is more likely to communicate with the families and friends (i.e. in-groups) (Lam & Mizerski, 2005). ELoC is associated with self-disclosure in a situation of anxiety and depression, which in turn develop a poor interpersonal relationship (Stiles, Shuster, & Harrigan, 1992). ELoC encompasses lack of confidence, poor self-perception and low esteem that in turn to passivity in interpersonal relationships (Doherty, 1981; Goodman, Cooley, Sewell, & Leavitt, 1982; Yeşilyaprak, 2000). An individual having ELoC generally believes that they perceive themselves as inadequate and non-assertive that leads to avoidance strategy to conflict management (Canary, Cunningham, & Cody, 1988; Loosemore & Lam, 2004). An individual with ELoC is associated with negative self-concept and introvert in their behaviour (Hay, Ashman, & Van Kraayenoord, 1998). Research suggests that ELoC is positively related to low self-esteem and depression (Cauce, 1986; Vernberg, 1990).

1.4 PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS (PE)

1.4.1 Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation

Since the inception of personal effectiveness concept by Fiedler (1958) defines personal effectiveness as an individual ability to operate effectively. Later, Campbell, Converse, Miller, and Stokes (1980) in his book '*American voter*' say about personal effectiveness as the sense of feeling of mastery over the environment and the self. Another study by Howell (1966) argued that personal effectiveness varies from person to person among the employee of federal health organisation in the western context. Presence of ancient culture, colonial heritage and religious diversity of India that encompasses of various layers of historical, cultural, political, linguistic and religious domains strongly influences the socio-psychological aspects of populations and situation elements of one's state of mind that strongly influences the people behaviour (Chen, 1995; Verghese, 2008). These above characteristics stress on developing and maintaining the personal effectiveness of employees' in an organisation specifically in the context of a culturally complex and religiously rich country like India. The research argues that organisational environment is commonly associated with the culture in the region that ultimately leads to affect the individual personal effectiveness (Arthur, 1994; Donald, Taylor, Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright, & Robertson,

2005; Ritbumroong, Tanlamai, & Santivejul, 2013; Schneider, 1995). Personal effectiveness is the extent to achieve the task related to the job or the degree of each employee's productivity (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007). Personal effectiveness supports the so-called 'life' through possessing the require adaptability and flexibility, which in turn results into being more effective in the workplace, at home and in education (Bhardwaj & Momaya, 2006; Unwin & Wellington, 1997). Personal effectiveness plays as a crucial role in unlocking the (hidden) potential that an employee has (Jain et al., 2014). Personal effectiveness implies as beliefs in one's ability that supports the cognitive resources and motivation that leads to course of action which helps to cope up with the circumstances demand (Gosselin, Lemyre, & Corneil, 2013). The research argued that personal effectiveness is related to better self-awareness. However, an individual only understanding only self will not support the overall effectiveness of the individual. Personal effectiveness largely supports the development of various competencies like communication, presentation skills, assertiveness, conflict handling, decision making, action planning, objective setting and problem-solving that leads to effectively perform the job work and enhancing the employee's performance (Brewis, 1996; Gupta & Kumar, 2012; Sharma & Writer, 2015). Besides this, personal effectiveness is one's ability to effectively perform the job (Sutton & Ford, 1982). Personal effectiveness commonly depends on the nature and type of job work. Importantly, personal effectiveness defined as behaviour evaluation concerning its contribution to achieving the desired goals within the organisation (Ekaterini, 2011). On similar lines, personal effectiveness acts as the normative element that supports to evaluate the actions and behaviour of employees, and they are in sync with the organisational objectives and goals (Churchill, Ford, Hartley, & Walker, 1985). The research argued that emotional support and social participation leads to personal effectiveness; which in turn to enhance the organisational effectiveness (Manning, 2013). A recent study by Manz (2014) argued that emotional supports enhanced personal effectiveness leads to more life satisfaction. Personal effectiveness reduces the work stress, maladjustment and burnout that eventually lead to clearer role-related objectives and goals (Sharma, 2007). Personal effectiveness supports in developing oneself that enhances higher life satisfaction, which in turn to increases employee work productivity (Ojha, 2014; Sharma, 2015). Personal effectiveness also supports enhancing the managerial skills among private sector banks in India (Kumar, Kiran, & Ahuja, 2010). The research argued that the better superior-subordinate relationship supports employee personal effectiveness and reduces work-life conflict (Agarwala, Arizkuren-Eleta, Del Castillo, Muniz-Ferrer, & Gartzia, 2014;

Davidhizar, 1999). Personal effectiveness acts on an individual in such a way which in turn leads to becoming a competent manager (Brewis, 1996).

1.4.2 Personal Effectiveness Dimensions for Current Research

Pareek and Purohit (2011) demonstrate the various dimensions of personal effectiveness in the context of India. The dimensions of personal effectiveness are self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Additionally, many studies provide the substantial evidence and contextual utility of personal effectiveness dimensions in the Indian population (Pareek, 1997; Sharma, 2007). However, various other personal effectiveness dimensions were used in diverse field of studies. For instances, research suggests the three aspects of personal effectiveness are personal qualities, career development and self-management among the UK doctoral students in a University setting (Marbouti & Lynch, 2014). Furthermore, another study suggests that self-discipline, competence, achievement striving, dutifulness, order and deliberation are the dimensions of personal effectiveness among the undergraduate's students in Canada (Holden & Evoy, 2005).

In spite of this, no prior study has investigated the personal effectiveness dimensions in the context of India that too specifically in an organisational setting. Therefore, we employed the personal effectiveness dimension that is laid down by the Pareek and Purohit (2011) in the context of Indian populations among the Indian executives. Additionally, this measure is the first of its kind that validated by many studies that too specifically in an organisational setting in India (Nehra & Rangnekar, 2019; Sharma, 2007). The entire dimension has been described underneath in brief. Please refer figure 1.4 for dimensions of personal effectiveness for this study.

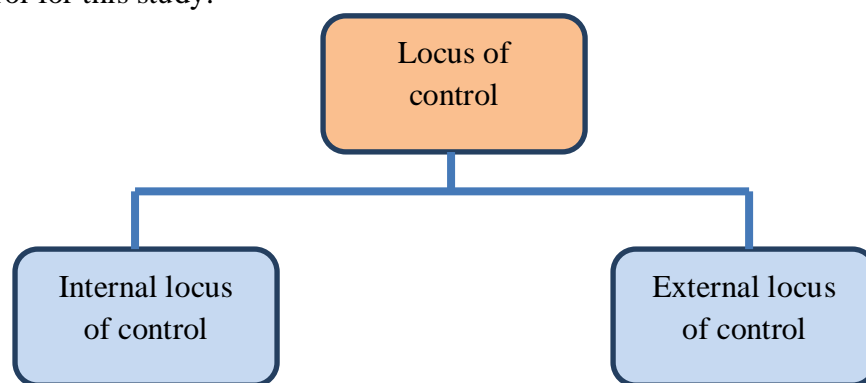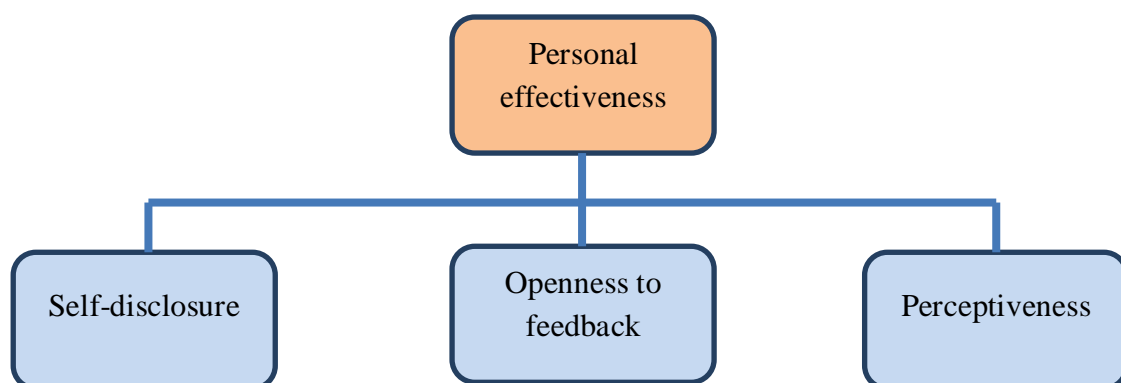**Figure. 1.4: Personal effectiveness dimensions for current research**

1.4.2.1 Self-disclosure (SD)

Over the last 30 years, self-disclosure has played a crucial role in building the interpersonal relationship between people (Claeys, Cauberghe, & Pandelaere, 2016). Self-disclosure plays a decisive role in creating the collective work culture, positive work environment and better interpersonal relationship in organizational psychology despite its relevance in various disciplines like clinical psychology, sociology and social psychology; self-disclosure is considered as one of the essential communication constructs at the workplace (Breger, Newman, Mfangam, Akam, Balimba, Atibu, & Pence, 2017; Suveg et al., 2017). Globalization offers an opportunity to operate the functioning of organisations across the globe. Thus, an organisation has employees' from various languages, culture, and religions. To be flexible and thrive in this multicultural work diversity and cultural sensitivity, organisations consistently stress on developing the better interpersonal relationship between the employees (Brett, Behfar, & Kern, 2009; Collins & Miller, 1994; Hamid, 1994). In this sense, an interpersonal relationship is guided in part through self-disclosure that serves as a crucial tool for supportive work climate, trust and collective work culture, this in turn to share, absorb and disseminate available knowledge between employees and vendors; that eventually leads to enhance the job performance and organization success (Bamel, Rangnekar, Stokes, & Rastogi, 2013; Gupta & Sushil, 2014; Wang & Yang, 2007). Furthermore, self-disclosure, through various communication technologies, supports virtual team performances (Ganesh & Gupta, 2008). Falk and Wager (1985) define self-disclosure implies as information sharing about self with the others. Self-disclosure refers to personal information sharing that seems to enhance the human social behaviour (Jourard, 1971).

Furthermore, self-disclosure refers to interactive activities that involve information associated with oneself that happened in the present and past time (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979; Derlega, Anderson, Winstead, & Greene, 2011). Self-disclosure is classified into two ways-(i) spontaneous and (ii) protective (Charmaz, 2002). Spontaneous disclosure refers to openly expresses one-self without effort to manage the level of the information shared. Protective disclosure implies emotional calculations while providing information to others. Self-disclosure encompasses every nature of descriptive and evaluative information that involves feelings, goals, dreams, thoughts, aspirations, successes, fears, failures, as well as one's dislikes, likes that one discloses to another individual (Harris, Dersch, & Mittal., 1999). Self-disclosure is considered as one of the vital factors of good personality (Jourard, 1971). Further, self-disclosure refers to thoughts and feeling that supports in developing the trust and the liking (Collins & Miller, 1994; Wheeless & Grotz, 1977). Self-disclosure supports

affirmative beliefs and enhances individual interpersonal relationships; that leads to individual become nearer to each other (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958; Jourard, 1959). Self-disclosure can reduce the bias in out-groups (Brewer & Miller, 1984; Ensari & Miller, 2001; Urban & Miller, 1998). Self-disclosure plays a decisive role in developing a positive interpersonal relationship (Forgas, 2011). Furthermore, the interaction mechanism of self-disclosure enhances employee satisfaction, organisational commitment, customer orientation and financial growth (Bulent & Adrian, 2009; Tabari, Shirazi, & Mahdavi, 2018). Research reveals that sharing of relevant information with others leads to the building of social connectivity and positive social interpersonal relationships (Dindia, Allen, Preiss, Gayle, & Burrell, 2002).

Self-disclosure supports better interpersonal relationship that is beneficial to the employees' social and organisational living (Arpan & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2005; Wigley, 2011). Importantly, there is a critical need to be exercised concerning the correctness and appropriateness of the shared information (Mehrabian & Ksionzky, 1972). Harris et al. (1999) argued that self-disclosure is a dynamic and complex process that is influenced by numerous factors like cultural aspects, individual differences, motivational aspects, emotional states, trust, risk, confidentiality and self-presentation. Sekhar, Patwardhan, and Vyas (2017) suggest that better interpersonal relationship and self-disclosure enhance the firm performance. Self-disclosure is considered as a positive experience that supports information of intimate relationship, social acceptance and building of internal energy which, in turn, to reduce the stress level within the people (Posey et al., 2010). Further, self-disclosure supports interpersonal relationship that helps in building useful learning experiences and sharing pleasing relations, among the superior-subordinate relationship (Kakarika, 2012), which in turn leads to a fostering of trust and collective learning culture between employees'. Importantly, employees' search for appropriate information and knowledge from trusty and competent peers (Koskinen, Pihlanto, & Vanharanta, 2003).

1.4.2.2 Openness to Feedback (OF)

Openness to feedback refers to feedback on those aspects of an individual that is known to others, but the individual himself is not aware of them. The feedback may be in the form of negative or positive. Furthermore, negative feedback leads to dissonance with the self-image and threat to the ego. In the case of negative feedback, people commonly show defensive behaviour. Defensive behaviour acts as pain-killing drugs that reduce the pain but do not reduce the cause of the pain. Defensive behaviour regularly builds an illusion of negative feedback. Furthermore, defensive behaviour will not change the situation, but they reduce the

anxiety level within the individual. Defensive behaviour encompasses various characteristics, such as denial, displacement, withdrawal, aggression, and pairing. Defensive behaviour may result in a conflicted self. Whereas confronting behaviour reduces the self-conflict, this leads to integrated person. Confronting behaviour involves various characteristics such as self-analysis, empathy, explorations, helps seeking, listening and positive critical attitude. Openness to feedback stress on developing mutual understanding and supports in building trust.

1.4.2.3 Perceptiveness (P)

Perceptiveness refers to the ability to understand the non-verbal and verbal cues from the others. Perceptiveness and self-disclosure reinforce each other that lead to enhancing the personal effectiveness. Perceptiveness is commonly used in two ways - appropriately and non-appropriately. For instances, when an individual is too conscious about others feeling, then it may lead to inhibit the interaction. Moreover, when an individual is too aware of his limitations, than also, it will not support interaction. The perceptiveness can be likely to be more active, when an individual can understand what other is willing to say.

1.5 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Evolving fast-growing competition in the global market results in the imperative necessity to develop employee's personal effectiveness in India (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). Considering this, the organisation continuously emphasis on the development of human capital in the form of personal effectiveness that overcome the continuous pressure from global competition in the Indian market (Agarwala, 2005; Agarwala, 2008; Budhwar, 2000). Many empirical studies on personal effectiveness have been conducted in the United Kingdom and Canada that too in a university setting among the undergraduate's students (Holden & Evoy, 2005; Marbouti & Lynch, 2014). However, the facts that few studies investigate the personal effectiveness in the context of emerging economies like India, especially in an organisational setting (Sharma, 2015). Therefore, it becomes crucial to examine the factors affecting the personal effectiveness of employees in the context of India. Like any other country, culture plays a decisive role in the development of personal effectiveness. As personal effectiveness encompasses self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness acts as social phenomena. Thus, they are primarily influenced by culture (Chen, 1995; Pasupathi et al., 2009). Besides this, the socio-cultural characteristics of any nation is likely to influence the socio-psychological perspective of people and the situational element of one state of mind that is directly associated with individual behaviour, thoughts and values that eventually

affect the personal effectiveness (Budhwar & Singh, 2008; Chen, 1995; Sushil, 2012; Verghese, 2008). It is noteworthy that, national culture involves norms, social values, and customs that are likely to influence the personal effectiveness of employees (Budhwar, 2008; Sharma, 2007; Sharma, 2015). In fact, religiously rich and cultural complexity of India leads the necessity to explore the varied dimensions that will affect the personal effectiveness in understudied, non-U.S. cultures, like India (Croucher et al., 2010). Additionally, India reported low in masculinity and high on collectivism (Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2012). Low on masculinity implies that caring for the weak, stress on the quality of life and supports warm personal relationships are given more importance over the performance; this eventually emerges the necessity to develop personal effectiveness in the Indian context. Besides this, culture is a system of shared meaning where people interpret and evaluate diverse situations and management practices in a consistent manner (Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990). Saini and Budhwar (2004) argued that national and socio-cultural influences exist on the management practices in India, where interpersonal relationship acts as a motivation tool at the workplace. Personal effectiveness has served as a crucial tool for building job performance, interpersonal relationship and reduces negative feelings with others (Kakarika, 2012). Furthermore, Gupta, Acharya, and Patwardhan (2012) suggest that personal effectiveness better supports in monitoring quality goals. Other important characteristics like self-esteem, positive self-concept, self-regulation, self-control, cost-reward analysis, positive emotions, positive events and correctness of shared information, influences the personal effectiveness (Churchill et al., 1985; Jain et al., 2014; Manz, 2014). "Little research, however, examined on the role of positive emotions, positive events, and self-esteem, though its impact on job performance, common work culture and personal effectiveness are considered to be significant (Gable, Gonzaga, & Strachman, 2006; Petronio, 2002; Reis, Smith, Carmichael, Caprariello, Tsai, Rodrigues, & Maniaci, 2010; Sharma, 2015; Ting-Toomey, 2005).

In fact, emotional maturity positively influences emotional support, social participation, self-awareness, positive emotions, self-esteem, positive events and better interpersonal relationship (Avkiran, 2000; Carmichael, 1968; Chamberlain, 1960; Chaube, 2002; Coleman, 1948; Devda & Makvana, 2014; Dogan & Vecchio, 2001; Eddington, 2003; Fox & Zauderer, 1987; Hurlock, 1981; Waller, 1974; Yusoff et al., 2011). Emotional maturity encompasses interpersonal-intrapersonal elements. Interpersonal elements involve social skills, social resources and social sharing. Intrapersonal factors comprise of high self-esteem, positive emotions, positive self-concept, personal strength and calm behaviour. These interpersonal-intrapersonal elements support employees' personal effectiveness. Therefore,

personal effectiveness is a combined process of intrapersonal-interpersonal elements that is guided in part and expedited via emotional maturity. Similarly, another important construct that is likely to support the personal effectiveness is the locus of control. Research suggests that personality characteristics such as self-management, self-esteem, self-efficacy, positive self-image, self-confidence, and activeness that are likely to support the personal effectiveness and are guided in part through locus of control (Anderson et al., 2005; Baumeister et al., 2003; Cauce, 1986; Chen & Silverthorne, 2008; Korman, 1970; Loosemore & Lam, 2004; Shapiro & Swensen, 1977; Vernberg, 1990). Therefore, the locus of control is likely to support the employees' personal effectiveness in the context of India. Despite the fact, a very few studies independently explore the relationship between emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness in the context of India.

Additionally, the literature also provides the substantial evidences that various important attributes (like positive emotions, physical, social, and intellectual resources) are also guided in part by different well known and established theories like capitalization theory and broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998; Gable, Reis, Impett, & Asher, 2004). However, many studies have been conducted to show the relevance of these theories, other than proposed study variables in the context of the United States, United Kingdom, Europe, China and Australia. The studies on sharing positive events and their outcomes (capitalization theory) that have been conducted in the context of the United States and Europe have actively called for more research in non-western cultures to see how individual manage positive emotions, positive events and support personal effectiveness (Utz, 2015). A recent study by Nehra and Rangnekar (2017) conducted in the context of Indian culture reveals the role of broaden-and-build theory on the relationship between social adjustment, emotional stability and self-disclosure. The study stressed the need to explore various factors that likely to supports personal effectiveness in the Indian context. Especially, Croucher et al. (2010) have highlighted the need for such a study in an Indian context. They argue that India is a philosophical and spiritual nation with a diverse and complex culture that is very different from that of Western culture and therefore it is necessary to explore the various dimensions that associate with personal effectiveness in an Indian context. Several other studies have also stressed on the importance of research in examining the impact of sharing positive events and positive emotions on people personal effectiveness in context of India (Allen, Long, O'Mara, & Judd, 2003; Gable et al., 2004; Jain et al., 2014). In spite of repeated calls from researchers, a very few studies independently have examined the relationship of emotional maturity and locus of control with personal effectiveness in the Western context (Derlega et

al., 2011). Additionally, a very few studies independently have been conducted that explored the role of broaden-and-build theory and capitalization theory on the proposed relationship in the Indian context. The present study seeks to fill above mention gap in the existing body of literature by exploring the proposed relationship through the support of the theoretical lens of capitalization theory and broaden-and-build theory in the context of India.

Based on the calls from Croucher et al. (2010), Gable et al. (2004), Hasting (2000), Nehra and Rangnekar (2016) this study seeks to examine the association between the emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness. We use the supportive theoretical lens of broaden-and-build theory and capitalization theory to frame this study (Reis et al., 2010). Capitalization theory is an appropriate theoretical framework for examining personal effectiveness because the way people display social connections, interpersonal relationships, and relationship well-being, is guided in part by sharing positive events and positive reflected responses by the recipients (Langston, 1994) that ultimately supports the personal effectiveness. Additionally, we use broaden-and-build theory to frame this study because positive emotion endorses the individual thought-action repertoire (means to enhance the cognition, attention and action) and to build the resources (means to facilitate social, physical and intellectual resources) that eventually supports the personal effectiveness (Fredrickson, 2001).

Conclusively, on the premise of above literature, as yet, we do not know the extent to which emotional maturity and locus of control act as a predictor of personal effectiveness in the Indian context and the extent to which capitalization theory and broaden-and-build theory is relevant to the proposed relationship in the context of India. Even though few studies independently have been conducted to explore the emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness that too explicitly in the Western context. Therefore, this study seeks to fill this gap in the existing literature to empirically investigate whether emotional maturity and locus of control act as predictors of personal effectiveness in the context of India.

1.6 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

The fast-growing competition in the global market has made it imperative to develop employee's personal effectiveness in India (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). Therefore, the organization continuously emphasizes on the development of human capital through development of personal effectiveness that will help in overcoming the incessant pressure that the Indian market is experiencing from global competition (Agarwala, 2005; Agarwala,

2008; Budhwar, 2000). Many empirical studies on personal effectiveness have been conducted in the United Kingdom and Canada that too in a university setting among the undergraduate's students (Holden & Evoy, 2005; Marbouti & Lynch, 2014). However, the facts that few studies investigate the personal effectiveness in the context of emerging economies like India, especially in an organisational setting (Sharma, 2015).

Furthermore, few studies on personal effectiveness that have been conducted in United Kingdom, United States, Hong Kong, Canada, South Africa, and New Zealand have called for more research to "determine how employees cope up with workplace challenges, cultivate positive work environment, supportive work culture and develops better interpersonal relationship, that eventually leads to personal effectiveness (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Pathak, 2001; Wolf & Housley, 2017). In addition, few studies have been conducted on personal effectiveness with respect to demographics relations; however such have been conducted in China, Taiwan, and United Kingdom context (Egan et al., 2012; Manning, 2013; Yuan and Shen, 1998). However, the facts that few studies investigate the role of demographics (age, gender and hierarchical level) on personal effectiveness in the context of emerging economies like India.

It is noteworthy that the positive emotion enhanced and supports personal effectiveness, this in turn to fulfilling life and more life satisfaction (Kumar, Philip, & Sharma, 2014; Manz, 2014). Moreover, positive emotion is an integral part of emotional maturity. The early studies also provided substantial evidence that employees' emotional maturity dimensions might influence through various demographics such as age, gender and hierarchical level more specifically in Western context ((Johnson, Rogers, Stewart, David, & Witt, 2017; Noorani & Refahi, 2015). Importantly, a very few studies investigate the role of demographics (age, gender and hierarchy level) on emotional maturity. In fact, emotional maturity positively influences emotional support, social participation, self-awareness, positive emotions, self-esteem, positive events and better interpersonal relationship (Avkiran, 2000; Carmichael, 1968; Chamberlain, 1960; Chaube, 2002; Coleman, 1948; Devda & Makvana, 2014; Dogan & Vecchio, 2001; Eddington, 2003; Fox & Zauderer, 1987; Hurlock, 1981; Waller, 1974; Yusoff et al., 2011). Emotional maturity encompasses interpersonal-intrapersonal elements. Interpersonal elements involve social skills, social resources and social sharing. Intrapersonal factors comprise of high self-esteem, positive emotions, positive self-concept, personal strength and calm behaviour. These interpersonal-intrapersonal elements support employees' personal effectiveness. Despite the above fact, a very few

studies independently explore the association between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness in the context of India.

In addition, few studies have been conducted on locus of control with respect to demographics relations (i.e. age, gender and hierarchy level); however such have been conducted in Hong Kong, United States, Brazil, and Turkey context ((Fiori, Brown, Cortina, & Antonucci, 2006; Siu, Spector, Cooper, and Donald, 2001; Tamayo, 1993). Research also suggests that personality characteristics such as self-management, self-esteem, self-efficacy, positive self-image, self-confidence, and activeness that are likely to support the personal effectiveness and are commonly associated with locus of control (Anderson et al., 2005; Baumeister et al., 2003; Cauce, 1986; Chen & Silverthorne, 2008; Korman, 1970; Loosemore & Lam, 2004; Shapiro & Swensen, 1977; Vernberg, 1990). Therefore, the locus of control is likely to support the employees' personal effectiveness in the context of India. Conclusively, a very few studies independently investigate the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control on personal effectiveness in the context of India.

From the above discussion, this proposed statement of research problem in this study is:

1. To find whether demographics (i.e., age, gender, and hierarchy level) have an impact on emotional maturity, locus of control, and personal effectiveness in the Indian context.
2. To find whether emotional maturity and locus of control have an impact on personal effectiveness in the Indian context.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study emphasises the following areas:

1. This study employs public and private sector organisations located in India. The sample for this study involves employees working in a different hierarchical structure (Junior, Middle and Senior).
2. This study analyses the dimensions of emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness.
3. Finally, this study aims to examine whether the emotional maturity and locus of control predicts personal effectiveness in the context of India.

1.8 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study argues that emotional maturity and locus of control enhances the personal effectiveness of the employee in the context of India. The proposed research questions for this study are:

1. Does emotional maturity vary with demographics (Age, gender and hierarchical level)?

2. Does locus of control vary with demographics (Age, gender and hierarchical level)?

3. Does personal effectiveness vary concerning demographics (Age, gender and hierarchical level)?

4. Does emotional maturity construct predict personal effectiveness?

5. Does locus of control construct predict personal effectiveness?

1.9 ORGANIZATION OF STUDY

This study is structured into six chapters. (Please refer figure. 1.5) (Chapter-1: Introduction; Chapter-2: Literature review; Chapter-3: Research Methodology; Chapter-4: Analysis; Chapter-5: Discussions and Chapter-6: Conclusions, implications and limitations). Chapter 1 provides acquaintance with the conceptual framework and theoretical foundation of emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. Chapter 2: Literature review narrates with the literature relevant to this research on emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness and draws hypothesis for this study. Chapter 3: Research Methodology comprises the design of the research, description of the sample, data collection techniques, and research instruments. Chapter 4: Analysis and results. The statistical analyses involve MANOVA, t-test, and multiple hierarchical regression analysis. Chapter 5: Discussion includes the results of this study and detailed explanations of the findings. Chapter 6: Concludes this study by highlighting the theoretical and practical implications of this study, limitations and scope for future research.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provides the conceptual framework and theoretical foundation of the study variables. This study seeks to explore the relationship between emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness in the context of India. Additionally, this study aims to examine the role of capitalization theory and broaden-and-build theory on the relationship between emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. It is noteworthy that very few studies independently explored the role of capitalization theory and broaden-and-build theory on the proposed relationship in the context of India. This study seeks to fill

the above mention gap in the existing body of literature by investigates the proposed relationship in the context of India.

Chapter 1 **Introduction**	• Conceptual framework and theoretical foundation of emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness • Rationale of the study • Statement of research problem • Research questions
Chapter 2 **Review of Literature**	• Literature on emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness with its different antecedents and consequences • Relevant literature on the dimensions of study variables • Draw relationship
Chapter 3 **Research Methodology**	• Research design • Description of the sample • Data collection-Procedure description • Description of research instruments • Analytical approach
Chapter 4 **Analysis & Results**	• Preliminary screening of data, normality check and common method bias • Validation of research Instruments in Indian context • Descriptive statistics • Statistical tests • Hypotheses testing • Interpretation of statistical tests
Chapter 5 **Discussion**	• Discussion on the relationship between emotional maturity and demographics • Discussion on the relationship between locus of control and demographics • Discussion on the relationship between personal effectiveness and demographics • Discussion on the relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness • Discussion on the relationship between locus of control and personal effectiveness
Chapter 6 **Conclusion, Implication, Limitations and Future Scope**	• Conclusion • Contribution of the study • Practical implications • Limitations and directions for future research

Figure 1.5: Organization of the thesis

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The first chapter is acquainted with the conceptual framework and theoretical foundation of Emotional Maturity (EM), Locus of Control (LoC) and Personal Effectiveness (PE). The second chapter is highlights and discusses the distinct antecedents of emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness. Rest of this chapter is organised into three sections. The first section provides the relevant literature on emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness with its different antecedents and consequences. The second section highlights the relevant literature on the dimensions of emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness and draws the relationship between the variables under study. The above sections also involve relevant literature on study variables in the context of India. The third section is concluding with the chapter summary. (Please refer Figure. 2.1)

First Section
- The first section provides relevant literature on emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness with its different antecedents and consequences.

Second Section
- The second section highlights the relevant literature on the dimensions of emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness and draw the relationship between the variables under study.

Third Section
- The third section is concluding with the chapter summary.

Figure 2.1: Organization of the chapter 2

2.1 EMOTIONAL MATURITY

2.1.1 Emotional Maturity – Evolution of Concept

The term emotional maturity is defined in various disciplines by numerous researchers. Since 1924, the concept of emotional maturity came into existence as identified by Alfred Adler in his book '*The practice and theory of individual psychology*'. Adler suggested that emotional maturity comprises of self-confidence and positive, secure characteristics. The weakness of physical, social, and intellectual characteristics leads to maladjustment and frustration, which is the cause of various problems of personality. Besides this, in 1928, the concept of emotional maturity for gained attention from Hollingworth, specifically in the context of psychology. Hollingworth (1928) argued that emotional maturity encompasses the ability to control the emotions within specified bounds, which in turn display neutral fashion. Willoughby (1932) suggested that emotional maturity means free from ambivalence, egocentric, and narcism that support in achieving socialised impulses and to better understanding insight (self).

Furthermore, Willoughby (1932) says that emotional maturity supports the active living and happy behaviour within the individual. Morgan (1934), in his book 'Keeping a sound mind', suggested that emotional maturity refers to the capacity to effectively utilise the political powers to achieve the desired goals. Lawrence Shaffer (1936) explained emotional maturity as the emotional advancement that acts as a process of development. Shaffer also argued that emotional immaturity encompasses egocentric, undesirable habits, and various forms of mal-adjustment like fear and sex reactions. Pauline (1936) also demonstrated that emotional maturity supports the effective rational balance and emotional control; further emotional maturity inhibits selfish motivations, destructive impulses, violent and anti-social behaviour. Later, Gordon (1937) suggested three significant requirements for emotional maturity within the individual; (i) self-objectification; (ii) extension of self; and (iii) unifying philosophy of life. Gordon also states that emotional maturity can develop the knowledge of self and free from self-deception. Gordon also says that emotional maturity supports the individual to work hard with contemplation, recreation and show loyalty to others.

Moreover, an egocentric behaviour is not a sign of emotional maturity. Prescott's (1938) suggested that emotional maturity is regarded as the mental state; where an individual chooses an emotional nature concerning various situations. Prescott's also argued that emotional maturity largely depends upon the mental capacity of an individual that supports in selecting the best available alternatives or choices. Emotional maturity is not only restricted

to a fixed series of behaviour pattern, whereas, emotional maturity is treated as complex dynamic behaviour that varies from person to person and from situation to situation. Emotional maturity is comprised of various characteristics of active personality such as strong value concept. The strong value concept supports in achieving better life and unity that is likely to influence the individual behaviour.

Emotional maturity can determine what is worth in selecting or leaving the choices (Prescott, 1938). Thorpe (1941) suggested that emotional maturity provides the ability to freedom from infantilism (childish behaviour). Thorpe (1941) mentioned various characteristics that are not part of emotional maturity, where they display emotional immaturity like refusal to face reality, selfishness, showing off, rationalisation, and lack of consistency in conduct and emotions. Thorpe also suggested that emotional maturity stress on self-improvement and keenness to work objectively. Objectively means to understand the need for adjustment that acts as a crucial step in improvement. Furthermore, people who fail to face reality and wrongly understand their problems that lead to unpleasant lives and eventually display the sign of emotional immaturity. The various attachments like tantrums, fears, and love attachments start in infancy and are also present in an adolescent stage.

Further research revealed that emotional maturity is freedom from the infantilism. Most of the researchers have a central belief that emotional maturity is freedom from egocentric and infantilism within the individual. Saul (1947) suggested the seven characteristics of emotional maturity; first, individual is more independent in nature than dependent; second, individual offers giving behaviour rather than receiving from others; third, freedom from egocentrism; fourth, individual displays maturity in sex; fifth, free from hostile aggressiveness; sixth, readily recognize the fact rather fancy; seventh, flexibility and adaptability are crucial antecedents of emotional maturity. Coleman (1948) suggested that emotional maturity is the ability to overcome the level of tension (here, tensions means where the mind is primarily influenced by stress or something that tends to stretch it). Bernard (1954) in his book '*Guidance service in elementary schools*' suggested that emotional maturity is considered as a state in which people can make themselves free from unreasonable threat and fear that comprises of positive emotions. Bernard (1954) also argued that the various characteristics of emotional maturity within the individual such as; (i) reduces the negative emotions, (ii) exhibits the positive emotions, (iii) higher level of tolerance capacity with disagreeable situations, (iv) positive response towards social responses, (v) ability to select best alternative, (vi) better understanding with respect to limitations and various situations, and (vii) finally the life satisfaction. On a similar line,

Chamberlain (1960) in his book '*Adolescence to maturity*' explained emotional maturity as thinking capacity, conventionally learning and self-control within the individual. Moreover, Jersild (1960) in his book '*The psychology of adolescence*' suggested that emotional maturity is an indicator concerning the degree of compassion and stress tolerance capacity.

Heath (1965) explains emotional maturity as the ability to resolve the problems to manage the stress situations easily. Also, Heath (1965) also argued that emotional maturity comprises of goal-oriented behaviour, self-confident, socially adaptable ability that supports to enhance the ability to face reality. In short, emotional maturity displays stability over the period. Carmichael (1968) in his book '*Manual of child psychology*' refers to emotional maturity not only being to effectively utilise the emotional resources; but also they can control the emotions. Waller (1974) work on emotional maturity says that emotional maturity is a complex psychological process that displays emotional health and it involves intra-psychical and intra-personal domains of personality. Hurlock (1981) in his book '*Adolescent development*' presents three vital characteristics of emotional maturity; first emotional maturity does not allow blowing up of the emotions; second emotional maturity evaluate various circumstances in a more analytical and critical way; third emotional maturity keep intact of emotions in stability that does not allow over and under swing of emotions. Emotional maturity also has the potential to influence the behaviour of the other in an effective manner (Fox & Zauderer, 1987). Later, emotional maturity is defined as individual ability to understand, recognise and correctly regulate own emotions that support in managing emotional interactions with others (Hood & Jackson, 1986). Emotional maturity not only understands the emotions but easily regulates the emotions and ability to an expression of emotions in a productive way (Hood & Jackson, 1986). Emotional maturity encompasses the ability to an expression of emotions. Emotional expression displays diverse emotional states that support in building the interpersonal relationship and social interaction (Campos, Barrett, Lamb, Goldsmith, & Stenberg, 1983). Emotional maturity plays the decisive role in the expression of emotions; and the feeling is guided in part by expression of emotions (Dupont, 1994). Campos, Campos, and Barrett (1989) stated that emotion regulation is the ability to control the emotional expression that is an integral part of emotional maturity. Therefore, the ability to regulate and recognise the emotions is guided in part by the emotional maturity that supports social competence (Hubbard & Coie, 1994; Thomas & Kamalanabahan, 2009). The frequency, duration and intensity of various emotional expressions influence the social behaviour. Leung and Sand (1981) argued that emotional maturity is associated with self-esteem. Leung and Sand (1981) suggested that an

individual having high self-esteem is positively related to emotional maturity than an individual having low self-esteem. Research argued that individual high on self-esteem is consider happier, realistic wishes, self-control and more purposeful. Leung and Sand (1981) also said that an individual high on emotional maturity and self-esteem does not show the alienation from the others.

Harari (1995) suggested that emotional maturity is the crucial characteristic of an effective manager that supports in the accomplishment of organisational goals and objectives in a dynamic environment. Cantoni (1986) argued that emotional maturity endorses the friendly supervisor relationship in the organisation that leads to enhancing the efficiency of an employee at the workplace. Moreover, the study emphasised that emotional maturity develop the capacity to resolve various problems concerning the workplace and at home (Cantoni, 1986). Fox and Zauderer (1987) suggested that emotional maturity acts as an essential quality for executives in the workplace. They also argued that many talented professionals were not able to succeed because of the lower degree of emotional maturity. Also, Fox and Zauderer (1987) also said that emotional immaturity does not support the career growth and mutual relationship between employees, supervisors, peers, and customers. Emotional maturity plays a crucial role in maintaining the psychological equity between the brain and emotions that support in balancing the inner and outer world of the people (Landau, 1998). Wilson (1998) argued that self is a development process within the individual. The emotions are an integral part of the development process, and emotional maturity is largely considered as the development of self. Therefore, the self is inherently embodied within the emotional maturity. Pollock (1998) suggested some of the critical characteristics of emotional maturity were: (i) avoiding for impulsive actions, (ii) ethically behaviour, (iii) keep energetic and healthy, (iv) effective negotiator, (v) self-reliant, (vi) effective in conveying feeling, (vii) resist towards pressure, (viii) search for new ideas and thoughts, and finally (xi) be effective negotiator. Landau and Weissler (1998) suggested that emotional maturity is the ability to effectively utilise the social needs at home, in society and at the workplace. In the book, '*Emotional maturity*' by Menninger (1999) argued that emotional maturity implies to face reality and display the offering behaviour rather than receiving behaviour. Avkiran (2000) revealed that emotional maturity is positively related to entrepreneurial style and interpersonal skills that support in the development of a competent manager. Dogan and Vecchio (2001) suggested that emotional maturity can regulate the emotions and reduces the risk of emotion-based dysfunctional influences. Emotional maturity is an indicator of

emotional excitement and good health that supports the capacity to control (to some extent) over the environment (Chaube, 2002).

Additionally, Eddington (2003) work on emotional maturity suggested that it cannot anaesthetise the emotions, but they control the emotions. Edward (2005) in his book '*The leadership integrity challenge: How to assess and facilitate emotional maturity*' said that emotional maturity better supports the active leadership ability within the individual. Pastey and Aminbhavi (2006) argued that self-confidence is positively linked with emotional maturity. Hurley and Rankin (2008) stated the six levels of emotional maturity within the individual; (i) emotional honesty; (ii) emotional responsibility; (iii) emotional assertiveness; (iv) emotional openness; (v) emotional understanding; (vi) emotional detachment. First, emotional honesty implies a willingness to know your own feeling and better self-understanding and self-acceptance. Second, emotional responsibility means the individual is not affected by external forces like things, spirits, fate, and forces. Third, emotional assertiveness refers to the individual ability to self-expression. Fourth, emotional openness means to individual ability in sharing their feeling at an appropriate time and manner. Fifth, emotional understanding refers to the understanding of the actual cause and effect process between the emotional irresponsibility and responsibility. Sixth, emotional detachment means to free from snare with self-image, self-concept, self-construct, and group-concept. Emotional maturity acts as a crucial determinant that leads to interpersonal interaction and support trust (Mather, 2009).Yusoff et al. (2011) work on emotional maturity explained that emotional maturity is the ability to guide emotional tendencies and assist in such a way that to attain proposed goals in a dynamic environment. Moreover, emotional maturity easily adopted the learning that supports to face the failure in life. Emotional maturity provides the overall social adjustment that supports better adjustment, adaptation and satisfaction among the individuals (Hung & Wongsurawat, 2011; Sharma, 2011). Also, emotional maturity can stress tolerance, which, in turn, to support and maintain the equity between the brain and heart (Goralnik et al., 2012). The research argued that better leadership ability is guided in part by emotional maturity; therefore emotional maturity results in a positive relation between followers and supervisor behaviour, which leads to enhance the performance (Lam & Higgins, 2012). On similar lines, emotional maturity has broadly emphasised to control the feeling and thoughts within the individual (Devda & Makvana, 2014). Dhillon (2013) argued that emotional maturity is significantly different between the graduate and postgraduate female sports person. Standen et al. (2014) work on emotional maturity found that emotional maturity is correctly perceived by others behaviour and was less likely to experience the

misperception. This would result in a positive association of emotional maturity with social maturity (Singh et al., 2014). Coco and Guttionda (2015) found that self-awareness, self-management, self-motivation and social skills are positively associated with emotional maturity. Nicholls et al. (2015) suggested that there is a positive association with coping effectiveness within the individual that leads to stress management ability. Birajdar (2016) argued that emotional maturity is the ability to display creativity and reduces the discourteous behaviour within the individual. Research also suggested that emotional maturity can exhibit positive emotions that support in the development of positive work climate and supportive work culture. Since 1924 numerous studies have been conducted on emotional maturity in multitude of disciplines. In spite of this, emotional maturity is considered as an essential construct in organisational psychology. The research outcomes on emotional maturity by various studies are also highlighted in table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Emotional maturity research works and their outcomes

Authors	Research aims	Outcome
Alexander (1948)	To explore advance understanding of emotional maturity concept and its characteristics.	The findings suggested various attributes of emotional maturity explaining its definition.
Stokes (1952)	To examine the relationship of emotional maturity with the marriage counselling.	The study suggested the relationship between the emotional maturity and marriage counselling and as positively associate and supports to have a better relationship.
Saul and Pulver (1965)	To addressed meaning of emotional maturity in diverse fields.	The study focused on definition and understanding of the concept of emotional maturity.
Dean (1967)	To examine the various determinants of emotional maturity.	Development of emotional maturity scale in western context.
Cole et al. (1980)	To investigated relationship between emotional maturity and marital adjustment.	The study suggested that emotional maturity is positively associated with marital adjustment. Emotional maturity emerges as critical factor for adjustment.

Harari (1995)	The principal objective of the author to examined characteristics of successful manager in the business world.	The study revealed that emotional maturity plays a decisive role in an employee to become a successful manager and its various characteristics.
Landau (1998)	The research aimed to explore the relationship between the self and emotional maturity.	The research suggested that self is considered as an integral part of emotional maturity. The study highlighted the various characteristics of emotional maturity.
Avkiran (2000)	The research examined the relationship between the emotional maturity, interpersonal skills, and entrepreneurial style.	The study argued that entrepreneurial style and interpersonal skills is positively associated with the emotional maturity.
Dogan and Vecchio (2001)	The study examined the relationship between the jealousy, envy and emotional maturity.	The study highlighted the importance of managing the emotions in the workplace. The study also reveals that jealousy and envy can be reduced by emotional maturity at the workplace.
Wong and Law (2002)	To explored the follower and leader emotional intelligence on attitude and performance.	The research suggested that higher emotional intelligence and emotional maturity are likely to better support follower emotions, feelings and psychological benefits.
Hyatt et al. (2007)	The research objectives to explore the relationship between effective leadership and emotional maturity.	The research revealed that emotional maturity plays the decisive role in building effective leadership in addition to emotional intelligence.
Mathers (2009)	The study aims to investigate the determinants and antecedents of trust.	The study argued that emotional maturity is considered as a crucial factor that supports the trust.
Klever (2009)	The study aimed to examine whether emotional maturity impact on goal effectiveness.	The results suggested that emotional maturity is significant predictor goal effectiveness

Rathee and Salh (2010)	To investigate the variations in emotional maturity and cognitive style between inter-state and international level players.	The research highlighted that male players are high on emotional maturity in comparison to female players. International players have high level of emotional maturity than state and inter-state players.
Sharma (2011)	Research aimed to examine the emotional intelligence competencies, emotional maturity, and mental well-being.	The results revealed that emotional intelligence and emotional maturity plays an essential role in the family, social, health and total adjustment. Emotional intelligence comprises emotional maturity, emotional competence and emotional sensitivity.
Gholampour et al. (2013)	Study aimed to investigate the dimensions of emotional maturity.	The outcome highlighted that emotional maturity is higher in a female in comparison to the male individual. Emotional maturity supports social compatibility, self-dependence and emotional stability.
Liu and Liu (2013)	This study aimed to explore the relationship between the team leader emotional intelligence, emotional climate, and emotional maturity.	The results revealed that emotional maturity is associated with management effectiveness. Results also suggest that high emotional intelligence is positively related to emotional maturity.
Sharma (2014)	The study investigates the relationship between the leadership ability, emotional maturity and talent management.	The results argued that emotional maturity is the crucial and decisive antecedent that supports leadership ability.
Standen et al. (2014)	The objective of the study was to explore the relationship between workplace bullying and emotional maturity.	The results demonstrated that emotional maturity moderate the inclination to bully others.

Singh, Pant, and Valentina (2014)	Study aimed to compare the emotional maturity and social maturity among the adolescents in the nuclear and joint family.	The results revealed that adolescents in the joint family are high on emotional stability, emotional progression, social adjustment, personality integration than adolescents in a nuclear family. Emotional maturity and social maturity are positively associated with each other.
Singh et al. (2014)	The study investigates the role of economic class on social maturity and emotional maturity among adolescents.	The results suggested that adolescents high on economic class are low in social maturity than others class.
Noorani and Refahi (2015)	The objective of the study was to investigate the level of emotional maturity between men and women.	The results revealed that there is a change in emotional maturity level between males and females.
Coco and Guttikonda (2015)	Study aimed to examine the relationship between self-awareness, self-motivation, social skills, empathy, controlling emotions and emotional maturity.	The results revealed that emotional maturity is positively associated with self-awareness, self-motivation, social skills and empathy.
Birajdar (2016)	Study aimed to investigate the interpersonal skills, emotional quotient, stress and emotional maturity.	The findings suggested that emotional intelligence is positively related with interpersonal skills. The results also argued that emotional maturity easily acknowledge their own needs, supports creativity and inhibits destructive and discourteous behaviour.

2.1.2 Dimensions of Emotional Maturity

Literature shows the various dimensions of emotional maturity in multitude of disciplines. Many early studies have framed and conceptualised the various dimensions of emotional maturity in a diverse context. An early study by Dean (1967) proposed the twenty-two items composite emotional maturity scale. This scale provides the fourteen types of emotional

maturity (i) capacity to manage stress; (ii) capacity to manage anger; (iii) relationship in relation to authority; (iv) integration; (v) judgement; (vi) self-control; (vii) heterosexual responsibility; (viii) attitude with respect to learning; (ix) intellectual maturity; (x) responsibility; (xi) ego-centeredness; (xii) communication; (xiii) emotional security, and (xiv) social pose. However, this scale is widely accepted in the context of social psychology. For instances, Cole et al. (1980) used the emotional maturity scale as proposed by Dean's (1967) among the husband-wife pairs in the Ohio state of United States. In addition to this, Nicholls et al. (2015) study explored the relationship between the emotional maturity, dispositional coping and coping effectiveness among the adolescent athletes that involves of Caucasian, Asian and African-Caribbean athletes. Nicholls et al. (2015) adopted USM emotional quotient inventory (USMEQ-i; Yusoff et al., 2011) to measure the emotional maturity among the athletes. These above scales widely provide substantial evidence and contextual utility in the field of social psychology, and sports psychology in the context of Western culture. Singh and Bhargava (1990) is the known research that laid down the various dimensions of emotional maturity, specifically in the context of the organisational setting in India. Additionally, numerous studies also supported the substantial evidence and contextual utility of emotional maturity dimensions laid down by Singh and Bhargava (1990) among the Indian population (Rathee & Salh, 2010). Singh and Bhargava (1990) laid down dimensions of emotional maturity: emotional stability, social adjustment, emotional progression, personality integration and independence. This measure is the first of its kind where the dimensions are validated across many studies specifically in the context of organisational setting (Sharma, 2014; Singh et al., 2014).

2.1.3 Antecedents of Emotional Maturity

Literature suggests the various antecedents of emotional maturity. Many early studies indicated that ability to control emotions, emotional advancement, self-improvement, understanding self, freedom from egocentric and infantilism are considered as the crucial antecedents of emotional maturity (Hollingworth, 1928; Thorpe, 1941; Willoughby, 1932). Later, Prescott's (1938) suggested that the ability to make a correct decision in diverse situations and inhibit selfish motivation, and anti-social behaviour serves as antecedents of emotional maturity. On similar lines, Gordon (1937) argued that extension of self, self-knowledge and freedom from self-deception as antecedents of emotional maturity. Coleman (1948) and Saul (1947) suggested some of the antecedents of emotional maturity are self-dependent, manage tension, reduces stress, recognise the facts, adaptability, flexibility, freedom from infantilism and egocentric and offering to others rather than receiving.

Literature also postulates that individuals are having positive emotions, social resources, understanding own limitations and strength that eventually supports the emotional maturity (Bernard, 1954). Furthermore, self-control, traditional learning, and individual thinking ability to make rational decisions are characteristics of emotional maturity of the individual (Chamberlain, 1960). Heath (1965) and Jersild (1960), both of them, suggested that the ability to manage stress and to resolve problems is some of the antecedents of emotional maturity. Additionally, early studies also indicated that self-confident, goal-oriented behaviour and social adaptability are crucial antecedents of emotional maturity (Carmichael, 1968). Literature also revealed that to regulate and express emotions that supports in influencing the behaviour of the other aims to develop an interpersonal relationship among the people which acts as an indicator of emotional maturity (Fox & Zauderer, 1987; Hood & Jackson, 1986).

Self-esteem, self-control, self-awareness, coping effectiveness, self-development, self-reliant, active negotiator, effective in expression of feeling, energetic, healthy, happier, ethically behaviour, accept reality and offering behaviour rather than receiving, these are considered as some of the antecedents that are widely suggested by many researchers in multitude disciplines (Cantoni, 1986; Chih-Chien, 2004; Harari, 1995; Landau, 1998; Menninger, 1999; Pollock, 1998). Besides this, many others studies in the context of organizational setting suggested some of the antecedents of emotional maturity are controlling emotions, reduces emotion-base dysfunctional influences (Birajdar, 2016), self-confidence, self-control, self-management, self-awareness, self-reliant (Coco & Guttionda, 2015), guiding emotional tendencies (Yusoff et al., 2011), comprehensive social adjustment (Standen et al., 2014), better interpersonal relationship, self-disclosure, self-management, self-motivation, social skills, display creativity and reduces the discourteous behaviour within the individual (Gupta, Singh, Kumar, & Bhattacharya, 2012; Nehra & Rangnekar, 2017). The above mention literature suggested various antecedents of emotional maturity.

2.1.4 Consequences of Emotional Maturity

Although numerous studies have been conducted on emotional maturity in multitude discipline like social psychology, clinical psychology and have various outcomes concerning different context. But few studies have been undertaken on emotional maturity and that too specifically in the context of the organisational setting. Considering the studies on emotional maturity specifically in the context of organizational setting suggested various consequences such as positive work environment, collective work culture (Nehra & Rangnekar, 2018), interpersonal skills and entrepreneurial style (Avkiran, 2000), support creativity and reduces

destructive behaviour (Birajdar, 2016), effective coping effectiveness, social maturity and socially adjustable (Singh et al., 2014), ability to correctly perceive others behaviour and exhibits better leadership ability that understand the feeling, thoughts and needs of their followers (Standen et al., 2014), management effectiveness supports emotional intelligence (Liu & Liu, 2013; Samalia, Kanwal, & Singh, 2017), social compatibility, emotional stability and self-dependence (Gholampour et al., 2013), social, family, health and total adjustment (Sharma, 2011), helps in building the trust between the individuals (Mathers, 2009), building the leadership ability and emotional intelligence within the individual (Hyatt et al., 2007), enhances ability to more accountable and responsible for any success and failure in her/his life, supports in understanding follower feelings, emotions, and enhances psychological benefits within the individual (Wong & Lam, 2002), reduces jealousy and envy at workplace (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001), better understanding of the self (Landau & Weissler, 1998), leads to successful manager (Harari, 1995) and supports for self-motivation (Coco & Guttionda, 2015).

2.2 LOCUS OF CONTROL

2.2.1 Locus of Control – Evolution of Concept

Since the beginning of the concept locus of control first developed by Julian Rotter in 1966, the term has widely examined in multitude disciplines such as medicine, clinical-psychology, social psychology and social sciences. Despite its relevance in various fields of studies, the locus of control emerge out as an essential construct in the context of psychology and is examined with respect to different work-related constructs like self-esteem, job satisfaction, work stress, organizational commitment, job performance (Gable & Dangello, 1994; Siu & Cooper, 1998). Existing state of available literature demonstrates that early studies on locus of control were more inclined towards the leadership style, employee satisfaction (Garbato, 2010); manager behaviour, firm performance (Zhang & Bruning, 2011); creative work environment, intrinsic job satisfaction, socio-economic factors, job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Popoola, 2009; Rajasekhar & Kamalanabhan, 2006); superior-subordinate relationship, psychological empowerment (Jha & Nair, 2008); job stress, job satisfaction, job performance (Chen & Silverthorne, 2008); trust, transformation leadership, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, personality integration, and self-disclosure (Hwang & Choi, 2017; Nehra & Rangnekar, 2018). Moreover, the concept emerged in 1966, but still, there are only a few empirical studies that independently investigate the locus of control and personal effectiveness specifically in the organisational

setting in the context of India (Nehra, 2018). The locus of control is originated from social learning theory (Rotter, 1966; Stevick, Dixon, & Willingham, 1980). Social learning theory states that reinforcement enhanced the occurrence (expectancy) that a response will be reinforced in the future. Whereas, lack of reinforcement reduces the occurrence (expectancy) that the response will occur in future. Rotter (1966) refer to a locus of control is the belief in the controllability of an event that is happening in one life.

Furthermore, Rotter (1966) suggested two forms of locus of control – the internal locus of control and external locus of control. The internal locus of control (ILoC) implies the individual believe in their skills and capabilities that they can influence outcomes through more appropriate actions (Rotter, 1966). On another hand, external locus of control (ELoC) implies an individual belief that result of any event rests with the chance, luck and others; they have no control over-occurrence of any event (Rotter, 1966). Organ and Greene (1974) suggested that locus of control is associated with role ambiguity and work satisfaction among the scientists and engineers in an electronic organisation.

Anderson and Schneier (1978) argued that internal locus of control is positively associated with active leadership behaviour. Research also suggested that leaders having the internal locus of control are a more task-oriented and active personality in comparison to leaders having an external locus of control which are more inclined towards social-emotional style. A noteworthy study by Reitz and Jewell (1979) argued that individual with an internal locus of control is more involved in their jobs than external locus of control. Reitz and Jewell also said that cultural values, workers experience and workers age influence on the locus of control. Dailey (1980) explores the relationship between task characteristics, the locus of control and work attitudes among team members. The study argued that internal locus of control shows a higher level of job satisfaction, job involvement, and psychological growth satisfaction in comparison to an external locus of control. Brownell (1981) revealed that internal locus of control has a positive influence on budgetary participation, whereas an external locus of control has a negative impact on budgetary participation. Miller, Vries, and Toulouse (1982) argued that executives having an internal locus of control could take higher risks and product-market innovation capacity that leads to becoming a leader than a follower. Kulcarni (1983) explores the relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction among the bank employees. The study revealed that external locus of control is negatively associated with job satisfaction, whereas internal locus of control is positively associated with job satisfaction. On similar lines, internal locus of control is strongly linked to job satisfaction and job performance (Norris & Niebuhr, 1984).

Storms and Spector (1987) argued that external locus of control is likely to be associated with frustration, which in turn showcase a counterproductive behaviour. On the contrary, internal locus of control overcome with frustration that leads to productive behaviour. Happali and Mallappa (1988) suggested that internal locus of control is positively associated with job involvement, whereas an external locus of control is negatively associated with job involvement among the industrial supervisors.Cummins (1989) suggested that internal locus of control can cope up with stress, whereas an external locus of control is solely relying on the supervisor support to reduces the stress. The study also revealed that internal locus of control is more satisfied and can overcome with stress levels. While the external locus of control is less satisfied and easily suffer from stress. Singh and Nath (1991) explore the relationship between the organisational climate, organisational role stress, job involvement and locus of control among the bank employee in the context of India. The study suggested that external locus of control show the lower degree of job involvement, whereas internal locus of control exhibits a higher degree of job involvement among the bank employees in the context of India. It is noteworthy that the study by Sandoz (1992) explores the relationship between locus of control, emotional maturity, between the drinkers and non-drinkers' respondents. The study suggested that internal locus of control is positively associated with emotional maturity whereas an external locus of control is negatively related to emotional maturity. In addition to this, drinker having an external locus of control largely depends upon the emotional support and which in turn results in social adjustment.

Howell and Avolio (1993) investigate the relationship between locus of control, leadership and support for innovation among manager in a Canadian institution. The research revealed that transformational leadership is positively associated with an internal locus of control. A noteworthy study by Mathur, Aycan, and Kanungo (1996) explored the relationship between the work culture, locus of control among the public and private sector organisations in India. The research indicates that the work culture in private sector organisations in India is more task oriented, higher autonomy, better performance-reward system, and effective motivational practices in relative comparison to public sector organisation observed a reverse pattern. Furthermore, the study revealed that the employee was working in a private sector organisation has a higher internal locus of control as compared to an employee working in a public sector organisation in India. Siu and Cooper (1998) examined the relationship between the organisational commitment, locus of control, job satisfaction, psychological distress and intention of quiet among employees that too explicitly in the context of Hong Kong firms. The study suggested that external locus of

control have a higher level of job dissatisfaction that leads to high intention to quit the job. The study also argued that external locus of control is positively related to work stress that leads to lower job satisfaction. Whereas, internal locus of control has a higher level of stress tolerance ability that leads to higher job satisfaction this in turn reduces the tendency tor quit the job. Coleman et al. (1999) examined the relationship between the organisational commitment and locus of control among employees in the context of Canadian government firm. The study suggested that internal locus of control is positively associated with affective commitment, whereas an external locus of control is positively associated with continuance commitment. It is noteworthy that, the study by Lu, Wu, and Cooper (1999) on the locus of control, job satisfaction and coping effectiveness among industrial workers in the context of Taiwan. The study argued that external locus of control readily perceives more stress in comparison to the internal locus of control. Research also suggested that internal locus of control have the coping effectiveness that supports in enhancing job satisfaction, while external locus of control does not have coping effectiveness and a lower degree of job satisfaction. Boone, Brabander, and Hellemans (2000) explored the relationship between the CEO (chief operating officer) locus of control and small firm profitability among the Flemish firms. The study revealed that the CEO having an internal locus of control was more active and 1 out of 14 organisations failed. Whereas CEO having an external locus of control were less effective, and 5 out of 11 firms' organisation failed. The study suggested that CEO locus of control emerge out as an important factor that predicts the performance of small organisations. Furthermore, another study argued that internal locus of control is positively associated with self-esteem, self-management, self-efficacy, which leads to developing autonomy in their behaviour (Judge & Bono, 2001). Salazar et al. (2002) investigate the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction among the hotel managers. The study suggested that manager having an external locus of control is negatively associated with job satisfaction, while manager having an internal locus of control is positively associated with job satisfaction.

Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, and McNamara (2005) explored the relationship between work-related well-being, organisational commitment, the locus of control and leader-member exchanges. The study revealed that employee having an internal locus of control better develop a relationship with their managers that leads to effective work-related outcomes. On similar lines, Afolabi (2005) investigates the relationship between turnover intentions, perceived organisational climate, and locus of control among the bank manager in the context of Nigeria. The study suggested that there is the positive influence of

organisational climate on job satisfaction. The study also argued that there is a positive relationship between perceived organisational climate, internal locus of control and job satisfaction among bank manager. Lam and Mizerski (2005) argued that knowledge workers having an internal locus of control are significantly related with the higher level of job satisfaction, whereas knowledge workers having an external locus of control have considerably lower level of job satisfaction. Research also suggested that knowledge workers having an internal locus of control exhibits low turnover intention, because they have the high level of job satisfaction. On the contrary, knowledge workers having the external locus of control shows high turnover intention, because they have a low level of job satisfaction. Anderson et al. (2005) explored the relationship between the locus of control, students learning and contextualised sciences among Kenya science teachers. The study argued that locus of control is related to the teachers learning environment that leads to professional satisfaction among them. Patten (2005) investigates the relationship between internal auditor locus of control, job performance and job satisfaction. The study suggested that internal auditors having an internal locus of control outperform than external locus of control. Research also examined the relationship between emotional labour, job satisfaction, the locus of control and organisational commitment among the hotel employees. The study argued that employees having an internal locus of control have higher job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The research conducted by Rattan, Kang, Thakur, and Parthi, (2006) explored the relationship between self-esteem, locus of control among adolescents. The study suggested that the males were having a higher level of self-confidence and internal locus of control, whereas females having a lower level of self-esteem and internal locus of control. Hood and Carter (2008) explored the relationship between employee effectiveness, employee trust, employee locus of control and transformation leadership. Research suggested that employee effectiveness can be measured regarding job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, and organisational commitment. The study indicated that the transformational leadership has a positive influence on employee effectiveness. The study also revealed that employee having an internal locus of control has a positive influence on employee effectiveness (organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour) and employee trust. Jha and Nair (2008) examined the impact of job characteristics, internal locus of control and superior-subordinate relationship on psychological empowerment among the hotel employees. The study revealed that internal locus of control, superior-subordinate relationship and job characteristics have a positive influence on psychological empowerment of hotel employees.

Popoola (2009) investigates the relationship between locus of control, job satisfaction, socio-economic factors (like age, marital status, job tenure, gender, educational qualifications, and monthly salary) among university employees in the context of Nigeria. The research suggested that socio-economic factors, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and locus of control all are positively associated with each other. The research also argued that locus of control, socio-economic factors and job satisfaction significantly predictor of organisational commitment. Moreover, study examined the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, creative work environment, and internal locus of control in an organisational setting in the context of Japanese culture. The study revealed that employee having the internal locus of control is positively related to intrinsic job satisfaction and creative work environment among employee in the context of Japanese culture. Later, the research argued that internal locus of control and democratic leadership style is positively associated with job satisfaction (Choi, 2016; Garbato, 2010). The research conducted by Kohli, Batra, and Aggarwal, (2011) explored the relationship between locus of control, coping strategy, and anxiety among the respondents from medical setting in India. This research indicated that the individual has an internal locus of control reflected a lower level of stress and also displays a better coping ability about recovery from the diseases. Whereas a reverse pattern is observed among the individuals who are having an external locus of control and they exhibits higher anxiety levels, this leads to the lower coping ability for patients' recovery from diseases. A pioneering study by Zhang and Bruning (2011) explored the influence of senior manager personal characteristics (like the need for cognition and need for achievement) and internal locus of control on the organisation performance in the context of Canadian manufacturing organisations. The study suggested that senior manager personal characteristics and internal locus of control have a positive influence on organisational performance. The research conducted by Thiruchelvi and Supriya (2012) investigate the association between the well being, coping effectiveness, and locus of control among the software professional from Indian IT organisation. The research demonstrated that the individual having an internal locus of control better support the well being and coping strategy, while on another side, individual having an external locus of control exhibits a negative association among the well being and dealing approach. Furthermore, internal locus of control also mediates the relationship between the well being and coping strategy. On similar lines, Suman and Srivastava (2012) explored the association between the locus of control, organisational structure, and job characteristics among employee working in organisations in India. The research revealed that the locus of control (i.e. internal locus of

control) was found to be a significant contributor to organisational commitment among the employees. Besides this research conducted by Misra and Mishra (2016) revealed the relationship between entrepreneurial attitude, entrepreneurial personality and locus of control. The study showed that the individual having an internal locus of control is positively associated with the entrepreneurial mindset, however, a reverse pattern is observed among the individual hiving external locus of control. Besides this, another research conducted by Agarwal (2016) examined the relationship between the work engagements and locus of control in the Indian context. This study revealed that the individual has an internal locus of control is positively associated with work engagement; however, individual having an external locus of control showed a negative association with work engagement.

Furthermore, research by Chaudhary (2016) demonstrated the relationship between the demographics (gender, age, school, and family background) with an entrepreneurial inclination in the Indian context. The research suggested that the individual has an internal locus of control is associated with entrepreneurial inclination instead of a vice verse pattern observed among external locus of control among the respondents in the Indian context. Besides this, research conducted by Nag and Das (2017) investigate the association between the self-efficacy, need for achievement, passion for work and locus of control in the Indian context. The research demonstrated that the individual having an internal locus of control is positively associated with the self-efficacy, need for achievement and passion for work in the Indian context. Another study by Ramasamy, Calvin, Sii, Chan, and Tan (2016) explored the relationship between the personal-situational locus of control and the level of betting amount in a private university in the context of Kuala Lumpur. The study argued that there is no influence by the situational and personal locus of control on the level of betting amount in the context of Kuala Lumpur. Stack and Laubepin (2017) explored the relationship between locus of control and the lethal violence among respondents from 53 nations. The research suggested that locus of control is not associated with the direction of violence. Furthermore, a study conducted by Gupta, Bhattacharya, Sheorey, and Coelho (2018) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy, locus of control and turnover intention in the Indian context. The research revealed that an individual having an internal locus of control exhibits higher motivational based self-efficacy, which eventually leads to an onboarding experience. In contrast, a vice verse results were found for an individual having an external locus of control in the Indian context. Besides this, research conducted by Desai, Dalal, and Rawal (2018) investigate the association between self-deception and locus of control in the Indian context. The investigation revealed that an individual having an internal locus of control

avoid unethical behaviour pattern; however, an individual having an external locus of control demonstrates unethical behaviour pattern. Also, internal locus of control is positively associated with the level of development. On the premise of available literature on locus of control indicates that so far locus of control was examined with various organizational variables like self-esteem, intrinsic job satisfaction, work stress, organizational commitment, job performance, leadership style, employee satisfaction, manager behaviour, firm performance, creative work environment, socio-economic factors, superior-subordinate relationship, psychological empowerment, job stress, job performance, trust, transformation leadership, organizational citizenship behaviour, personality integration, self-disclosure, role ambiguity, work satisfaction, task-oriented, leadership behaviour, work attitudes, job involvement, counterproductive behaviour, organizational climate, organizational stress, psychological distress, intention of quiet, affective commitment, self-management, self-efficacy, turnover intention, work-related well-being, leader-member exchanges, emotional labour, employee effectiveness, organizational citizenship behaviour, psychological empowerment, creative work environment, intrinsic job satisfaction, manager personal characteristics and many others. These above variables are likely to be associated with the personal effectiveness of employees.

2.2.2 Dimensions of Locus of Control

Since the inception of the locus of control concept, Rotter (1966) suggests the dimensions of locus of control. Rotter (1966) suggested the two forms; (i) internal locus of control and (ii) external locus of control. Numerous studies supported the contextual utility and substantial evidence of Rotter (1966) locus of control dimensions in various disciplines. However, Phares (1976) suggested that this scale is a rough measure, and there is an imperative necessity to develop the domain-specific measures. Considering this, work locus of control proposed by Spector's (1988) demonstrates the work specific dimensions. The study by Macan, Trusty, and Trimble (1996) and Oliver, Jose, and Brough (2006) provided the substantial validity and dimensionality evidence of Spector's work locus of control scale. Furthermore, the work locus of control is widely examined by various studies in different countries (Fitzgerald & Clark, 2013; Pienaar & Witte, 2016; Turnipseed, 2017). Many Indian studies also provided the contextual utility and substantial evidence of Spector's work locus of control in the context of the organisational setting. For instances, Thiruchelvi and Supriya (2012) and Tripathi and Gupta (2014) explore the relationship between work locus of control, government portals and well-being relationship among the information technology professionals in the Indian context. Another study by Jain et al. (2009) suggested the utility of

work locus of control scale by Spector's (1988) among the middle levels executives specific to the manufacturing sector in the context of North India. Additionally, this measure is the first measure of its kind that has been validated across various studies in different countries specific to the organisational setting.

2.2.3 Antecedents of Locus of Control

Locus of control as the literature suggests is influenced by the diverse range of antecedents. Many early studies indicated that self-esteem, active behaviour, better interpersonal relationship, self-efficacy and trust are some of the common antecedents of locus of control in various disciplines (Gable & Dangello, 1994; Garbato, 2010; Jha & Nair, 2008; Nehra & Rangnekar, 2018; Siu & Cooper, 1998; Zhang & Bruning, 2011). The advocates of the locus of control research also argued that one of the critical concerns for an individual should be a belief on the controllability of an event that is happening in one's life (Rotter, 1966; Spector, 1988). Furthermore, many early studies suggested that work attitude and psychological growth is likely to be considered as antecedents in the context of organisational setting (Anderson & Schneier, 1978; Dailey, 1980; Organ & Greene, 1974; Pathak & Singh, 2002). The research suggested that productive behaviour and coping effectiveness are likely to be inclined towards the employee locus of control (Happali & Mallappa, 1987; Storms & Spector, 1987). Studies also argued that managing stress and higher satisfaction also served as antecedents in the context of India (Boone et al., 2000). Literature also suggested that individual having an affective commitment, coping effectiveness, job satisfaction and self-esteem are supports in enhancing the organisational performance (Coleman et al., 1999; Pathak & Jha, 2003). The research argued that coping effectiveness, work-related well-being, organisational commitment and perceived organisational climate are inclined towards employee locus of control (Afolabi, 2005; Lu et al., 1999; Martin et al., 2005). More recently, the studies conducted on locus of control suggested that manager personal characteristics (need for achievement and need for cognition) (Zhang & Bruning, 2011), self-monitoring, emotional stability and subjective well-being (Nehra & Rangnekar, 2018), calm behaviour, positive self-concept, self-efficacy (Estrada et al., 2006; Ramasamy et al., 2016), job autonomy, skill utilization (Wu, Griffin, & Parker, 2015) are some of the antecedents of locus of control in organizational setting.

2.2.4 Consequences of Locus of Control

Like many antecedents, various consequences of locus of control are also mentioned in the existing literature. Literature clearly shows that employee locus of control results in different crucial organizational outcomes such as organizational performance and profitability (Boone

et al., 2000; Ganesh & Gupta, 2008), organizational commitment, supervisor-follower relationship, work-related well-being (Afolabi, 2005), creative and positive work environment, social adjustment, subjective well-being (Morrison, 1997), resolving power to conflict resolution (Şahin et al., 2009), social encounters, social relationship, self-disclosure (Nehra & Rangnekar, 2018) and job performance, job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001). The various other consequences of locus of control are also mentioned in table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: Consequences of locus of control

Authors	Consequences
Bhagat and Chassie (1978)	Higher life satisfaction and effective task performance
Ashkanasy and Gallois (1994)	Supervisory control and task control
Coleman et al. (1999); Leung, Siu, and Spector (2000); Salazar et al. (2002),	Job satisfaction, creative work environment, organisational commitment and organisational practices
Kallmen (2000)	lower risk perception and lower anxiety
Kaplan, Reneau, and Whitecotton (2001)	Self-decision maker and decisive maker involvement
Hyattand Prawitt (2001)	Job performance and effective auditing
Chen and Silverthorne (2008); Jha and Nair (2008), Judge and Bono (2001)	Job performance, job satisfaction, emotional stability and reduces job stress
Spector et al. (2002)	Mental well being, physical health and life satisfaction
Ng, Sorensen, and Eby (2006)	Favourable work outcomes, positive social experiences, higher job satisfaction and effective task outcomes.
Forte (2005)	Effective behaviour, higher job satisfaction and ethical behaviour
Chen and Wang (2007); Chen and Wnag (2008)	Affective commitment and normative commitment
Chen and Silverthorne (2008)	Job performance, job satisfaction and attenuate job stress

McIntyre, Srivastava, and Fuller (2009)	Effective motive and psychological ownership
Jain et al. (2009)	Employee well being and organisational commitment
Garbato (2010)	Effective leadership style and employee satisfaction
Žitný and Halama (2011)	Acts as a buffer against injustice and supports self-esteem
Zhang and Bruning (2011)	Firm performance and effective manager behaviour
Baiocco, Laghi, and D'Alessio (2009); Malik, Butt, and Choi (2015)	Intrinsic motivation, work creativity and rational decision-making style
Lee (2013)	Organizational socialisation (co-worker support, training, understanding, and prospects), organisational identification
Li, Wei, Ren, and Di, (2015)	Innovation performance, intrinsic work motivation, psychological empowerment
Nehra and Rangnekar (2018)	Personality integration, interpersonal relationship and self-disclosure

2.3 PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

2.3.1 Personal Effectiveness – Evolution of Concept

Globalization offers a potential opportunity to operate organisations globally. This has resulted in the broader growth opportunity and new challenges for the organisation in various region of operations. Every area has its own culture, colonial heritage, religious diversity, historical, political and linguistic differences that are different when relating to another region (Gupta, Sharma, & Sharma, 2011). These will become the challenges for organisations to develop the personal effectiveness of the employee in a culturally complex and religiously rich country like India. The existing literature on personal effectiveness revealed that personal effectiveness enhances job effectiveness, job satisfaction and job performance; because self-management, self-awareness, self-confidence, time management, self-esteem, enthusiasm and integrity are crucial characteristics that inherently embodied within personal effectiveness of employees (Dhar, Dhar, & Mukherjee, 2003; Jain et al., 2013; Marbouti & Lynch, 2014). Early studies provided evidence that personal effectiveness tends to support the individual ability to withstand with various problems in more constructive and effective ways (Sharma & Rastogi, 2009; Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007). Although, personal

effectiveness is essential in enhancing the individual and organisational performance; but still, the concept has gained very little attention within modern empirical literature (Nehra & Rangnekar, 2019). Furthermore, the idea of personal effectiveness has widely examined in various fields of study such as social psychology, clinical-psychology and student-psychology; but only a few studies are available that explores personal effectiveness specifically to an organisational setting in the context of India (Lansing, 1968; Shariff & Abidin, 2015; Sharma, 2007).

Since the inception of personal effectiveness concept by Fiedler (1958) defines personal effectiveness as an individual ability to operate effectively. Later, Campbell et al. (1980) in his book '*American voter*' says about personal effectiveness is the sense of feeling of mastery over the environment and the self. Another study by Howell (1966) argued that personal effectiveness varies from person to person among the employee of federal health organisation in the context of western context. Importantly, Heisler (1974) explored the relationship between the locus of control and personal effectiveness among the government employees in the context of Western culture. The study suggested that employee having an external locus of control shows lower personal effectiveness, whereas employee having an internal locus of control shows higher personal effectiveness. The study also argued that organisational reward is related to chance related outcome this, in turn, to lower personal effectiveness, whereas organisational reward is associated with skill pertaining outcome this in turn to higher personal effectiveness among the government employees in the context of Western culture. Tjosvold and Huston (1978) argued that an individual is having personal effectiveness better support the bargaining ability. Moreover, Tjosvold and Huston (1978) investigates the relationship between the personal effectiveness, self-evaluation and power person among the college students in the context of Western context. The study suggested that college student having personal effectiveness is strongly associated with self-evaluation and easily get attracted towards the low-power position. Willings (1982) argued that creative liberation (freedom from traditional or social conventions) enhances the personal effectiveness within the individual. Butcher and Davis (1988) suggested that personal effectiveness and stress management programs reduce the stress level among health workers. The study also argued that training programs enhance skills which increase coping ability within the health workers. Consequently, employees become more active, confident and appropriately interact with the clients. Yates (1994) examined the relationship between the maturity, personal attributes and skills in the Western context. The study revealed that maturity is strongly associated with personal effectiveness. The study also suggested that

sensitive training and learning strategies enhance the personal effectiveness. The study argued that learning and training strategies support stability, autonomy, integrity, allocentrism and symbolism within the individual. Furthermore, Warr (1994) suggested that personal effectiveness plays a crucial role in an occupational setting.

Farmer (1995) suggested that interpersonal relationship between partners, friends, and relatives reduces the level of stress. The study also revealed that the conflict between home and work demand would create the problems. The study emphasised that people having personal effectiveness are more likely to be satisfied with their job. Importantly, noteworthy research by Brewis (1996) suggested that personal effectiveness is the essential element of a competent manager. The study said that self-regulation is the crucial antecedent of personal effectiveness. Yuan and Shen (1998) investigated the relationship between moral values among the early adolescents in the context of China. The study argued that personal effectiveness and competence is the most prefered value among the adolescents in China. Furthermore, the study revealed that interpersonal relationship plays a vital role in maintaining better relationship in society, friends and family. Davidhizar (1999) explored how an employee develops the positive association with the supervisor specifically in the health workers. The study revealed that job satisfaction and personal satisfaction supports in enhancing trust in the relationship between the follower and supervisor. The study also suggested that there is a positive relationship between the idea of supervisor and personal effectiveness of junior employee at the workplace.

Møller and Powell (2001) argued that time management is one of the most important keys to personal effectiveness. Bailey and Clarke (2001) investigated the relationship between the knowledge management, individual and organisational benefits. The study argued that knowledge management is better supported in the development of personal effectiveness. Jaques (2001) explained that there is an imperative necessity to explore various factors that enhancing the personal effectiveness within the individual. Jaques (2001) also determined various factors about the resources of managerial leadership problems and explained about various theories. Latif (2004) suggested that personal effectiveness is positively associated with managerial skills and career effectiveness. Tandon et al. (2005) argued that the home visitor training program enhances the personal effectiveness that supports in reducing the tendency of domestic violence and increases the mental health within the individual. Kushnir and Cohen (2006) revealed that burnout minimizes the level of personal effectiveness among employee at the workplace. A noteworthy study by Singh et al. (2005) explored the factors that constitute managerial effectiveness in the context of India.

The study suggested that personal and functional effectiveness emerged as important factors that form managerial effectiveness in the context of India. Additionally, the study also argued that individual perception-how others perceive him/her and functional effectiveness supports in determining managerial effectiveness in the context of India. The study revealed that culture plays a decisive role in determining managerial effectiveness. Furthermore, Markus and Kitayama (1991), Singh-Sengupta (2001) and Singh-Sengupta (2006) also suggested that the relationship between the others and self largely depends on the culture in the region. George (2006) revealed that self-awareness enhances the new insight into self this in turn to self-confidence, stable behaviour, relaxed and less stress that eventually leads to personal effectiveness.

Jefferson (2006) suggested that personal knowledge management reduces the frustration level and supports in enhancing the personal effectiveness. Gedeon (2006) indicated that life-long learning skills, domain knowledge, self-efficacy, and goal setting improve the personal effectiveness. Another study by Sharma (2007) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence, personal effectiveness and burnout among the executives in the context of India. The study revealed that personal effectiveness is positively associated with emotional intelligence. Furthermore, another study revealed that emotional intelligence better supports ethical orientation that leads to personal effectiveness (Pathak, Jaiswal, & Patwardhan, 2013). The study also suggested that there is a negative relation between maladjustment and personal effectiveness among the Indian executives. A noteworthy study by Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) explored the relationship between organisational culture, personal effectiveness and leadership effectiveness among the employees in the context of six countries - Hong Kong, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, United States and the United Kingdom. The study argued that organisational culture is strongly associated with personal effectiveness and leadership effectiveness in the context of six countries. Furthermore, personal and organizational effectiveness better supports the business operation efficiency and business alliance (Tanlamai, 2006). Lazaridou (2007) demonstrated that individual having values comprise of confidentiality, personal effectiveness, collaboration, fairness, and consideration characteristics within the individual that supports in solving problems. Martin (2010) and Singh-Sengupta (1997) suggested that training programs enhance the skills that help in effective leadership and management which in turn increase the personal effectiveness. Jain et al. (2011) explored the relationship between the personal effectiveness, social power, organisational effectiveness and organisational citizenship behaviour in the context of India. The study suggested that

personal effectiveness implies as behaviour evaluated concerning contribution to the objectives and goals of the organisation. The study also argued that personal effectiveness understood as the normative element that shows whether the employee actions and behaviour are negative and positive and in sync with the organisation targets and goals. The study revealed that emotional support, social participation, organisational citizenship behaviour was found to be the strong predictor of personal effectiveness in the context of India.

Ekaterini (2011) suggested that middle-level manager have competencies like convey information, effective judgement, establish plans, manage execution, influence others, develop and adapt oneself that supports in employee performance and employee personal effectiveness. A noteworthy study by Demerouti and Bakker (2011) investigates the effect of personal effectiveness training on psychological capital and assertiveness among employee in the context of Netherland. The study argued that personal effectiveness training enhances the level of assertiveness and psychological capital. Cau-Bareille (2011) argued that personal effectiveness declines with age that leads to a higher level of worry concerning job performance. On similar lines, research also suggested that reflection is the essential characteristics that enhance the personal effectiveness. Reflection refers to learning from past and present experiences in a meaningful way that increases the knowledge and putting that knowledge into practice. Another critical study by Egan, Sarma, and O'Neill (2012) investigated the factors that were influencing the personal effectiveness of healthcare organisations in the context of Ireland. The study revealed that confidence and knowledge were significant contributors to personal effectiveness.

Manning (2013) examined the 360-degree assessments of leadership behaviour in various contexts. The study revealed that inappropriate behaviour reduces the employee personal effectiveness that ultimately leads to lower organisation effectiveness. Gosselin et al. (2013) suggested behaviours that demonstrate initiative, self-confidence, resiliency and eager to take responsibility are some of the crucial factors for personal effectiveness. Tang, Ariratana, and Treputharan (2013) suggested that personal effectiveness (personal mastery) is an essential factor for soft leadership skill. Additionally, the study also argued that soft leadership skills comprise of interpersonal and personal elements. Personal element refers to individual ability to grow and develop at work like self-criticism, manage emotions, coping effectiveness, self-awareness, critical thinking, adaptability, self-learning, ethical accountability, trustworthiness and commitment to an organisation. Interpersonal element implies as individual ability to maintain an appropriate level of interactions within and outside the organisation such as effective interpretation of language, supportive learning

environment, effective communication, teamwork and support the better interpersonal relationship. The study suggested that personal effectiveness has a strong positive association with trustworthiness. Thus, the research indicates that supervisor having personal effectiveness is more confident and active that support in lifelong learning, which, in turn, to enhance the positive perception and trust by followers towards their supervisor and better support self-organized teams (Parker, Holesgrove, & Pathak, 2015). Furthermore, Manz (2014) suggested positive emotion support better understanding, higher life satisfaction, and clearer thinking that ultimately enhance the personal effectiveness. Wolf and Housley (2017) indicated that individual having an external locus of control has low on personal effectiveness, organisational dynamics, social abilities and own abilities.

2.3.2 Dimensions of Personal Effectiveness

Since the inception of personal effectiveness concept by Fiedler (1958) suggested that personal effectiveness shows the individual ability to operate effectively. Many studies explained personal effectiveness in multitude of discipline. However, all studies emphasised on the central theme; (i) mastery over the self, (ii) ability to perform effectively and (iii) appropriate self-disclosure that leads to the better interpersonal relationship. Many studies provided various dimensions of personal effectiveness in the context of Western culture. For instances, Holden and Evoy (2005) laid down multiple dimensions of personal effectiveness like self-discipline, competence, dutifulness, achievement striving, order and deliberation that too among the undergraduate's students in the context of Canadian culture. Another study by Marbouti and Lynch (2014) suggested dimensions of personal effectiveness are personal qualities, career development and self-management among the United Kingdom doctoral students in the university setting. However, these studies indicated the dimensions of personal effectiveness more specifically in an education setting in a Western context. Considering this, the known research by Pareek and Purohit (2011) laid down the dimensions of personal effectiveness among the Indian executives in the context of the organisational setting in India. Moreover, many studies provided the substantial evidence and contextual utility of these dimensions in Indian populations (Nehra & Rangnekar, 2019; Sharma, 2007). Additionally, this measure is the first measure of its kind that has been validated across various studies in India specific to an organisational setting. Therefore, we employed personal effectiveness dimensions that are self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback in this study.

2.3.3 Antecedents of Personal Effectiveness

Early literature suggested that various range of antecedents for personal effectiveness. Many early studies indicated that self-confidence, self-management, self-esteem, manage problems,

time-management, work efficiency and self-mastery are the most crucial antecedents of personal effectiveness. These antecedents are widely recognised by many early studies, specifically in the context of Western organisational setting (Marbouti & Lynch, 2014). The research argued that bargaining ability, self-evaluation and stress management is inclined towards the personal effectiveness (Jaques, 2001). More recently, the studies conducted on personal effectiveness suggest that functional effectiveness (Singh et al., 2005), stable behaviour, calmness (George, 2006), domain knowledge, self efficacy, clear vision (Gedeon, 2006; Weidong, Weihui, & Kunlong, 2010), emotional intelligence, burnout (Sharma, 2007), fairness, collaboration, problem solving (Lazaridou, 2007), effective judgement, effective execution, conveying appropriate and correct information, assertiveness, psychological capital (Ekaterini, 2011), adoption of e-services (Ojha, Sahu, & Gupta, 2011), reflection, initiative, resiliency and eager to take responsibility, effective supply chain (Gurtu, Searcy, & Jaber, 2015; Gurtu, Searcy, & Jaber, 2016; Gurtu, Searcy, & Jaber, 2017; Gosselin et al., 2013), clear understanding, higher life satisfaction, clearer thinking (Manz, 2014), social abilities and personal abilities (Wolf & Housley, 2017) are also crucial antecedents of personal effectiveness in organizational setting.

2.3.4 Consequences of Personal Effectiveness

Although numerous studies have been conducted on personal effectiveness in multitude disciplines like social sciences, medicine, psychology and nursing and have various outcomes concerning different context. In spite of this, many studies have been conducted on personal effectiveness that too explicitly in the context of the organisational setting. Like antecedents, various consequences of personal effectiveness are also mentioned in the existing literature. Existing literature supports the fact that the personal effectiveness results in different crucial organizational outcomes specifically in the context of India such as job effectiveness, job performance, job satisfaction (Jain et al., 2013), organizational effectiveness (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007), positive behaviour, organizational citizenship behaviour, employee productivity, life satisfaction index (Astuti & Martdianty, 2012; Fathonah & Hartijasti, 2014; Mahindroo, Singh, & Samalia, 2013; Mahindroo, Samalia, & Verma, 2018; Sharma, 2015), stable employment, secure employment (Pandit & Wallack, 2015), role satisfaction (Prasanna & Vinodh, 2013), managerial effectiveness (Singh, Dhar, & Pathak, 2005). The various other consequences of personal effectiveness are also mentioned in table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3: Consequences of personal effectiveness

Authors	Consequences
Butcher and Davis (1988); Warr (1994)	Better adjustment in an occupational setting, manage stress, active, confident and better interaction ability
Farmer (1995); Yates (1994)	Maturity, personal qualities, effective skills, the better interpersonal relation among friends and others
Brewis (1996); Davidhizar (1999)	Competent manager, job satisfaction, personal satisfaction
Latif (2004); Møller and Powell (2001)	Effective time management, effective managerial skills
George (2006); Singh et al. (2005)	Managerial effectiveness, self-confidence, relaxed and less stress
Gedeon (2006); Sharma (2007)	Business operation efficiency, reduces maladjustment, clear goal setting
Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007); Lazaridou (2007)	Leadership effectiveness, effective problem solving
Martin (2010)	Effective management, leadership, effectively managing resources
Ekaterini (2011); Jain et al. (2014)	Better social participation, effective judgement, manage execution, appropriate message convey, enhance middle-level manager competencies
Demeroutiand Bakker (2011)	Assertiveness, supports psychological capital, optimism, resiliency, hope
Gosselin et al. (2013); Manz (2014)	Self-confidence, eager, resiliency, better interpersonal relationship, personal mastery, leadership soft skills
Wolf and Housley (2017)	Support organisational dynamics, enhances social ability, own ability

2.4 Establishing Relationships and Hypotheses Development

2.4.1 Influence of demographics on the variable under study

Existing literature highlighted that the role of demographics is highly susceptible and questionable aspect. The literature argued that consideration of control variables in various statistical outcomes might lead to contamination of observed relationship between the study variables (Spector & Brannick, 2011). Furthermore, research suggested that inclusion of

control variables in any study should be explained and well thought concerning study variables (Carlson & Wu, 2012) so that to prevent any misinterpretation of the findings and its related conclusions. A noteworthy study by Becker (2005) argued that numerous studies employed control variables hardly provide any reason and explanation on including control variables which might lead to results and findings that are actually misleading or even misinterpreted. Therefore, it becomes an imperative necessity to consider those control variables that are of utmost importance and has real theoretical interest in the data (Kashyap & Rangnekar, 2015). The next section of this study provides the clarification for the inclusion of various control variables (age, gender and hierarchical level) affecting the study variables.

2.4.2 Demographics and Emotional Maturity

RQ 1: *Does the employees' emotional maturity dimensions (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence) vary with a demographic profile (age, gender and hierarchical level) of respondents?*

The early studies provided substantial evidence that employees' emotional maturity dimensions might influence through various demographics such as age, gender and hierarchical level (Noorani & Refahi, 2015). The age has been examined as a potential predictor of emotional maturity dimensions. The study argues that employee age influences the emotional maturity dimensions (Johnson, Rogers, Stewart, David, & Witt, 2017). The research suggested that age emerges as an essential factor that likely to influences the emotional maturity dimensions (Coco & Guttikonda, 2015). The previous studies indicated that personality traits such as self-esteem, physical well-being, self-evaluation, and self-control likely to vary concerning age, gender, and hierarchical level (Boyd & Huffman, 1984; Brose, Scheibe, & Schmiedek, 2013). Importantly, these traits are inherently embodied within emotional maturity dimensions (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence). Thus, it leads to the potential possibility that emotional maturity dimensions will vary as per the demographics (age, gender and hierarchical level). On similar lines, another study by Singh et al. (2014) argued that emotional maturity is varying with employee age, specifically in the Indian context. Furthermore, gender status is another crucial consideration while investigating the emotional maturity dimension as it might potentially influence the emotional maturity dimension by the status of employee gender. The inclusion of gender as control variable affecting the emotional maturity dimensions, as the literature supported the fact that gender significantly impacts emotional maturity dimensions (Nicholls et al., 2015). Moreover, another study by Kulreet (2013) revealed that gender status significantly influences the emotional maturity

dimensions that too explicitly in the sports setting. Finally, about the inclusion of hierarchical level as control variable influencing the emotional maturity dimensions. A noteworthy study by Arora and Rangnekar (2015) argued that hierarchical level affects the emotional maturity dimension more specifically in the context of Indian organisation setting. Hierarchical level (junior, middle and senior) has also been found to a crucial predictor in impacting the emotional maturity dimensions in North Indian organisations (Arora & Rangnekar, 2016). Given the existing literature, this research study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1(a): Age has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.

Hypothesis 1(b): Gender has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.

Hypothesis 1(c): Hierarchical level has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.

2.4.3 Demographics and Locus Of Control

RQ 2: *Does the employees' locus of control dimensions (internal locus of control and external locus of control) vary with a demographic profile (age, gender and hierarchical level) of respondents?*

The below cited some of the possible studies that were examined the influence of employee demographics on the locus of control. For instances, Penk (1969) and Ryckman and Malikiosi (1975) studies highlighted the relationship between locus of control and age in the Western context. These studies argued that locus of control varies with age, and internal locus of control gradually decreases with increase in age level. Another critical study by Siu, Spector, Cooper, and Donald (2001) explored the relationship between age, coping, a locus of control and managerial stress that too in an organisational setting in the context of Hong Kong. The study revealed that age is positively associated with an internal locus of control. Furthermore, the older manager shows better coping, lower stress level, and the higher degree of internal locus of control among managers in the context of Hong Kong. While another study by Mirowsky and Ross (2003) suggested that locus of control vary with middle and young-aged adults in the context of the non-Indian organisational setting. On similar, Lachman (1986) also revealed that locus of control is associated with the age factor of an individual. There is a possibility that perception differences within the individual are likely to vary concerning age, gender, and hierarchical level. Because, previous research indicated that personality traits such as coping ability, physical well-being, self-esteem, self-evaluation and

positive self-view are likely to vary with increasing age. These traits are associated with an integral part of the locus of control. Thus, it may lead to the possibility that the perception differences about the happing of the event in their life are likely to change. On similar lines, this is the case with gender and hierarchical level also because of females high on socio-emotional support in comparison to males. Further, employees have different perception concerning hierarchical levels as it commonly related to the age aspect. Thus, it leads to the potential possibility that locus of control dimensions will vary as per the demographics (age, gender and hierarchical level). Additionally, another study demonstrates the significant relationship between the gender and locus of control in the Western context like United States (Fiori, Brown, Cortina, & Antonucci, 2006). Besides this, Levin, Taylor, and Chatters (1994) explored the relationship between religiosity, gender and locus of control that too specifically in several national surveys. The study revealed that locus of control appears to vary concerning gender status.

Research conducted by Tamayo (1993) investigates the relationship between locus of control, gender and age among the Brazilian respondents. The study revealed that gender has an influence on the locus of control among the Brazilian respondents. Another survey by Güvenç and Aktaş (2006) argued that there is a positive relationship between the gender and the locus of control in the Ankara state of Turkey. Further, regarding hierarchical level, the existing literature demonstrated that the employees in different organisational hierarchical level likely to influence the locus of control dimensions. In a study conducted by Tong and Wang (2006) show that different hierarchical level (junior, middle and upper level) displays a different level of locus of control in the context of China. The role of hierarchical structure in influencing the level of locus of control has also been studied in the existing literature. A noteworthy study by Basım, Tatar, and Şahin, (2006) suggested that junior and middle-level managers have different level of locus of control among the security employees in the context of Turkish culture. Finally, a recent study by Nehra (2018) argued that locus of control varies with hierarchical level (junior, middle and upper level) in an organisational setting in India. On the ground of existing literature on the role of demographics in influencing employee locus of control, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2(a): Age has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.

Hypothesis 2(b): Gender has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.

Hypothesis 2(c): *Hierarchy level has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.*

2.4.4 Demographics and Personal Effectiveness

RQ 3: *Does the employees' personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) vary concerning demographic profile (age, gender and hierarchical level)?*

The extant literature suggested that a very few studies have been conducted that show the influence of employee demographics on personal effectiveness dimensions. However, some of the reviews that mainly stress on examining the personal effectiveness in an organisational setting which provides essential input of employee demographics. For instances, Yuan and Shen (1998) suggested that employee age influences personal effectiveness in the context of China and Taiwan. Another study by Gosselin, Cooper, Bonnstetter, and Bonnstetter (2013) argued that age affects personal effectiveness in a Western context. On similar lines, Tang et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between trustworthiness and soft leadership skills in the context of Malaysian culture. The study also revealed that age influences personal effectiveness in the context of Malaysia. Besides this, a noteworthy survey by Crocuher et al. (2010) explored the relationship between the demographics, religious differences and the personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure) in the context of India. The study revealed that gender has an influence on personal effectiveness dimension in an Indian context. Furthermore, literature also showed that employee gender influences personal effectiveness in the medical setting (Egan et al., 2012).

There is a possibility that personal effectiveness dimensions vary concerning age, gender, and hierarchical level. Because with increasing age individual commonly displays social awareness, relationship management, self-awareness and self-management is likely to change. These traits inherently support the self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness (i.e. personal effectiveness). Thus, it may lead to the possibility that the personal effectiveness of individual is expected to change with age factors. On similar lines, this is the case with gender and hierarchical level also, because the male is commonly tough, striving, low on socio-emotional support in comparison to females. Such attributes have a direct influence on self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness (i.e. personal effectiveness). Further, personal effectiveness also varies about to hierarchy level because more significant work experiences develop higher coping ability and problem-solving decision-making capacity. Such capabilities have a different level in those employees at the

junior level (less experienced) whereas employees at senior level (high on experience). Thus, it leads to the potential possibility that personal effectiveness dimensions will vary as per the demographics (age, gender and hierarchical level). Additionally, existing literature also supported the fact that hierarchical employee level influences personal effectiveness dimensions. A noteworthy study by Sharma (2007) examined the Indian model of executive burnout. The study aims to check, whether the burnout model provided substantial utility and validated in an Indian context. The study also stresses on the role of employee hierarchical level (middle and senior level) influence personal effectiveness in an organisational setting in India. Another study also provides the substantial evidence that hierarchical employee level influences personal effectiveness. For instances, Manning (2013) examined the assessment of leadership behaviour among public sector managers that specifically in the context of the United Kingdom. The study suggested that hierarchical employee level influences personal effectiveness among public sector organisation in United Kingdom context. The existing state of the literature on the role of employee demographics in influencing the personal effectiveness leads this study to form the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3(a): Age has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.

Hypothesis 3(b): Gender has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.

Hypothesis 3(c): Hierarchical level has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.

2.5 Emotional Maturity (EM) and Personal Effectiveness (PE)

RQ 4: *Does emotional maturity construct predict personal effectiveness?*

Personal effectiveness is defined as "an individual ability to achieve the task required of the job or the one's ability to adequately perform the job (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007; Sutton & Ford, 1982). However, personal effectiveness has a significant relationship with job effectiveness, job satisfaction, job performance, leadership effectiveness, managerial effectiveness and self-mastery (Lazaridou, 2007; Singh et al., 2005). Emotional maturity appears to have an impact on personal effectiveness as it relates to self-management, self-awareness, self-confidence, self-esteem, enthusiasm, stress management, positive emotion, self-motivation and integrity (Coco & Guttionda, 2015; Goralnik et al., 2012; Hurley & Rankin, 2008). Emotional regulation process and a situated positive emotions practice are an

integral part of emotional maturity that supports social skills social connectivity, and better interpersonal relationship that ultimately helps in personal effectiveness (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Luminet et al., 2000: Rimé, 2007). The extant literature also demonstrates that self-management, self-motivation, self-awareness, and social skills are positively linked to emotional maturity (Coco & Guttionda, 2015; Shim & Choi, 2009). Besides this, emotional maturity exhibits positive emotions and his ability to withstand emotion-based dysfunctional impacts that enhance the coping effectiveness (Bernard, 1954; Dogan & Vecchio, 2001; Nicholls et al., 2015). Early studies also argued that emotional maturity involves of self-confidence, self-control, thinking capacity, conventionally learning, happy behaviour, understanding self, guiding emotional tendencies and facilitate in such a way that not only control the emotions; but effectively utilize the emotional resources to achieve intended goals that eventually leads to personal effectiveness (Chamberlain, 1960; Devda & Makvana, 2014; Yusoff et al., 2011).

This study employed the capitalization theory to explore the relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness in the Indian context. Capitalization theory considered as the most feasible and supportive theory for the proposed association because the theory better explains how an individual exhibits self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness (i.e. personal effectiveness) through the emotional maturity. The approach suggested that individual build better interpersonal sharing, social connection and social well-being when individual commonly display a tendency for sharing positive events and positive events on its displays positive responses from another individual. Importantly, emotional maturity encompasses positive self-concept, positive emotions, self-awareness, self-evaluation and self-control. These personality traits support the tendency for sharing positive events via emotional maturity and thereby, it leads to better support the self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness (i.e. personal effectiveness). Furthermore, another "broaden-and-build" theory employed for the study because, theory suggest that individual having positive emotions likely to displays high on physical, social, intellectual, action, cognition and attention attributes within an individual which eventually support personal effectiveness. Importantly, positive emotions are integral and inherently embodied within emotional maturity. Thus, it leads to the possibility that emotional maturity via broaden-and-build theory may lead to personal effectiveness.

This study argues that emotional maturity is associated (via broaden-and-build approach) with personal effectiveness. Chamberlain (1960) suggested that emotional maturity exhibits positive emotions. Importantly, Fredrickson (1998) proposed "broaden-and-build"

theory of positive emotions. A broaden-and-build theory is a supportive theoretical framework for exploring the relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness because how we establish personal effectiveness is guided in part through the broaden-and-build approach. This study suggests that emotional maturity is central to the process of supporting positive emotions. As suggested by Fredrickson (2001) "broaden-and-build" theory of positive emotions that, "positive emotions enhance individual thought-action repertoire (that is, to expedite a broader scope of attention, cognition, and action) and to develop resources (that is to increases physical, social and intellectual resources)". Early studies provided substantial pieces of evidence that positive emotions are inherently embodied in emotional maturity (Carmichael, 1968; Hurlock, 1981). Because positive emotions have thought-action repertoire and socio-physical resources, and positive emotions are an integral part of emotional maturity, therefore, it is possible that the emotional maturity is the predictor of personal effectiveness. Given the existing state of literature, this study proposed that emotional maturity may result in enhancing the employee personal effectiveness. (Please refer figure 2.2)

Hypothesis 4: *Emotional maturity is the predictor of personal effectiveness.*
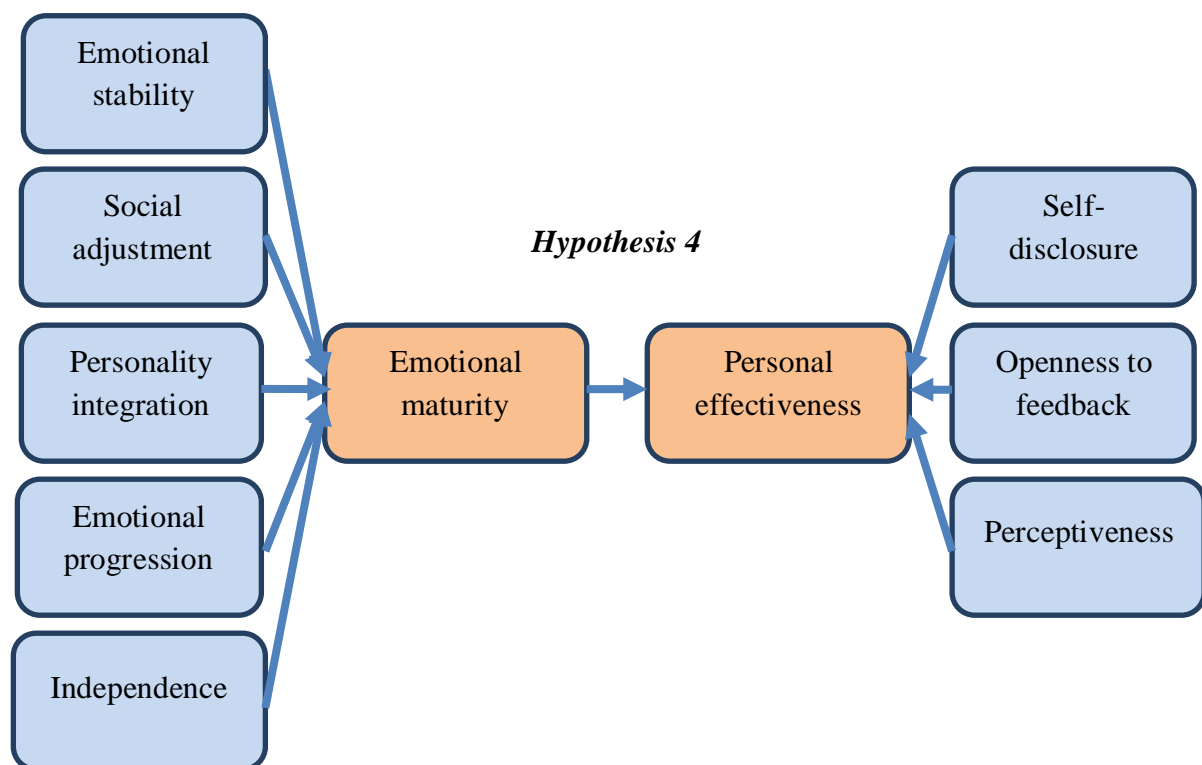
Figure. 2.2: Emotional Maturity Predicts Personal Effectiveness

2.5.1 Emotional maturity dimension [Emotional stability (ES)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

Self-disclosure appears to have a relationship with emotional stability as its link to positive events, positive emotions and correctness of shared information (Gosnell & Gable, 2013). Early studies suggested that self-disclosure refer as information exchange concerning self to others and information might relate to the present and past event (Derlega et al., 2011; Derlega & Grzelak, 1979). Furthermore, self-disclosure encompasses of descriptive and evaluative information that one individual reveals about oneself to another individual (Harris et al., 1999). Bhagat et al. (2015) suggested that emotional stability is an individual ability to remains calm in a situation of stress and highly pressurised work environment. Emotional stability comprises of effective social skills, self-esteem, positive self-concept and positive emotions (Judge et al., 2004; Williams, 2013). Also, emotional stability builds individual capacity to regulate emotions (Carstensen, Pasupathi, Mayr, & Nesselroade, 2000). Capitalization theory revealed the process of sharing positive events and their positive outcomes (Langston, 1994). Capitalization theory is suitable for examining the phenomena of self-disclosure because the individual support and build a greater feeling of interpersonal relationship, social connection, well-being and self-disclosure is guided in part by sharing positive events and supportive responses (Gosnell & Gable, 2013). Importantly, positive events often lead to positive emotions, and positive emotions are an integral part of emotional stability (Rogosch & Cicchetti, 2004). Thus, emotional stability potentially supports positive events. Therefore, emotional stability supports positive emotions and sharing of positive events on their shows better cost reward analysis. Cost implies the risk associated with disclosing positive events and reward refers as a response from the listener (receiver) when the sender communicates information from his side. Considering this, sharing positive events offer less risk (cost) and the listener (receiver) response are experience as positive (reward) that ultimately leads to self-disclosure (Kumar & Kidwai, 2018). Also, emotional stability is significantly associated with self-disclosure only when the information shared is relevant and correct that too specifically in Asian American, African American, Caucasian and Latina respondents (Yoo, Aviv, Levine, Ewing, & Au, 2010). In this sense, this study argues that emotional stability has a significant effect on self-disclosure. Furthermore, emotional stability is positively linked with self-esteem and self-regulation this results in socially competent behaviour, social resources and social interaction that eventually reduces the socially adjusted behaviour problems (Eisenberg, Spinrad, & Eggum, 2010; Fredrickson, 2001; McCrae, 1990;

Rogosch & Cicchetti, 2004). On similar lines, many recent studies argued that self-regulation is positively associated with positive social interactions and lower level of behaviour problems (Eisenberg et al., 2010; Pecora et al., 2016). Therefore, emotional stability has a significant effect on self-disclosure. Importantly, emotional stability involves of self-awareness, self-analysis, effective coping mechanisms, patience, stress tolerance ability, personal strength, control impulses, self-confident and positive self-concept that are likely to support the confronting behaviour and attenuates the defensive behaviour. Research also found that confronting behaviour in itself better supports the openness to feedback (openness to feedback refer feedback on those aspects of an individual that is known to others, but the individual himself not know about them) (Singh & Bhargava, 1990). According to Srimad Bhagavad-Gita (Mehta, 2016), emotional stability has austerity of mind, speech and body that eventually supports the perceptiveness (perceptiveness implies an ability to understand non-verbal and verbal cues from others). Moreover, emotional stability can satisfy and fulfil the need of all those involved in the interaction that likely to better support the effective communication and perceptiveness (Sarvapriyananda, 2008). Existing literature leads this study to an expected significant relationship between emotional maturity dimension (emotional stability) and personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). (Please refer figure 2.3)

Hypothesis 4(a): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).

Hypothesis 4(b): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).

Hypothesis 4(c): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).

Figure. 2.3: Emotional maturity dimension [Emotional stability (ES)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

2.5.2 Emotional maturity dimension [Social adjustment (SA)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

Early studies suggested that social adjustment refers to "people living with others as adapted, satisfied, adjusted; but not as unadjusted, dissatisfied and maladjusted" (Wright, 1942). Later, Wade and Kendler (2000) define the term social adjustment as a social process that supports in developing social networking and positive interpersonal relationship in different places of interaction such as at home, in the society, and at the workplace. The social adjustment has two forms of significance- (i) subjective significance and (ii) objective significance. Subjective implies an individual satisfied as one lives with other and objective refer as to live harmoniously (Queen, Bodenhafer, & Harper, 1939; Waller, 1940). Self-disclosure potentially support in developing a close relationship through the sharing of information with others (Forgas, 2011; Worthy, Gary, & Kahn, 1969). Self-disclosure facilitates the better interpersonal connection, relationship formation, supportive work environment and creating a collective work culture that consequently enables employees to absorb, disseminate and share knowledge in turn to increases trust among individual within-group (Bamel et al., 2013; Jacobs, Hyman, & McQuitty, 2001). Furthermore, self-disclosure builds affirmative beliefs,

and people become psychologically closer with each other that eventually reduce the out-group bias (Collins & Miller, 1994; Jourard & Lasakow, 1958; Jourard, 1959). Social adjustment appears to have a significant relationship with self-disclosure as it relates with developing the social bond, maintaining social acceptance and attenuated in-and-out group bias among people (Ensari & Miller, 2001; Ignatius & Kokkonen, 2007; Posey et al., 2010). The research suggested that individual having social adjustment is better adjusted and less anxious and is supported by the self-disclosure in the Western context (Roger, 1961). On similar lines, another study by Fantasia et al. (1976) explored the relationship between social adjustment and self-disclosure in State University of New York College at Cortland. The study revealed that social adjustment is significantly linked with self-disclosure in the Western context. Moreover, self-regulation is positively related to positive social interaction (Eisenberg et al., 2010). It is noteworthy that, self-regulation plays an essential and decisive role in the development of self-disclosure (Bhagat et al., 2015; Nehra & Rangnekar, 2019) specifically among the working professionals in an organisational setting in India. On the premise of extant literature, this study argues that relationship formation and better interpersonal relationship support to social adjustment; and to developing the positive interpersonal relationship and better relationship formation is commonly considered an integral part of self-disclosure. Therefore, this study expected that social adjustment has a significant effect on self-disclosure. Research also suggests that social adjustment shows higher self-esteem, mature social-cognitive skills, and fewer interpersonal difficulties (Connolly, White, Stevens, & Burstein, 1987). Another study by Pecora et al. (2016) argued that social adjustment is positively linked with self-control. People having self-control demonstrates socially competent, accessible, active, confident and less likely to be suffering from aggression, anxiety and depression (Spinrad, Eisenberg, Silva, Eggum, Reiser, Edwards, & Hayashi, 2012). Because social adjustment has the mature social-cognitive skills, self-regulation, self-esteem, adapted, satisfied and self-control; thus, it is possible that the individual having social adjustment has a significant effect on openness to feedback and perceptiveness. The above discussion leads this study to propose the significant relationship between social adjustment, self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. (Please refer figure 2.4)

Hypothesis 4(d): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*

Hypothesis 4(e): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*

Hypothesis 4(f): Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).

Figure. 2.4: Emotional maturity dimension [Social adjustment (SA)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

2.5.3 Emotional maturity dimension [Personality integration (PI)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

Seeman (1959) defined the concept of personality integration as an approach to understanding the active behaviour and optimal psychological adjustment. Personality integration is positively related to self-esteem, self-accountability, self-organised and positive self-concept that provides freedom to convey the feeling of oneself to others (Cooley & Seeman, 1979) that ultimately supports the self-disclosure. Personality integration has widely examined personality trait in psychology and social sciences studies (Hirsh, 2014; Rubinstein, 1954). Existing literature provided substantial evidence that personality integration has a positive relation with positive personality traits (Russell-Carroll & Tracey, 2011). Personality integration supports in binding various motives into a single one purpose in such a manner that different goal can be classified into high-order values and service of long-term plans (Jurišová & Sarmány-Schuller, 2013). The research argued that individual having personality integration reduces the tendency of psychological distance with others that

eventually enhances the self-disclosure (Odom et al., 1971). Considering this, individual having personality integration is likely to support interpersonal relationship (Seeman, 1963). Recent research suggested that personality integration act as a positive personality trait and his ability to better perceive the environment and people that enhance the feeling of a positive and safe environment (Brook et al., 2007; Doyne, 1969). Personality integration commonly accounts high on self-esteem, adjustment, subjective well-being and positive self-concept (Seeman, 1983). Importantly, self-esteem has also been found as a crucial factor in the development of personality integration (Brook et al., 2007). Ample of research evidence suggested that self-esteem is associated with savouring; and savouring in itself provides adaptive responses and great positive feeling towards life satisfaction, happiness, trust, pro-social behaviour, and sharing positive events (Hurley & Kwon, 2011; Jose, Lim, & Bryant, 2012). Savouring means an individual ability to enlarge and control positive effect by focusing on positive events and experiences as they occur in the present and past experiences (Bryant, 1989; Bryant & Veroff, 2007). Moreover, self-esteem is positively linked with savouring that help in building social connections, happiness and positive events, thereby strengthening pro-social behaviour and self-disclosure. Notably, self-esteem gives rise to savouring (self-esteem is an integral part of personality integration), and therefore, personality integration possibly supports the self-disclosure. Importantly, savouring supports sharing positive events and positive events is integral part of capitalization theory. In this sense, the study employed the capitalization theory via savouring for establishing the significant effect of personality integration on self-disclosure. Thus, this study argues that the personality integration has a significant effect on self-disclosure. Furthermore, another investigation by Comer et al. (1987) revealed that self-esteem and positive self-concept leads to an interpersonal relationship. On similar lines, Şahin et al. (2009) argued that there is a positive relationship between interpersonal interaction and positive self-concept. Research repeatedly found that personality integration has a positive relationship with self-esteem and positive self-concept (Neuringer & Wandke, 1966). According to Bhagavad-Gita, individual having personality integration is inherently embodied with positive self-concept, optimal psychological health and self-organised that leads to a connection with supreme soul (spirituality), this in turn to caring to others, selfless behaviour and social relationship (Mehta, 2012). Additionally, spirituality enhances the individual functioning, optimal psychological adjustment and higher level of self-satisfaction (Barker & Floersch, 2010; Corner, 2009) that eventually supports the openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Therefore, this study argues that the personality integration has a significant effect on

openness to feedback and perceptiveness. The above discussion leads the personality integration has to influence self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Given the present state of literature, this study proposed that personality integration may result in self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. (Please refer figure 2.5)

Hypothesis 4(g): Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).

Hypothesis 4(h): Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).

Hypothesis 4(i): Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).

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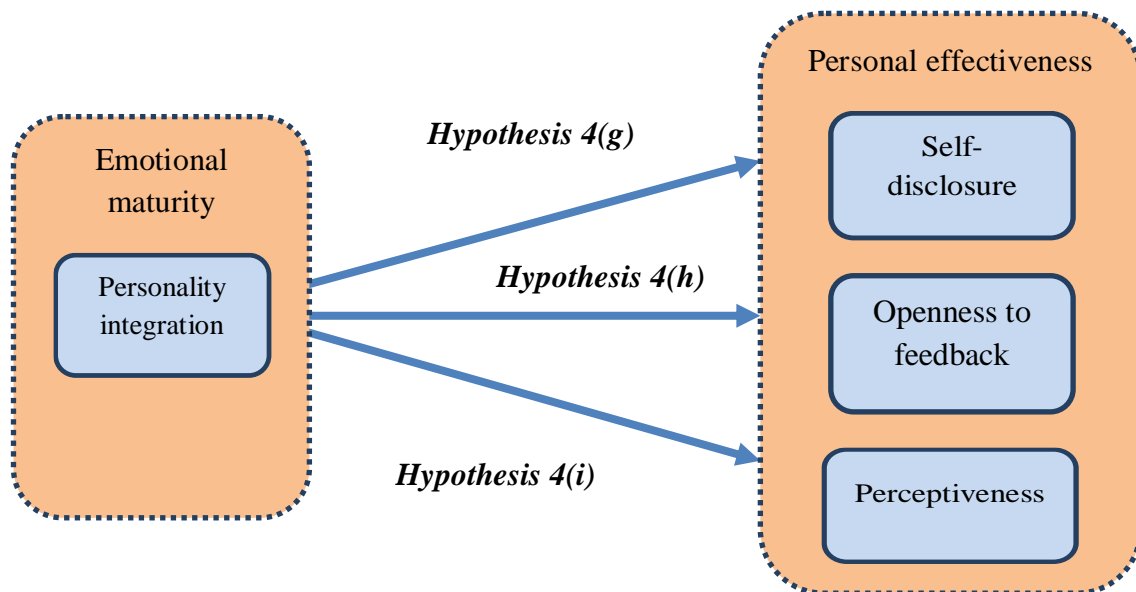
Figure. 2.5 Emotional maturity dimension [Personality integration (PI)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

2.5.4 Emotional maturity dimension [Emotional progression (EP)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

Emotional progression has received consideration in various fields of studies specifically in social sciences, engineering, economics, arts and humanities (Owaa et al., 2015). In spite of this, emotional progression considers as one of the critical variables in psychology that act as a determinant of emotional advancement within the individual (Nehra & Ragnekar, 2018). Very well known research by Singh and Bhargava (1990) defined the concept of emotional

progression. They suggested that emotional progression implies as individual vitality with the surrounding environment and arises of emotional advancement that demonstrates positive thinking imbued with contentment and righteousness. Noteworthy research by Owaa et al. (2015) explored the relationship between the emotional progression, self-adjustment, loss and grief among the individuals in the context of Kenya. The study revealed that emotional progression can overcome the tendency of grief and that eventually supports in arising positive feeling and reduces fear for death. Singh et al. (2014) explored the relationship between social maturity and emotional maturity dimensions in an Indian context. The study found that individual having emotional progression is positively associated with social maturity. Social maturity refers to mutual an interaction with others that supports in organising and better social conditions that ultimately leads to adjustment with others (Sadeghi & Niknam, 2015). The study also revealed that social maturity is positively associated with adjustment and coping skills. Here, social maturity is useful not only on job progress, life satisfaction, social behaviour, positive feeling, and values with others; it also enhances the learning from the cultural and social environment (Lotfabadi, 2011). Adjustment is positively related to self-confidence, coping skills and interaction ability that improve individual ability to adapt the surrounding environment, new situations, and can fit him with the environment conditions (Mousavi, Raeesi, & Asgharnejad, 2012). Another research by Loosemore and Lam (2004) suggested that positive self-concept and self-confidence is inherently embodied within the emotional progression. In this sense, this study suggests that emotional progression naturally represents coping skills, adjustment, the social maturity that is positively associated with social behaviour, positive feeling, self-confidence and interaction ability, and this, in turn, leads to self-disclosure. Nehra and Rangnekar (2019) argued that emotional progression inherently associated with self-regulation ability. In fact, self-regulation is guided in part by emotional progression; and emotional progression enabling the individual to develop stronger emotional tendencies that support to make up a non-judgmental decision (avoid defensive behaviour) concerning openness to feedback. In this sense, emotional progression supports self-analysis, active listening, positive critical attitude and empathy, which possibly lead to openness to feedback. The research argued that emotional progression is related to coping skills (Sadeghi & Niknam, 2015). Coping abilities implies behavioural and cognitive efforts that support to tolerate, master and attenuated critical circumstances and overcome with mental crises that lead to effective psychological action (Aslani, 2014; Farokhzadian, 2012; Samuei, 2006). Moreover, emotional progression is positively associated with coping skills that assist in optimal mental action and cognitive

efforts, thereby strengthening perceptiveness. Based on the propositions derived in the existing literature, this study proposed that emotional progression has a significant effect on self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. (Please refer figure. 2.6)

Hypothesis 4(j): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).

Hypothesis 4(k): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).

Hypothesis 4(l): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).
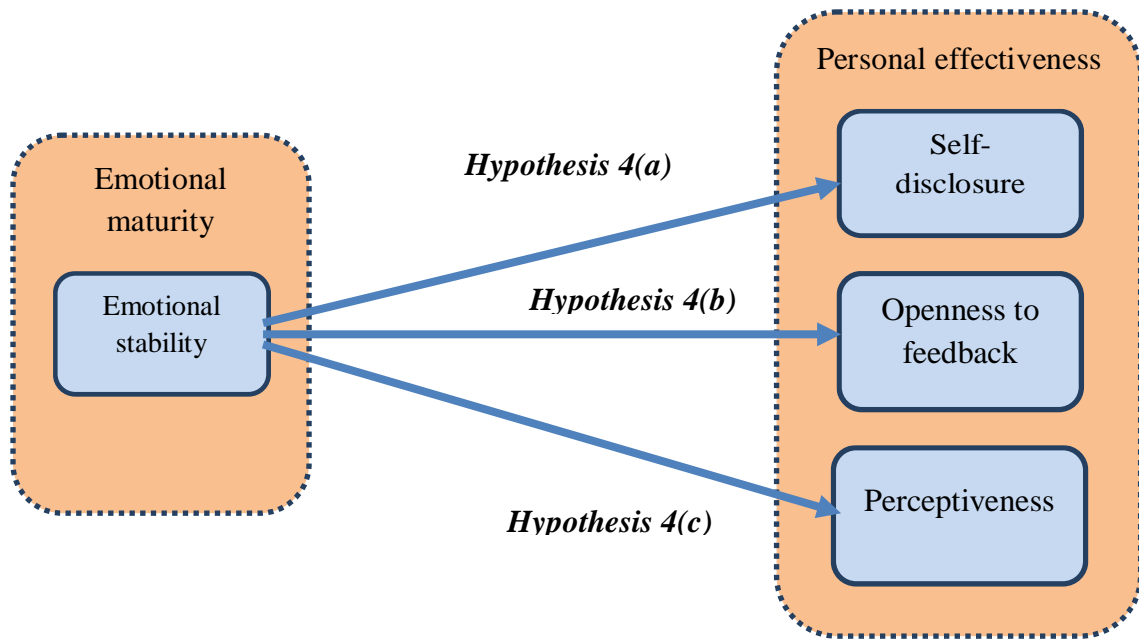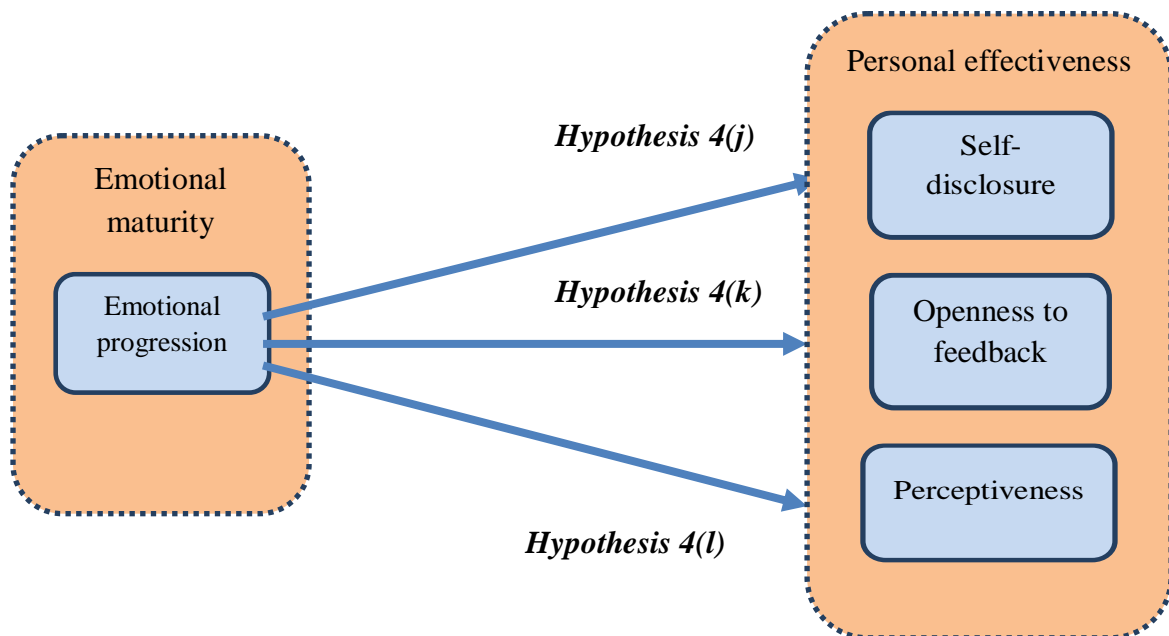

Figure. 2.6: Emotional maturity dimension [Emotional progression (EP)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

2.5.5 Emotional maturity dimension [Independence (I)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

Existing literature provides substantial evidence that independence is widely examined personality trait in various fields of studies such as social sciences, medicine, economics, psychology and organisational psychology. Despite the fact, independence considers as a crucial factor in the self-development that supports in achieving desired objectives at the

workplace (Hamm, Chipperfield, Perry, Parker, & Heckhausen, 2017; Parris et al., 2017). According to Singh and Bhargava (1990) independence implies individual ability to avoid overdependence and to facilitate self-development, self-regulation, competent functioning and psychological well-being that ultimately support the decision-making ability and to achieve the required objectives. Ample research evidence suggested that independence is positively associated with high self-esteem (Owens, 1993). Furthermore, individual having high self-esteem perceive themselves as active, self-respect, successful, a feeling of worthiness, and confidence in their judgements and perceptions. Research also revealed that self-esteem is positively associated with savouring and well-being (Bryant & Veroff, 2007). Savouring in itself involves of sharing, celebrating, displaying and marking positive effect that is positively associated to positive feeling concerning positive events (Gentzler, Morey, Palmer, & Yi, 2013) that supports the life satisfaction, happiness, trust and pro-social sense. Therefore, high self-esteem earns the gains of savouring that eventually helps the self-disclosure. It is noteworthy that, savouring leads to sharing positive events and positive events is inherently embodied within capitalization theory framework. Considering this, the study employed the capitalization theory via savouring for establishing the relationship between independence and self-disclosure. In contrast, individuals with low self esteem perceive themselves as ineffective, unsuccessful, lack of self-respect, overestimate their weakness, little confidence in their judgements and think worse about self after putting up positive self-statement. Therefore, low self-esteem may not earn the gains of savouring. In this sense, this study argues that independence exhibits high self-esteem; high self-esteem is positively associated with savouring that enhances the enormous positive effect, pro-social feeling, happiness, life satisfaction, trust and this, in turn, leads to higher ambition towards displaying their thoughts and opinions (Baumeister et al., 2003) that eventually supports the self-disclosure. Research by Marušić et al. (1995) revealed that independence is strongly positively linked with extraversion and negatively linked with the emotional instability. According to Big Five personality trait, extraversion is characterised by sociability, assertiveness, excitability, emotional expressiveness and talkativeness that eventually supports the positive feeling towards social settings, and meeting with people (Kumar, Bakhshi, & Rani, 2009; Kumar, Shankar, & Singh, 2010). Considering this argument, extraversion give rise to sociability, excitability, assertiveness and talkativeness; notably, extraversion is positively associated with independence, and therefore, independence potentially supports openness to feedback. The research suggested that independence is inherently related to effective functioning, psychological well-being and mental health, and

avoid of overdependence and counter-dependence with others (Burns & Mahalik, 2006; Quick, Joplin, Nelson, Mangelsdorff, & Fiedler, 1996). These independence characteristics can further help the perceptiveness ability within the individual. Building on the above discussion on the relationships between independence, self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness; this study argues that independence has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). (Please refer figure 2.7)

Hypothesis 4(m): Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).

Hypothesis 4(n): Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).

Hypothesis 4(o): Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).
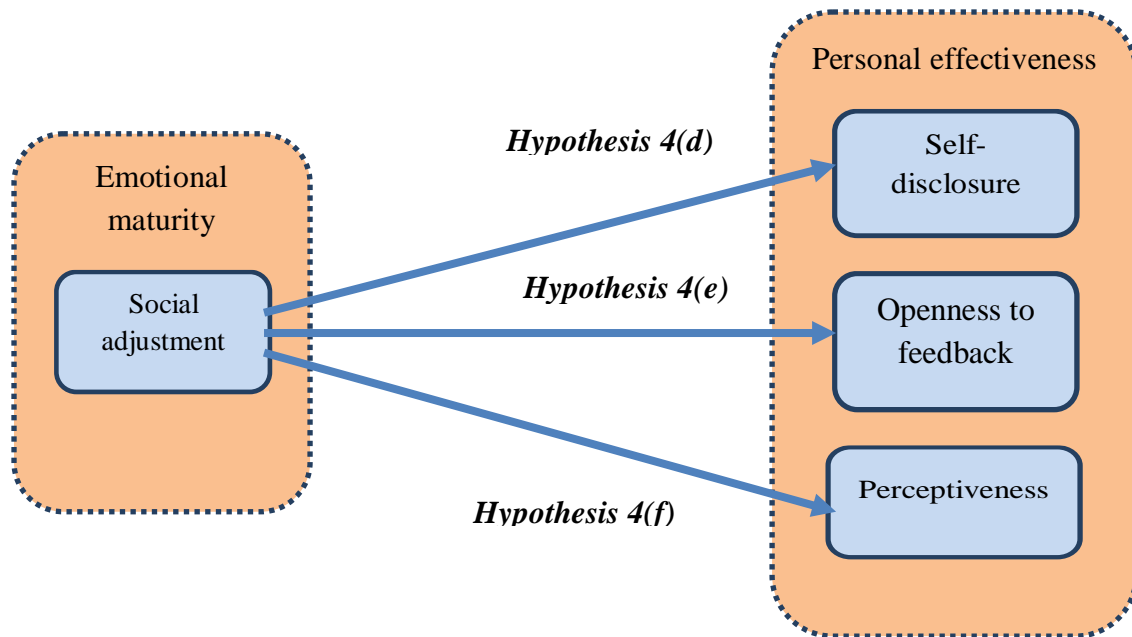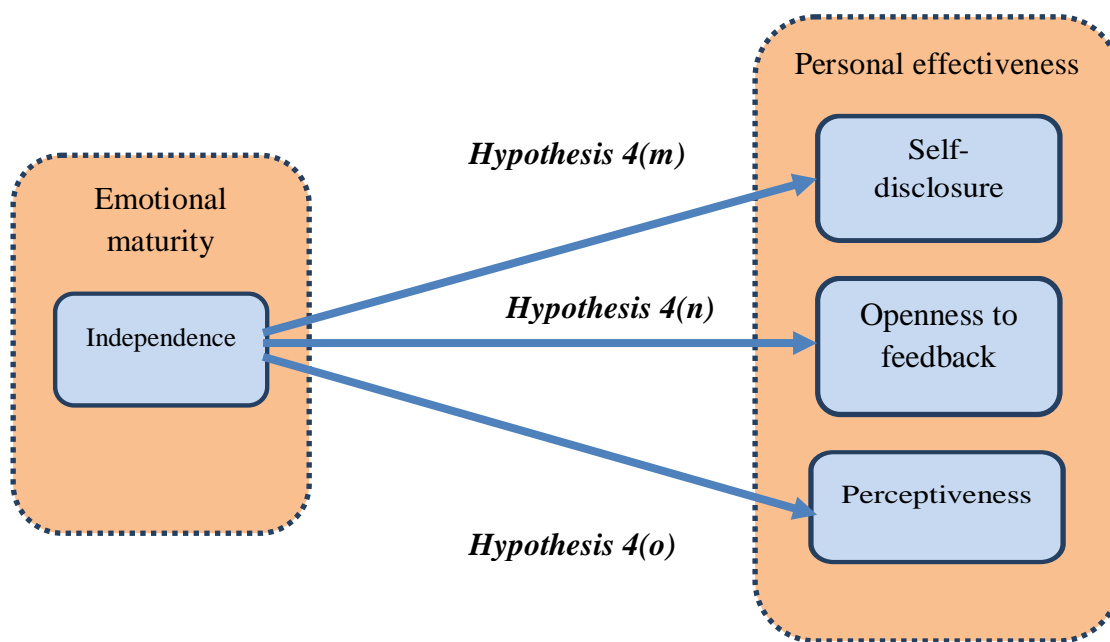

Figure. 2.7: Emotional maturity dimension [Independence (I)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

2.6 Locus of Control (LoC) and Personal Effectiveness (PE)

RQ5: Does locus of control construct predict personal effectiveness?

Ample of research evidence suggested that personal effectiveness plays a crucial role in achieving the organisational objectives and goals (Brewis, 1996). Personal effectiveness is widely examined by numerous researchers in various disciplines such as in social sciences, business management, psychology and economies (Bell, 1998; Charoensuk, Wongsurawat, & Khang, 2014; Greffrath, Meyer, Strydom, & Ellis, 2011). However, early studies emphasised on the central theme that personal effectiveness implies; (i) mastery over the self, (ii) ability to perform effectively and (iii) appropriate self-disclosure that leads to a better interpersonal relationship. Locus of control is conceptualized as an internal locus of control and external locus of control (Rotter, 1966). Internal locus of control (ILoC) appears to have a significant relationship with personal effectiveness as it associated to self-efficacy, self-management, self-control, self-regulation, positive emotions, positive attitudes and self-evaluation (Cascio, Botta, & Anzaldi, 2013; Chen, Li, & Leung, 2016; Srivastava & Sharma, 2012). The research suggested that self-efficacy is positively associated with an individual action that enhances the well-being (vandenHeuvel, Demerouti, & Peeters, 2015). Individual having self-efficacy have confidence in their abilities that ultimately leads to findings of various resources to achieve the goals (Raub & Liao, 2012). Self-efficacy encompasses self-evaluation that supports in enhancing the strength to face difficulties (Breevaart, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2014). In this sense, individual having self-efficacy make them as optimistic that support in shape the best of their resources to achieved the task requirement (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014; vanWoerkom, Oerlemans, & Bakker, 2016). Notably, self-efficacy gives rise to fulfil task requirement (self-efficacy is positively associated with ILoC), and therefore, ILoC is possibly impact on personal effectiveness. Furthermore, Research suggested that self-regulation enhances the individual willingness to directing the emotions, attention and behaviour towards attaining the required goal (Bandura, 1989; Ursache, Blair, & Raver, 2012) that eventually supports in adaptive behaviour this leads to behavioural operationalization of executive functions (Borkowski, Chan, & Muthukrishna, 2000; Fonagy & Target, 2002). Considering this, self-regulation possibly supports individual personal effectiveness (self-regulation is positively associated with ILoC), and therefore, ILoC is possibly influence on personal effectiveness (Monshi & Ghanizadeh, 2012). Based on the proposition derived in the existing literature, this study to propose that internal locus of control has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.

This study utilised the capitalization theory to investigate the relationship between locus of control and personal effectiveness in the Indian context. Broaden-and-build theory considered as the supportive framework for the proposed association because the theory better explains how an individual may displays self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness (personal effectiveness) through the locus of control. Theory indicated that individual having positive emotions likely to displays high on physical, social, intellectual, action, cognition, attention and thought-action repertoire attributes within an individual, which eventually support personal effectiveness. Importantly, positive emotions are positively associated with an internal locus of control. Thus, it leads to the possibility that internal locus of control via broaden-and-build theory may influence on personal effectiveness. Whereas individual having an external locus of control encompass negative self-concept, low in self-awareness, self-control, this leads to higher on stress, anxiety and depression, this eventually leads to isolated behaviour pattern. Thus, it leads to the possibility that external locus of control may impact on personal effectiveness. On the other hand, external locus of control refers an individual believes that the outcome of any event largely depends on luck, chance and others; and they have no control over such events (Rotter, 1966). External locus of control (ELoC) appears to have a negative relationship with personal effectiveness as it associated to the high level of stress, hopelessness, worry, low self-esteem, maladaptive behavioural pattern, negative emotions and expressed negativity (Asberg & Renk, 2014). The research suggested that ELoC is commonly associated with individual tendency to not take accountability and responsibility for their actions (Hunter, 1994). Furthermore, ELoC mostly engages in maladaptive behavioural patterns that lead to a mismatch between the consequences and the effects (Page & Scalora, 2004) that eventually in turn to a feeling of hopelessness (Hood & Carter, 2008). In addition, ELoC is positively associated with higher level of stress (Abouserie, 1994; Mutlu, Balbag, & Cemrek, 2010) and worry (Scott, Carper, Middleton, White, Renk, & Grills-Taquechel, 2010), this in turn to depression and anxiety (Gomez, 1998), that ultimately leads to lower ability to cope with life stress (Carton & Nowicki, 1994). In this sense, individual having ELoC makes them as passivity, inactive, express negativity, negative self-concept, and psychological distress and thereby, they adopt emotion-focused coping that will possibly influence the individual personal effectiveness. Furthermore, ELoC is positively associated with low self-esteem, self-efficacy this in turn to a lower level of autonomy in own behaviour that ultimately leads to counterproductive behaviour (Judge & Bono, 2001; Storms & Spector, 1987). Considering this, ELoC gives rise to maladaptive behavioural pattern and counterproductive behaviour.

Given the existing state of literature, this study proposes that internal locus of control has a significant effect on personal effectiveness; whereas an external locus of control also has a significant effect on employee personal effectiveness. (Please refer figure 2.8)

Hypothesis 5(a): Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.

Hypothesis 5(b): Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.
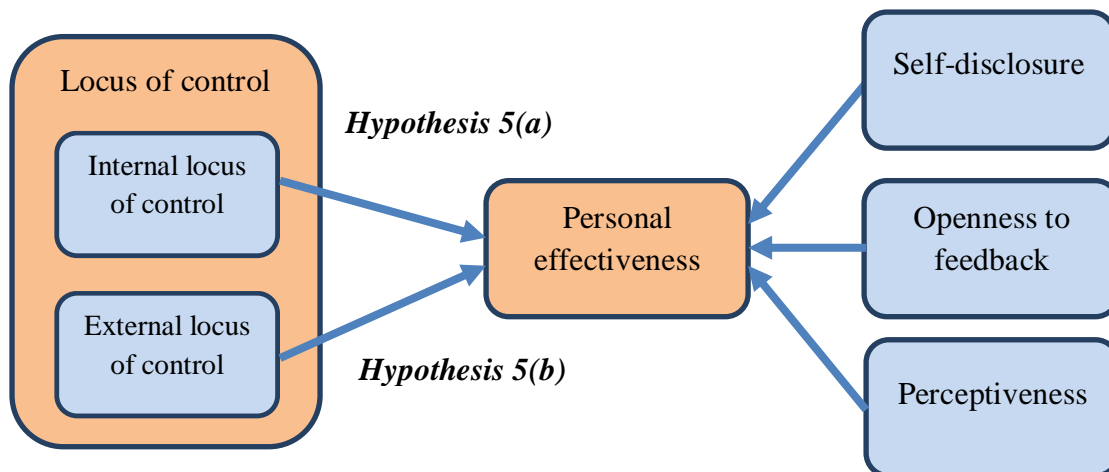
Figure. 2.8: Locus of Control Predicts Personal Effectiveness

2.6.1 Locus of control dimension [Internal locus of control (ILoC)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

Since 1954 the concept of locus of control came in existence and developed by Julian Rotter. Moreover, the locus of control is conceptualised as either internal locus of control or external locus of control (Rotter, 1966). Research suggested that internal locus of control (ILoC) implies an individual believe in their skills and capabilities, that leads to impact the outcome; whereas external locus of control (ELoC) refers an individual feel that the result of any event largely depends on luck, chance and others; and they have no control over such activities. Furthermore, the locus of control is widely examined as a psychological concept that associates to personality (Thomas & Kamalanabahan, 2016). Many studies explored the relationship of locus of control with organizational socialization, organizational identification, self-esteem, procrastination, big five personality traits, self-efficacy, job stress, job performance, job satisfaction, social support, positive self-concept, interpersonal conflict resolution, interpersonal communication, self-management, loneliness, coping effectiveness,

enterprising characteristics and role ambiguity (Anderson et al., 2005; Baumeister et al., 2003; Boysan & Kiral, 2017; Lee, 2013; Ruengdet & Wongsurawat, 2010). The research revealed that ILoC generates positive attitude and positive emotions; whereas lessening negative emotions and stress (Lee, Lemyre, Legault, Turner, & Krewski, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2008; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). In this sense, ILoC is positively linked with positive emotions that help in developing the thought-action repertoire and social resources, thereby enhances social adjustment, which eventually supports self-disclosure (Fredrickson, 1998). Considering this, the "broaden-and-build" theory acts as a support for establishing the relationship between internal locus of control with self-disclosure. Another first study by Ryckman et al. (1973) suggested that individual having ILoC exhibits higher self-disclosure, specifically in the university setting in the Western context. Research also revealed that ILoC is strongly correlated of self-evaluation, self-efficacy, self-management and high self-esteem (Judge & Bono, 2001; Sharma & Sharma, 2015) thereby resulting in self-sufficiency in self-behaviour that supports the self-disclosure. However, individuals with low self-esteem think worse about self after disclosing information to other people, because the individual may be uncertain with their self-view (MacGregor & Holmes, 2011). Furthermore, individuals with high self-esteem lead to self-revealing, self-evaluation, open, and express positivity that can likely to supports the openness to feedback (openness to feedback on those aspects that individual itself not know but other are know about it) (Wood & Forest, 2016). Research also revealed that ILoC tend to live a healthier lifestyle, proactive, self-confident, happy, optimum psychological functioning, and having active conflict resolution ability, express positivity, positive emotions and experiences which are strengthening the positive response from others that ultimately support better interpersonal relationship this may in turn to perceptiveness (perceptiveness implies as understand verbal and non-verbal cues from others) (Antill & Cotton, 1987; Chen, Lu, Yen, & Widjaja, 2015; Glogow, 1986; Spector, 1982). The above discussion leads this study to propose that the internal locus of control has a significant effect on self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. (Please refer figure 2.9)

Hypothesis 5(c): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*

Hypothesis 5(d): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*

Hypothesis 5(e): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*
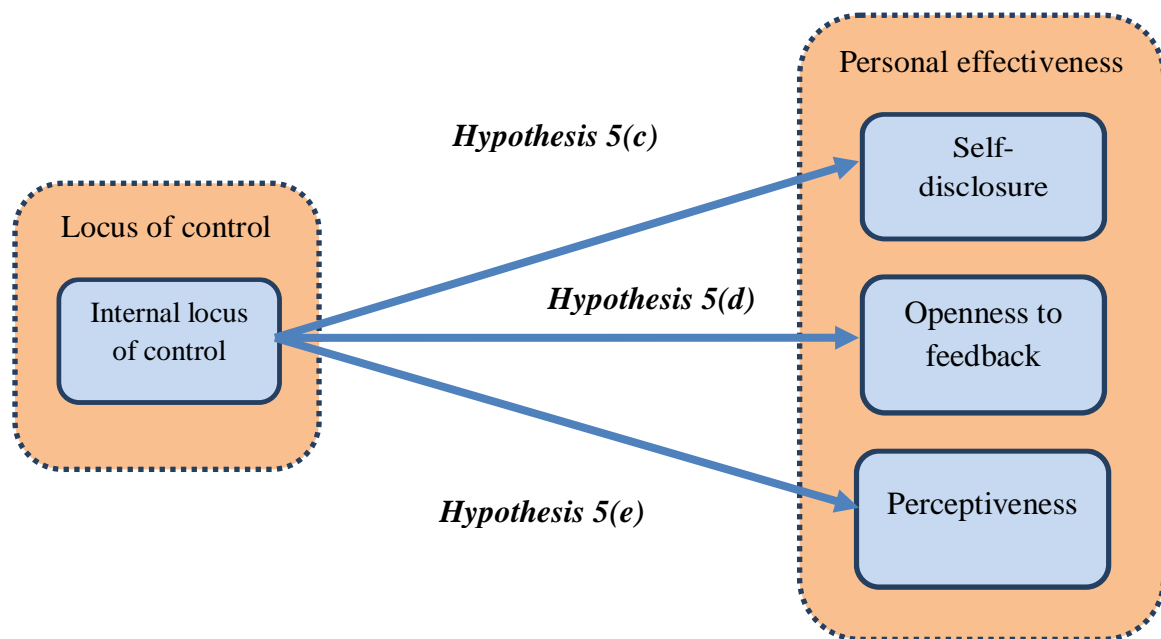
Figure. 2.9: Locus of control dimension [Internal locus of control (ILoC)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

2.6.2 Locus of control dimension [External locus of control (ILoC)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

External locus of control (ELoC) refers to an individual believes that the outcome of any event largely depends on luck, chance and others; and they have no control over such events. ELoC is positively associated with the emotional instability that leads to depression and anxiety; therefore they adopt emotion-focused coping strategies that possibly lead to isolation (Clarke, 2004; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 1998; Taylor, 1982) that ultimately influence the self-disclosure. ELoC display inactive, non-assertive, negative self-concept, anxiety and introvert behaviour (Ashby et al., 2002; Benassi et al., 1998; Mikulincer & Segal, 1991). Furthermore, research also revealed that individual having ELoC might tend to self-disclosure in the situation of anxiety and depression, but this will possibly not results in trust and better interpersonal relationships (Stiles et al., 1992). It is noteworthy that ELoC expresses negativity, negative emotions, psychological distress and avoidance strategy to conflict management that eventually impacts the self-disclosure (Benassi et al., 1988; Canary et al., 1988; Lee et al., 2008; Loosemore & Lam, 2004). In addition to this, ELoC is positively related to low self-esteem, in-active, express negativity and negative self-concept that leads to thinking worse about themselves while making interaction this in turn significant

influence on self-disclosure (Wood, Elaine, Perunovic, & Lee, 2009; Wood & Forest, 2016). Previous research revealed that ELoC had shown depression and anxiety that strongly affect the life satisfaction, happiness, quality of life, well-being this leads to lower self-efficacy (Omani et al., 2017; Stewart & George, 2014). Literature provides the substantial evidence that individual having ELoC are less inclined to self-disclosure and commonly feel negative self-evaluation, low self-esteem, negativity, depression, anxiety and isolation which ultimately leads to reduces the individual feeling towards self-disclosure. Given the extant literature, this study suggests that ELoC has a significant effect on self-disclosure. ELoC display inactive, low assertiveness, low self-esteem that possibly leads to defensive behaviour; defensive behaviour in itself results in conflicted self that will influence on openness to feedback (Jaswal & Dewan, 1997). Furthermore, defensive behaviour comprises of denial, displacement, withdrawal and aggression that ultimately impacts on the perceptiveness. Notably, defensive behaviour gives rise to conflicted self (conflicted self is associated with ELoC via- negative self-evaluation, negativity and low self-esteem); therefore, ELoC potentially not supports the perceptiveness. Building on the argument presented in the existing literature, this study proposed that external locus of control has a significant effect on self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. (Please see figure 2.10)

Hypothesis 5(f): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*

Hypothesis 5(g): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*

Hypothesis 5(h): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*
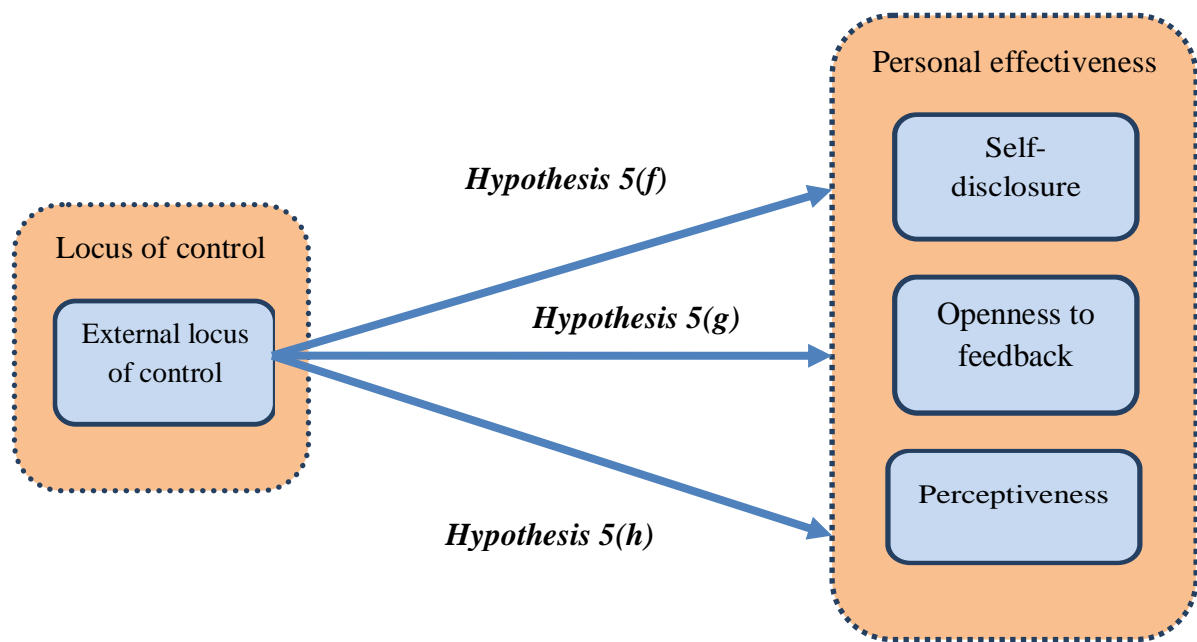
Figure. 2.10: Locus of control dimension [External locus of control (ILoC)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The second chapter is acquainted with the details of the existing literature on the study variables identified for this study. The first section of the second chapter highlights the current state of the literature on emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. The first section focuses explicitly upon the evolution and origin of various study variables concepts and highlights the major gaps in the literature related to study variables. The second section of this chapter discusses the significance of studying demographics variables specifically in the context of emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. The second section particularly highlights about why demographics variables are crucial to be included in this study and examined the main study variables of this study. The third section comprises a detailed review of literature relating the independent dimensions of emotional maturity, locus of control and dependent dimensions of personal effectiveness. The third section also highlights the theoretical justification on the relationships between independent variables (Emotional maturity, the locus of control) and the dependent variable (Personal effectiveness) and proposed the hypotheses in light of the arguments presented in the literature.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

</div>

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is acquaintance with the objectives of the research study, the research questions that derived from research objectives, in-depth description of the sample, procedure for data collection, research instruments for the measurement of the variables under study and finally the statistical analysis approach to testing the research hypotheses. The chapter is concluding with the chapter summary. (Please see figure 3.1)

- The first section provides the research objectives and research questions. **First Section**

- The second section is highlighted the research design in this study. **Second Section**

- The third section is shows the description of the sample. **Third Section**

- The fourth section is provides the data collection-procedure description. **Fourth Section**

- The fifth section is highlighted description of research instruments. **Fifth Section**

- The sixth section is acquaintance with statistical control variables. **Sixth Section**

- The seventh section is provides the analytical approach to study research questions. **Seventh Section**

Figure 3.1: Organization of the chapter 3

3.2 Objectives of the study

This study aims to examine the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control on personal effectiveness. Further, this study also emphasises the role of demographics in influencing the emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. To attain the purpose of this study, the following objectives have been developed:

1.   To study the emotional maturity in relation to demographic differences in selected organizations in India.

2.   To investigate the locus of control in relation to demographic differences in selected organizations in India.

3.   To examine the personal effectiveness in relation to demographic differences in selected organizations in India.

4.   To study the impact of emotional maturity on employee's personal effectiveness.

5.   To investigate the impact of locus of control on employee's personal effectiveness.

The following research questions have been derived herein for the accomplishment of the objectives mentioned above.

1.   Does the employees' emotional maturity dimensions vary with demographics (Age, gender and hierarchical level)?

2.   Does the employees' locus of control dimensions vary concerning demographics (Age, gender and hierarchical level)?

3.   Does the employees' personal effectiveness dimensions vary to demographics (Age, gender and hierarchical level)?

4.   Does emotional maturity construct predict personal effectiveness?

5.   Does locus of control construct predict personal effectiveness?

3.3 Research design

The research design adopted in this study is conclusive research design (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan, & Moorman, 2008). This research design allows for the descriptive research by following survey based cross-sectional design. This study employed quantitative methods to investigate the hypothesised interrelationships between the study variables. The survey-based cross-sectional research design entails the measurement of study variables at one time (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Furthermore, the cross-sectional research designs have an advantage in comparison to longitudinal research designs if the respondents (sample) are highly educated, and the research uses the array of measurement scales (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). Also, the research design also includes the multivariate analyses to examine the

interrelationships between the independent and dependent variables selected in this study depending upon the theoretical foundation relating to the study variables in existing literature (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2013; Ojha, 2016). The independent variables involves five dimensions of emotional maturity (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence) and two dimensions of locus of control (internal locus of control and external locus of control) and the dependent variable involves three dimensions of personal effectiveness (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness).

3.4 Description of the sample

This study involves employees working in public and private sector organizations located in Uttarakhand State of India. The study collected the sample using a structured questionnaire that was administered for a total of 572 emloyees working in the said organizations in India. The sample collected from the selected organizations that were located in Haridware, SIDCUL and Bhagwanpur industrial area of Uttarakhand. The study stresses on target those organizations with having at least 1000 employees with annual turnover of INR 100 crore. It is important to note that the study involves both public and private sector organizations located in Uttarakhand state of India. Such procedure allows us to enhance the statistical power for the collected data and consistency in heterogeneity among the collected samples (Langelaan, Bakker, Van Doornen, & Schaufeli, 2006). Besides this, the selected organization for this study, belonged to power, cement and manufacturing sectors.

Furthermore, 456 respondents returned the questionnaire with response rate of 80% out of total 572 questionnaires that have administered. However, only 410 usable questionnaire considered and a total 46 questionnaire had been removed because the rest 38 questionnaire had missing data, and 8 questionnaires had multiple responses that were not considered for analysis. Conclusively, this study has a total 410 usable questionnaires. The study fulfil the guidelines proposed by Hair et al. (2013) suggested that minimum sample size should be at least 5 times the number of observation to be analysed and more appropriate is 10 times the number of observations. On above rationale, the sample size for this study is adequate. Considering above rationale, the total number of items in the questionnaires is 79 so, the sample size should be lie between 395 and 790. Therefore, the sample for the study have 410 sample size is adequate.

The various designations on which employees were working were "general managers", "senior manager", "managers", "senior executives", "chief engineers", "assistant engineers", "project managers", "production managers", "business analyst", "system analyst" etc. In final analysis 410 questionnaires have considered, from 410 participants, 332 (80.97%) were males, and 78 (19.02%) were females working in 257 (62.68%) public and 153 (37.31%) private sector organisations. The age of respondents were 117 (28.53%) were between 21-25 age, 102 (24.87%) between 26-30 years, followed by 44 (10.73%) were between 31-35 years, 32 (7.8%) were between 36-40 years, 39 (9.51%) were between 41-45 years, 76 (18.53%) were between 46-50 years of age. Of all respondents, 67 (16.34%) were diploma holders, 170 (42.46%) were graduates, 157 (38.29%) were postgraduates and 16 (3.9%) were higher than postgraduates. The respondents have three primary hierarchical level: senior level management were 47 (11.46%), middle-level management were 231 (57.34%), and junior level management were 132 (32.19%). The respondents have different years of experiences- 188 (45.85%) had work experience between 0 to 5 years, 67 (16.34%) between 6 to 10 years, 32 (7.8%) between 11-15 years of experience, 45 (10.97%) between 16-20 years of experience and 78 (19.02%) with more than 20 years of experience. The demographic profile of the respondents is summarised in table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Demographics profile of respondents

Demographics	Categories (Respective coding)	Frequencies ($n = 410$)	Percentages
Age	21-25 (1)	117	28.53%
	26-30 (2)	102	24.87%
	31-35 (3)	44	10.73%
	36-40 (4)	32	7.8%
	41-45 (5)	39	9.51%
	Above 45 (6)	76	18.53%
Gender	Male (1)	332	80.97%
	Female (2)	78	19.02%
Educational Profile	Diploma Holders (1)	67	16.34%
	Graduate (2)	170	41.46%
	Post Graduate (3)	157	38.29%
	Higher than Post Graduate (4)	16	3.9%
Hierarchical Level	Junior Level (1)	132	32.19%

	Middle Level (2)	231	57.34%
	Senior Level (3)	47	11.46%
Organization Type	Private (1)	153	37.31%
	Public (2)	257	62.68%
Total Work Experience (Years)	0-5 (1)	188	45.85%
	6-10 (2)	67	16.34%
	11-15 (3)	32	7.8%
	16-20 (4)	45	10.97%
	Above 20 (5)	78	19.02%

3.5 Data collection-Procedure description

This study employee the 410 employees are working in diverse public and private sector organizations located in the Uttarakhand state of India. This study employed the convenience sampling method for administering the research survey for the current study. The convenience sampling method provides the feasibility to collect the data from a large number of possible respondents. Furthermore, the convenience sampling method provides freedom to the researchers to target those populations that are homogenous and heterogenous within the sample. In addition to that, this study targets those organizations that were having at least 1000 employees with an annual turnover of INR 100 crore. Besides this, convenience sampling method provides us the opportunity to select those organizations that at least they follow the best practices and principle for implementation the human resource development policies to enhance the employee personal effectiveness (Pathak, 2001; Pathak, Budhwar, Singh, & Hannas, 2005; Sekhar, Patwardhan, & Vyas, 2017). Considering the above reason, identification of such organizations could lead likely to possible through using the convenience sampling method.

To achieve the purpose of data collection, the researchers forward the training proposal to various HR managers to selected private and public sector organisations. The training proposal largely provides insight on the emerging issues in human resource management and involves the discussion and training on emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness. Those organisations that give consent to the proposal invited the researcher to conduct training in the organisations. The duration of training programs was off one day, and around 30-45 employees filled the questionnaires in each session from each organisation. Before the survey is administered, the training programs provide the overview and detailed discussion on the said topics. All the doubts and queries of respondents were

cleared at the time of training that leads to accuracy in data. The respondents were asked not to disclose their name to avoid any extra critical behaviour (Pohjanheimo, Paasovaara, Luomala, & Sandell, 2010). In this sense, the identity of respondents and anonymity of responses was assured. Furthermore, the results and analysis of the survey have also been shown during the training programs, and a copy of the report of such survey has been provided to the organisations.

3.6 Description of research instruments

This study entirely emphasises the assessment of the emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. This section provides the in-depth insight about the research instruments that have been used for the assessment of the study variables.

3.6.1 Information pertaining to employee demographics in research instruments

The first section of structured questionnaire involves the information on the employee demographics. The information that was asked to the respondents related to their age, gender, type of organisation (public or private organisation), education profile (diploma holders, graduates, post-graduates and higher than post-graduates), total work experience and hierarchical level. The various demographic variables were coded that has also been shown in table 3.1 above.

3.6.2 Emotional Maturity (EM)

The second section of the questionnaire comprises the items on the dimensions of emotional maturity. This study adopted the emotional maturity scale developed by Singh and Bhargava (1990). Further, the Singh and Bhargava measured the five dimensions of emotional maturity as emotional instability, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, emotional regression and lack of independence. However, researchers employed the Singh and Bhargava scale in concerning the fact that the substance of the item was not changed and there is no addition of items, removing of items, and neither any substantial changes the content of each item, only researchers reverse-score the items to get the measures of five dimensions of emotional maturity as emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression, and independence. Further, this scale consists of 48 items demonstrating five emotional maturity dimensions, i.e. emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence. The respondents were asked to rate the items on a five-point scale with "5-very much" to "1-never". The scale involves items such as "Do you take the help of other persons to complete your personal work?", "Do you experience a sense of discomfort and lack of peace of mind?", "Do you

avoid joining in social gathering?", "Do you lose your mental balance?", "Do people disagree with your views?", "Do you given more importance to your work than others work?". The four dimensions (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration and emotional progression) of emotional maturity comprises of 10 items each and one dimension (independence) of emotional maturity consist of 8 items. Further, the details of the items on each dimension have been mention in chapter 4. The reliability coefficients Cronbach's alpha (α) for five dimensions of emotional maturity is as follows: Emotional stability ($\alpha = .92$), Social adjustment ($\alpha = .95$), Personality integration ($\alpha = .96$), Emotional progression ($\alpha = .93$) and Independence ($\alpha = .89$). The reliability coefficients for all the dimensions of emotional maturity have also been shown in table 3.2.

3.6.3 Locus of Control (LoC)

The third section of the questionnaire involves the items on the dimensions of locus of control. The 16-items locus of control (LoC) with two dimensions of internal locus of control (ILoC) and external locus of control (ELoC) was developed by Spector (1988). Notably, Spector advocated the use of 16-item scale as a one–dimensional scale (Spector, 1988). In contrast, Daniels and Guppy (1992) "demonstrating the importance of treating locus of control as a domain specific multidimensional construct" and "the limitation of the work locus of control is that it is scored unidimensionally, despite theoretical and empirical evidence that locus of control is multidimensional". "In response of such studies, Spector (1992) returned to the original data used to formulate the scale and conducted EFA" (Oliver, Jose, & Brough, 2006). "The result of this analysis was identical to the two-factor structure found" by Daniels and Guppy (1992). On similar lines, Macan, Trusty, and Trimble, (1996) reported that "two factors is consistent with other research findings that support the dual-dimensional view of locus of control" (Wong & Sproule, 1984). "In the dual-dimensional perspective, the construct of internal versus external locus of control is not conceived as a single bipolar dimension. Instead, locus of control is conceptualized as two dimensions, internal and external, making it possible for individual to be high (or low) on both internal and external control. Thus, users of the measures are advised to compute separate subscales given the multidimensionality of the measure". Further to retained the scoring procedure used by Spector (1988) that is low scores on the internal subscale represent high level of internality, whereas high scores on the external subscale represent high levels of externality. In addition to this, Oliver, Jose, and Brough (2006) provided a subsequent analysis that indicated construct multidimensionality. Furthermore, the recent research by Zigarmi, Galloway, and Roberts (2018) considered the locus of control as a multidimensional

construct (internal and external locus of control). Therefore, on the background of above literature, this study adopted the locus of control scale developed by Spector (1988) as a domain specific multidimensional construct and to compute separate subscales given the multidimensionality of the measure. The dimensions that include statements such as: "On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish", "If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it", "Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job", "People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded", "Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune", "In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places", "Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune", "The main difference between peoples who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck". The respondents were asked to rate the items on a five-point scale with "5-strongly agree" to "1-strongly disagree". Further, the details of the items on each dimension have been mention in chapter 4. The reliability coefficients Cronbach's alpha (α) for two dimensions of locus of control is as follows: Internal locus of control ($\alpha = .92$) and External locus of control ($\alpha = .94$). The reliability coefficients for all the dimensions of locus of control have also been shown in table 3.2.

3.6.4 Personal Effectiveness (PE)

The fourth section of the questionnaire involves the items on the dimensions of personal effectiveness. The 15-items personal effectiveness (PE) with three dimensions self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness was developed by Pareek and Purohit (2011). The dimensions that include statements such as: "I find it difficult to be frank with people unless i know them very well", "Generally, I hesitate to express my feeling to others", "When someone directly tells me how he feels about my behaviour, I tend to close up and stop listening", "I express my opinion in a group or to a person without hesitations", "I deliberately observe how a person will take what i am going to tell him, and accordingly communicate to him", "When someone discusses his problems, I do not spontaneously share my experience and personal problems, of a similar nature with him", "I enjoy talking with others about my personal concerns and matters", "I value what people have to say about my style, behaviour", "I am often surprised to discover (or told) that people were put off, bored or annoyed when I thought they were enjoying interacting with me". The respondents were asked to rate the items on a five-point scale with "5-strongly agree" to "1-strongly disagree". Further, the details of the items on each dimension have been mention in chapter 4. The reliability coefficients Cronbach's alpha (α) for three dimensions of personal effectiveness is

as follows: Self-disclosure (α = .89), Openness to feedback (α = .90), and Perceptiveness (α = .91). The reliability coefficients for all the dimensions of locus of control have also been shown in table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Reliability coefficients (α) for the variables under study

Variables	Factors	Reliability coefficients (α)
Emotional Maturity	Emotional Stability	.92
	Social Adjustment	.95
	Personal Integration	.96
	Emotional Progression	.93
	Independence	.89
Locus of Control	Internal Locus of Control	.92
	External Locus of Control	.94
Personal Effectiveness	Self-disclosure	.89
	Openness to feedback	.90
	Perceptiveness	.91

3.7 Statistical control variables

This study also collected the data for the control variables like age, gender and hierarchical level because of their potential influence on emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness. The above variables are presumed to control the adverse effects on endogenous variables through appropriate coding (i.e. dummy variable) as mentioned in Table 3.1. Age has affect employee personal effectiveness (Tang et al., 2013). Furthermore, gender has also been controlled for this study since gender may impact employee personal effectiveness (Egan et al., 2012). Moreover, Manning (2013) suggested that hierarchical employee level may influence the employee personal effectiveness. On similar lines, research by Johnson et al., (2017), Nicholls et al. (2015), and Singh et al. (2014) also revealed that demographic variables such as age, gender and hierarchical level influence the employee emotional maturity. Lastly, Basim et al. (2006), Levin et al. (1994), and Siu et al. (2001) suggested that age, gender and hierarchical level may influence locus of control.

3.8 Analytical approach to study research questions

The various statistical techniques have been employed in this study to fulfil the objectives of this study and to test the multiple hypotheses of this study. The different statistical techniques

that used in this study are correlation analysis, multiple hierarchical regression analysis, t-test and MANOVA. This study utilised the correlation analysis to predict the nature of the relationship between the variables under study (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Multiple Hierarchical regression technique was used to test the predictive effect of the independent variables of emotional maturity (its underlying dimensions) and locus of control (its underlying dimensions) in influencing dependent variable of personal effectiveness (its underlying dimensions). This study used t-test and MANOVA to test the influence of various employees' demographics (age, gender and hierarchical level) on emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. The overall summary of various statistical analyses to test the research questions and hypotheses developed has been provided in the table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3 Statistical analyses associated with each research questions

Research Questions	Hypotheses	Statistical Technique
RQ1: Does the employees' emotional maturity dimensions (*emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence*) vary with demographics (*age, gender and hierarchical level*) of respondents?	***Hypothesis 1(a):*** *Age has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.* ***Hypothesis 1(b):*** *Gender has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.* ***Hypothesis 1(c):*** *Hierarchical level has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.*	MANOVA *Independent sample t*-test MANOVA
RQ2: Does the employees' locus of control dimensions *(internal locus of control and external locus of control)* vary with the demographic profile *(age, gender and hierarchical level)* of respondents?	***Hypothesis 2(a):*** *Age has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.* ***Hypothesis 2(b):*** *Gender has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.* ***Hypothesis 2(c):*** *Hierarchy level has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.*	MANOVA *Independent sample t*-test MANOVA
RQ3: Does the employees' personal effectiveness dimensions (*self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness*) vary	***Hypothesis 3(a):*** *Age has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.* ***Hypothesis 3(b):*** *Gender has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.*	MANOVA *Independent sample t*-test

concerning demographic profile (*age, gender and hierarchical level*)?	***Hypothesis 3(c):*** *Hierarchical level has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.*	MANOVA
RQ4: Does emotional maturity construct predict personal effectiveness?	***Hypothesis 4:*** *Emotional maturity is the predictor of personal effectiveness.*	Multiple hierarchical regression
	Hypothesis 4(a): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	
	Hypothesis 4(b): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	
	Hypothesis 4(c): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	
	Hypothesis 4(d): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	
	Hypothesis 4(e): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	
	Hypothesis 4(f): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	
	Hypothesis 4(g): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	
	Hypothesis 4(h): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	Multiple hierarchical regression
	Hypothesis 4(i): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness)*	

	Hypothesis 4(j): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).	
	Hypothesis 4(k): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).	
	Hypothesis 4(l): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).	
	Hypothesis 4(m): Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).	
	Hypothesis 4(n): Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).	
	Hypothesis 4(o): Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).	
RQ5: Does locus of control construct predict personal effectiveness?	*Hypothesis 5(a): Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.*	Multiple hierarchical regression
	Hypothesis 5(b): Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.	
	Hypothesis 5(c): Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).	
	Hypothesis 5(d): Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).	Multiple hierarchical regression
	Hypothesis 5(e): Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).	

	Hypothesis 5(f): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).* ***Hypothesis 5(g):*** *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).* ***Hypothesis 5(h):*** *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The third chapter provides the details about the research design, data collection and statistical analysis techniques for this study. This chapter also provides insight into the description of the sample, the procedure for collecting data, various research instruments that were used to assess study variables and the statistical analysis approach to test the hypotheses developed to accomplish the objectives of this study. The fourth chapter highlighted the analysis and results provide a detailed discussion of the statistical analysis designed to test the hypotheses and results obtained therein.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This research study emphasised at examined the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control on employee personal effectiveness. The various assessments of study variables, i.e. emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness have been done by employing standardised scales. This research study utilised different statistical techniques to test the proposed hypotheses that include the correlation analysis, t-test, MANOVA and multiple hierarchical regression analysis. The fourth chapter highlights the process of statistical analyses performed to fulfil various objectives of this study. This chapter is structured into four sub-sections. The first section is acquaintance with the discussion on the preliminary screening of data, normality test and the assessment of common method bias (CMB). The second section highlights the process of validation of various research instruments in the Indian context. The third section entails the descriptive statistics of the study variables in this study. The final fourth section detailed the process followed to test the various hypotheses developed on research questions utilising t-test, MANOVA and multiple hierarchical regression analysis. The chapter is concluding with the chapter summary. (Please refer figure 4.1)

First Section
- The first section is acquaintance with the discussion on the preliminary screening of data, normality test and the assessment of common method bias (CMB).

Second Section
- The second section highlights the process of validation of various research instruments in the Indian context.

Third Section
- The third section entails the descriptive statistics of the study variables in this study.

Fourth Section
- The final fourth section detailed the process followed to test the various hypotheses developed on research questions utilising t-test, MANOVA and multiple hierarchical regression analysis.

Figure 4.1: Organization of the chapter 4

4.2 Data screening, normality tests and assessment of Common Method Bias (CMB)

While processing the data for subsequent analysis, the data were subject to screened first concerning missing values, multiple responses and normality test. A total of 456 questionnaires received and 38 questionnaires had missing values, and 8 questionnaires had multiple responses. Therefore, these questionnaires were removed from the analysis and in the final analysis of 410 usable questionnaires. In order to test the normality of data for the variables under study, the data were explored in SPSS. The results thus getting demonstrated that the coefficients of normality (Skewness and Kurtosis) when divided by their standard error (SE) were falling between the range of 3 and 8, respectively, thereby indicating no violation of the normality assumption (Gupta & Kapoor, 2007; Kline, 2011; Malhotra & Dash, 2009; Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, & Chiappa, 2017). In addition to this, according to the central limit theorem, in large samples (> 30 or 40) the sampling distribution tends to be normal (Elliott & Woodward, 2007; Field, 2009; Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). The normality statistics have been displayed in table 4.1 below. This research study employed self-reported measures, and there is a potential threat of common method bias in this study. To check the common method bias, this study utilised Harman's single factor test as prescribed by (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In Harman's single-factor test, all the items were allowed to load on a single factor in principle component analysis, and the number of factors extracted was fixed as one. The outcome of un-rotated factor solutions represents that a single factor accounts for only 19.5% variance. The variance explained in this study for a single factor solution i.e.19.5% is much lesser than 50%, i.e. the minimum threshold for the presence of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012); thus demonstrating that common method variance was not a concern for the present study.

Table 4.1 Normality statistics

Variables	Skewness		Kurtosis	
N = 410	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
Emotional Maturity (EM)	.077	.121	-.947	.240
Locus Of Control (LoC)	-.200	.121	-.616	.240
Personal Effectiveness (PE)	-.273	.121	-.384	.240

4.3 Convergent and discriminant validity of research instruments

4.3.1 Validation of Emotional Maturity Scale (Singh and Bhargava, 1990)

The emotional maturity has been assessed by adopting a 48-items scale developed and validated by Singh and Bhargava (1990). This emotional maturity scale has five dimensions that are emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression, and independence. Four dimensions (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration and emotional progression) consist of 10 items each and one dimension (independence) consist of 8 items. The corresponding items and information of dimensions have been exhibited in table 4.2 below. To test the convergent and discriminant validity of this scale in the Indian context, only confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) has been employed, as emotional maturity scale had already been validated by original authors (Singh & Bhargava, 1990). Convergent validity implies the extent to which indicators of a particular construct converge or share a proportion of variance in common (Hair et al., 2013). To test the convergent validity of emotional maturity scale, researchers' of this research study performed confirmatory factor analysis to test the measurement model with above mention five dimensions. The five-factor model of emotional maturity was found to be fit with a χ^2 of 2024.881, df= 882, CMIN/DF= 2.296, TLI= .92, GFI= .82, CFI= .93, NFI= .90, RMSEA= .056. The Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) for the current analysis was 0.82 higher the conventional criterion of 0.80 as an indication of a good fit (Greenspoon & Saklofske, 1998). Mean, SD, Factor loading, average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV), composite reliability (CR) and reliability coefficient (α) is displayed in table 4.2. All the items of emotional maturity were loaded significantly on its respective dimensions. The internal consistency reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha (α) ranging from 0.90 to 0.96 and average variance extracted for all the emotional maturity dimensions range between .50 for emotional progression to .69 for personality integration demonstrating that constructs are reliable. Additionally, as guidelines prescribed by Hair et al. (2013) convergent validity of a construct is established if it prevails that the composite reliability (CR) of the construct is greater than its average variance extracted (AVE) and AVE is either equal or greater than 0.05. Furthermore, the composite reliability is higher than the average variance extracted for all the constructs demonstrating that the construct to be convergent valid as shown in table 4.2.

Moreover, discriminant validity implies that to which a construct is genuinely distinct from another construct (Hair et al., 2013). To confirm the discriminant validity, researchers

comparing the maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV) with average variance extracted (AVE). As prescribed, discriminate validity exists when the values of MSV and ASV are smaller than the values of AVE (Hair et al., 2013). All the values fulfilled the conditions as mentioned above that were shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Results of confirmatory factor analysis and overall reliability and validity indices for emotional maturity scale

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Emotional stability (ES)	ES1	Are you involved in mental botheration?	3.16	1.214	.65	0.94/0.94	0.628	0.1884	0.0660
	ES2	Do you get frightened about the coming situations?	3.21	1.174	.83				
	ES3	Do you stop in the middle of any work before reaching the goal?	3.21	1.266	.80				
	ES4	Do you take the help of other persons to complete your personal work?	3.29	1.207	.86				
	ES5	Is there any difference between your desires and objectives?	3.24	1.232	.73				

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Emotional stability (ES)	ES6	Do you feel within yourself that you are short-tempered?	3.21	1.210	.79				
	ES7	Do you feel that you are very stubborn?	3.12	1.239	.83				
	ES8	Do you feel jealous of other people?	3.12	1.270	.78				
	ES9	Do you get wild due to anger?	3.15	1.243	.89				
	ES10	Do you get lost in imaginations and day dream?	3.09	1.257	.69				
Social adjustment (SA)	SA1	Do you have a strained companionship with your friends and colleagues?	3.26	1.278	.72				
	SA2	Do you hate others?	2.99	1.353	.83	**0.93/0.93**	**0.575**	**0.1884**	**0.0773**
	SA3	Do you praise yourself?	3.43	1.211	.60				
	SA4	Do you avoid joining in social gathering?	3.17	1.312	.86				

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Social adjustment (SA)	SA5	Do you spend much of your time for your own sake?	3.30	1.269	.73				
	SA6	Do you lie?	3.08	1.281	.80				
	SA7	Do you bluff?	3.09	1.352	.83				
	SA8	Do you like very much to be alone?	3.23	1.260	.73				
	SA9	Are you proud by nature?	3.38	1.272	.59				
	SA10	Do you shrunk from work?	3.08	1.332	.79				
Personality integration (PI)	PI1	Even though you know some work, do you pretend as if you do not know it?	3.40	1.212	.88				
	PI2	Even if you do not know about some work, do you pose as if you know it?	3.31	1.169	.69	0.95/0.96	0.696	0.2180	0.1329
	PI3	Having known that you are at fault, instead of accepting it, do you try to establish that you are right?	3.50	1.227	.94				
	PI4	Do you suffer from any kind of fear?	3.45	1.144	.71				

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Personality integration (PI)	PI5	Do you loose your mental balance?	3.40	1.251	.87				
	PI6	Are you in the habit of stealing of any thing?	3.37	1.321	.70				
	PI7	Do you indulge freely without bothering about moral codes of conduct?	3.37	1.266	.62				
	PI9	Do you have a weak self-will?	3.40	1.168	.69				
	PI10	Are you intolerant about the views of others?	3.32	1.234	.65				
Emotional progression (EP)	EP1	If you fail to achieve your goal, do you feel inferior?	3.31	1.223	.67				
	EP2	Do you experience a sense of discomfort and lack of peace of mind?	3.26	1.182	.63				
	EP3	Do you teasing against the others?	3.13	1.369	.87	0.90/0.92	0.501	0.0268	0.0116
	EP4	Do you try to put the blame on others for your lapses?	2.98	1.401	.91				
	EP5	When you do not agree with others, do you starts quarrelling with them?	3.13	1.334	.81				

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Emotional progression (EP)	EP6	Do you feel yourself as exhausted?	3.08	1.228	.64				
	EP7	Is your behaviour more aggressive than your friends and others?	3.11	1.264	.65				
	EP8	Do you get lost in the world of imaginations?	3.10	1.310	.55				
	EP9	Do you feel that you are self centred?	3.17	1.254	.60				
	EP10	Do you feel that you are dissatisfied with yourself?	3.07	1.275	.58				
Independence (I)	I1	Do people consider you as undependable?	3.21	1.303	.79				
	I2	Do people disagree with your views?	3.17	1.181	.80				
	I3	Would you like to be a follower?	3.31	1.241	.79	**0.90/0.90**	**0.592**	**0.0630**	**0.0405**
	I4	Do you disagree with the opinions of your group?	3.29	1.206	.80				
	I5	Do people think of you as an irresponsible person?	3.07	1.479	.86				

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Independence (I)	I6	Don't you evince interest in others work?	2.94	1.259	.58				
	I7	Do people hesitate to take your help in any work?	2.78	1.414	.71				

Notes: *N* = 410, AVE: Average variance extracted, MSV: Maximum shared variance, ASV: Average shared variance. Items numbers represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire.

4.3.2 Validation of Locus of Control Scale (Spector's 1988)

The locus of control has been assessed by adopting a 16-items scale developed and validated by Spector's (1988). This locus of control scale has two dimensions are the internal locus of control and external locus of control. One dimension internal locus of control consists of 8 items and another dimension external locus of control consists of 8 items. The corresponding items and information of dimensions have been displayed in table 4.3 below. To test the convergent reliability of locus of control, the researchers performed confirmatory factor analysis to test the measurement model with two dimensions (internal locus of control and external locus of control). The two factor model of locus of control was found to be fit with a χ^2= 49.743, df= 26, CMIN/DF= 1.913, TLI= .98, GFI= .97, CFI= .98, NFI= .97, RMSEA= .047. Mean, SD, Factor loading, average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV), composite reliability (CR) and reliability coefficient (α) is displayed in table 4.3. All the items of locus of control were loaded significantly on its respective dimensions. The internal consistency reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha (α) ranging from 0.88 to 0.92 and average variance extracted for all the locus of control dimensions range between .61 for the external locus of control to .65 for internal locus of control demonstrating that constructs are reliable.

Additionally, as guidelines prescribed by Hair et al. (2013) convergent validity of a construct is established if it prevails that the composite reliability (CR) of the construct is higher than its average variance extracted (AVE) and AVE is either equal or greater than

0.05. Furthermore, the composite reliability is higher than the average variance extracted for all the constructs demonstrating that the construct to be convergent valid as shown in table 4.3. Moreover, discriminate validity implies that to which a construct is truly distinct from another construct (Hair et al., 2013). To confirm the discriminate validity, researchers comparing the maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV) with average variance extracted (AVE). As prescribed, discriminate validity exists when the values of MSV and ASV are smaller than the values of AVE (Hair et al., 2013). All the values fulfilled the conditions as mentioned above that were shown in Table 4.3. Therefore, the discriminate validity of the two-factor model is confirmed in this research study.

Table 4.3 Results of confirmatory factor analysis and overall reliability and validity indices for locus of control scale

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Internal Locus of Control (ILoC)	ILoC1	A job is what you make of it	3.40	1.112	.70	0.90/0.92	0.653	0.0044	0.0044
	ILoC2	On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish	3.33	1.080	.64				
	ILoC3	If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you	3.47	1.151	.88				
	ILoC4	If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it	3.43	1.113	.86				
	ILoC5	Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the efforts	3.46	1.118	.91				

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
External Locus of Control (ELoC)	ELoC 1	Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck	3.47	1.088	.69	0.89/0.88	0.615	0.1892	0.0968
	ELoC 2	Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune	3.36	1.171	.70				
	ELoC 3	In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places	3.59	1.088	.78				
	ELoC 4	Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune	3.53	1.157	.84				
	ELoC 5	When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know	3.60	1.107	.87				

Notes: *N* = 410, AVE: Average variance extracted, MSV: Maximum shared variance, ASV: Average shared variance. Items numbers represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire.

4.3.3 Validation of Personal Effectiveness Scale (Pareek and Purohit, 2011)

The personal effectiveness has been assessed by adopting a 15-items scale developed and validated by Pareek and Purohit (2011). This personal effectiveness scale has three dimensions that are self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Each dimension (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) consists of 5 items each. Table 4.4 exhibited the information on the corresponding items and various dimensions. To test the convergent reliability of personal effectiveness, researchers performed confirmatory factor analysis to test the measurement model with three dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). The three-factor model of personal

effectiveness was found to be fit with a χ²= 217.115, df= 79, CMIN/DF= 2.748, TLI= .96, GFI= .93, CFI= .97, NFI= .96, RMSEA= .065. Table 4.4 displayed the Mean, SD, Factor loading, average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV), composite reliability (CR) and reliability coefficient (α). All the items of personal effectiveness were loaded significantly on its respective dimensions.

Table 4.4 Results of confirmatory factor analysis and overall reliability and validity indices for personal effectiveness scale

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Self-disclosure (SD)	SD1	I don't find it difficult to be frank with people who are known very less to me.....	3.68	.927	.68	0.87/0.89	0.587	0.0151	0.0108
	SD2	I don't tend to say things that turn out to be out of place	3.60	.928	.51				
	SD3	When someone directly tells me how he feels about my behaviour, I don't tend to close up and stop listening	3.80	.912	.94				
	SD4	I express my opinion in a group or to a person without hesitations	3.74	.920	.74				
	SD5	I deliberately observe how a person will take what i am going to tell him, and accordingly communicate to him	3.75	.947	.89				

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Openness to feedback (OF)	OF1	I listen carefully to others opinion about my behaviour	3.61	.989	.98	**0.89/0.90**	**0.618**	**0.0151**	**0.0079**
	OF2	Generally, I don't hesitate to express my feeling to others	3.59	.992	.87				
	OF3	On hindsight, i regret why i did not said something tactfully	3.71	.950	.77				
	OF4	I take steps to find out how my behaviour has been perceived by the person with whom i have been interacting	3.63	.982	.66				
	OF5	When someone discusses his problems, I spontaneously share my personal and experience problems, of a similar nature with him	3.63	.983	.56				
Perceptiveness (P)	P1	I don't tend to say things that turn out to be out of place	3.62	.961	.55				

Dimensions	Item No.	Item Description	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability/ α	AVE	MSV	ASV
Perceptiveness (P)	P2	On hindsight, i regret why i did not said something tactfully	3.64	.963	.68	0.89/0.90	0.629	0.0064	0.0035
	P3	I deliberately observe how a person will take what i am going to tell him, and accordingly communicate to him	3.74	.945	.84				
	P4	I don't fail to pick up cues about others feeling and reactions when i am involved in an argument or a conversation	3.80	.941	.86				
	P5	I am not surprised to discover (or told) that people were put off, bored or annoyed when I thought they were enjoying interacting with me	3.86	.921	.97				

Notes: N = 410, AVE: Average variance extracted, MSV: Maximum shared variance, ASV: Average shared variance. Items numbers represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire.

The internal consistency reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha (α) ranging from 0.89 to 0.90 and average variance extracted for all the personal effectiveness dimensions range between .58 for self-disclosure to .62 for perceptiveness demonstrating that constructs are reliable. Additionally, as guidelines prescribed by Hair et al. (2013) convergent validity of a construct is established if it prevails that the composite reliability (CR) of the construct is higher than its average variance extracted (AVE) and AVE is either equal or greater than

0.05. Furthermore, the composite reliability is higher than average variance extracted for all the constructs demonstrating that the construct to be convergent valid as shown in table 4.4. Moreover, discriminate validity implies that to which a construct is truly distinct from another construct (Hair et al., 2013). To confirm the discriminate validity, researchers comparing the maximum shared variance (MSV), average shared variance (ASV) with average variance extracted (AVE). As prescribed, discriminate validity exists when the values of MSV and ASV are smaller than the values of AVE (Hair et al., 2013). All the values fulfilled the conditions as mentioned above that were shown in Table 4.4. Therefore, the discriminate validity of the three-factor model is confirmed in this research study.

4.4 Results of descriptive statistics

This section highlights the descriptive statistics and correlation between the study variables. The various variables under study are: (i) Emotional maturity dimensions (emotional stability social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence), (ii) Locus of control dimensions (internal locus of control and external locus of control), and (iii) Personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). The means, standard deviations (SD), reliability coefficients (α) and inter-correlations among the study variables are exhibited in table 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7 below.

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Independent Variables

This study considered two independent variables. The first independent variable is emotional maturity that involves five dimensions. Table 4.5 presents the mean for emotional stability ($M = 3.18$, $SD = .992$), social adjustment ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 1.015$), personality integration ($M = 3.40$, $SD = .964$), emotional progression ($M = 3.13$, $SD = .993$) and independence ($M = 3.11$, $SD = .989$). Moreover the results of correlation matrix indicating that the dimensions of emotional maturity are linked with each other with highest correlation observed between emotional stability and social adjustment ($r = .448$, $p < .01$) and the lowest between emotional stability and independence ($r = .129$, $p < .01$). Moreover, results of correlation matrix also indicating that the dimensions of emotional maturity are connected with dimensions of personal effectiveness between emotional stability and self-disclosure ($r = .296$, $p < .01$), emotional stability and openness to feedback ($r = .307$, $p < .01$), social

adjustment and self-disclosure ($r = .276$, $p < .01$), social adjustment and openness to feedback ($r = .347$, $p < .01$), personality integration and self-disclosure ($r = .325$, $p < .01$), personality integration and openness to feedback ($r = .314$, $p < .01$), and finally independence and self-disclosure ($r = .220$, $p < .01$). Table 4.6 presents the mean for emotional maturity ($M = 3.21$, $SD = .586$), internal locus of control ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .979$), external locus of control ($M = 3.51$, $SD = .954$) and personal effectiveness ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .504$) and the results of correlation matrix also indicating that the emotional maturity is associated with personal effectiveness ($r = .376$, $p < .01$), emotional maturity and internal locus of control ($r = .277$, $p < .01$), emotional maturity and external locus of control ($r = .283$, $p < .01$), internal locus of control and personal effectiveness ($r = .418$, $p < .01$), and finally external locus of control and personal effectiveness ($r = .441$, $p < .01$). Further, the reliability coefficient (α) for all the dimensions of emotional maturity falls among the acceptable limits (> 0.7) with highest reliability coefficient has been obtained for personality integration ($\alpha = .96$), followed by emotional stability ($\alpha = .94$), social adjustment ($\alpha = .93$), emotional progression ($\alpha = .92$) and independence ($\alpha = .90$) (Nunnally, 1978).

Table 4.5 Mean, SD and intercorrelation between the emotional maturity dimensions and personal effectiveness dimensions

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ES	3.18	.992	(.94)							
SA	3.20	1.015	.448**	(.93)						
PI	3.40	.964	.264**	.293**	(.93)					
EP	3.13	.993	.087	.001	-.023	(.92)				
I	3.11	.989	.129**	.282**	.259**	.134**	(.93)			
SD	3.71	.775	.296**	.276**	.325**	.042	.220**	(.89)		
OP	3.63	.826	.307**	.347**	.314**	-.056	.048	.101*	(.90)	
P	3.73	.802	-.032	-034	.075	-.041	.022	.025	.149**	(.90)

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .01$, $p < .05$ the reliability coefficients (α) are displayed in parentheses and appears on the diagonal of correlation matrix.

Table 4.6 Mean, SD and intercorrelation between the variables under study

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3
EM	3.21	.586			
ILoC	3.42	.979	.277**		
ELoC	3.51	.954	.283**	.014	
PE	3.69	.504	.376**	.418**	.441**

Note: $N = 410$, $p < .01$

Furthermore, the second independent variable is locus of control that involves two dimensions. Table 4.7 displayed the results of mean and standard deviation, in which the mean of external locus of control ($M = 3.51$, $SD = .954$) is highest than internal locus of control ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .979$). Further the results of correlation matrix revealed that the dimensions of locus of control is not significantly associated with each other ($r = .014$, $p > .05$). Furthermore, results of correlation matrix also indicating that the dimensions of locus of control are associated with dimensions of personal effectiveness between internal locus of control and self-disclosure ($r = .476$, $p < .01$), internal locus of control and openness to feedback ($r = .302$, $p < .01$), and external locus of control and self-disclosure ($r = .405$, $p < .01$), external locus of control and openness to feedback ($r = .102$, $p < .05$), and finally external locus of control and perceptiveness ($r = .334$, $p < .01$). Further, the reliability coefficient (α) for all the dimensions of locus of control falls among the acceptable limits (> 0.7) with highest reliability coefficient has been obtained for internal locus of control (α = .92) and external locus of control (α = .90).

Table 4.7 Mean, SD and intercorrelations between locus of control and personal effectiveness

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
ILoC	3.42	.979	(.92)				
ELoC	3.51	.954	.014	(.90)			
SD	3.71	.775	.476**	.405**	(.89)		
OF	3.63	.826	.302**	.102*	.101*	(.90)	
P	3.73	.802	.017	.334**	.025	.149**	(.90)

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .01$, $p < .05$, the reliability coefficients (α) are displayed in parentheses and appears on the diagonal of correlation matrix.

4.4.2 Descriptive Statistics and Dependent Variables

The dependent variable in this study is personal effectiveness. Personal effectiveness involves three dimensions (i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). Table 4.7 represents the mean for self-disclosure ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .775$), openness to feedback ($M = 3.63$, $SD = .826$), and perceptiveness ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .802$). Moreover, the results of correlation matrix indicating that the dimensions of personal effectiveness are associated with each other with the highest correlation observed between openness to feedback and perceptiveness ($r = .149$, $p < .01$) and the lowest between self-disclosure and openness to feedback ($r = .101$, $p < .05$). Further, the reliability coefficient (α) for all the dimensions of personal effectiveness falls among the acceptable limits (> 0.7) with highest reliability coefficient has been obtained for openness to feedback ($\alpha = .90$), perceptiveness ($\alpha = .90$), followed by self-disclosure ($\alpha = .89$).

4.5 Investigation related to research questions

This section shows the testing of various hypotheses that support to achieve the objectives of this study. This research study framed five research questions based on the objectives of the study. The following section of the chapter provides detailed insight of various statistical techniques employed and the results obtained therein. The interpretations have been elaborated to address multiple research questions.

4.5.1 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ1

RQ1: Does the employees' emotional maturity dimensions (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence) vary with the demographic profile (age, gender and hierarchical level) of respondents?

Hypothesis 1(a): Age has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.

Hypothesis 1(b): Gender has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.

Hypothesis 1(c): Hierarchical level has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.

To test the hypothesis 1 (a) which asserts that age has a significant effect on emotional maturity dimensions (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence), MANOVA test had been employed. There was a significant difference between age groups when considered jointly on the emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression, and independence, Wilk's $\Lambda = .452$, $F_{25, 1487} = 14.199$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .14$. Table 4.8 below exhibited the results for analysis of variance which demonstrated that there was a significant difference between age groups on emotional stability, $F_{5, 404} = 5.68$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .11$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the (36-40) age group was significantly different (M = 2.39, SD = .792; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). Further, there was a significant difference between age groups on social adjustment, $F_{5, 404} = 26.057$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .24$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the (21-25) age group was significantly different (M = 3.13, SD = 1.075; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001) and also (26-30) age group was significantly different (M = 3.80, SD = .564; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001), and finally, (41-45) age group significantly different (M = 2.04, SD = .634; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001).

Further, there was a significant difference between age groups on personality integration, $F_{5, 404} = 8.108$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .09$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the (above 45) age group significantly different (M = 2.79, SD = 2.798; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). Further, there was a significant difference between age groups on emotional progression, $F_{5, 404} = 29.803$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .27$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the (21-25) age group significantly different (M = 3.24, SD = .709; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001) and (36-40) age group significantly different (M = 2.15, SD = .693; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001) and (41-45) age group significantly different (M= 2.38, SD = 1.09). Furthermore, there was not a significant difference between age groups on independence, $F_{2, 407} = .959$, $p = .443$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. The results thus partially support the hypotheses 1 (a). This means that the dimensions of emotional maturity (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration and emotional progression) will vary depending upon age groups except for independence.

Table 4.8 Summary of the analysis of variance for the dimensions of emotional maturity (age basis)

Source of Variance	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Sum of Square (MS)	F	P
(a) Emotional Stability					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1 (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4* (41-45) coded as 5 (Above 45) coded as 6	47.428	5	9.486	10.775	.000
Within subjects	355.672	404	.880		
Total	403.100	409			
(b) Social Adjustment					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1* (26-30) coded as 2* (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4 (41-45) coded as 5* (Above 45) coded as 6	102.926	5	20.585	26.057	.000
Within subjects	319.156	404	.790		
Total	422.081	409			
(c) Personality Integration					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1 (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4 (41-45) coded as 5 (Above 45) coded as 6*	34.727	5	6.945	8.108	.000
Within subjects	346.082	404	.857		
Total	380.809	409			
(d) Emotional Progression					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1* (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4* (41-45) coded as 5* (Above 45) coded as 6	108.770	5	21.754	29.803	.000
Within subjects	294.891	404	.730		
Total	403.662	409			
(e) Independence					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1 (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4 (41-45) coded as 5 (Above 45) coded as 6	4.697	5	.939	.959	.443
Within subjects	395.725	404	.980		
Total	400.422	409			

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .001$. (* indicate the significant age group as per Scheffe post hoc analysis, $p < .001$)

To test the hypothesis 1 (b) which asserts that gender has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence; and independent sample t- test has been employed. Additionally, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for emotional stability and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = 2.04$, $p = .154$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = .32$, $p = .748$, 95% CI (-.204, .284). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females concerning emotional stability. Similarly, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for social adjustment and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = .09$, $p = .923$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = 1.28$, $p = .199$, 95% CI (-.413, .086). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females concerning social adjustment.

Similarly, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for personality integration and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = .03$, $p = .862$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = -.174$, $p = .862$, 95% CI (-.258, .216). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females concerning personality integration. Similarly, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for emotional progression and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = 1.87$, $p = .172$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = 1.18$, $p = .238$, 95% CI (-.097, .391). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females concerning emotional progression. Similarly, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for independence and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = 1.87$, $p = .172$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = .129$, $p = .898$, 95% CI (-.227, .259). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females concerning independence. Table 4.9 below exhibited the results for independent sample t-test. Thus the results not support the hypothesis 1 (b). This implies that emotional maturity dimensions will not vary depending upon their gender.

Table 4.9 Summary of independent sample T-test for dimensions of emotional maturity (gender basis)

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t –value	Df	Sig.	Cohen's d	CI Lower case	CI Upper case
Emotional Stability (ES)	Males	332	3.1906	1.0116	.321	408	.154	0.041	-.204	.284
	Females	78	3.1506	.9160						
Social Adjustment (SA)	Males	332	3.1731	1.0174	-1.287	408	.923	0.158	-.413	.086
	Females	78	3.3367	1.0048						
Personality Integration (PI)	Males	332	3.4030	.9653	-.174	408	.862	.0202	-.258	.216
	Females	78	3.4241	.9693						
Emotional Progression (EP)	Males	332	3.1659	.9790	1.181	408	.172	0.143	-.097	.391
	Females	78	3.0190	1.0498						
Independence (I)	Males	332	3.1220	.9854	.129	408	.773	0.016	-.227	.259
	Females	78	3.1060	1.0125						

Notes: $N = 410, p < .05$

To test hypothesis 1 (c) which asserts that hierarchy level has a significant effect on emotional maturity dimensions (emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence) and MANOVA test had been used. There was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees when considered jointly on the emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression, and independence, Wilk's $\Lambda = .756$, $F_{10, 806} = 12.11$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .13$. Furthermore, an each ANOVA evaluated at an alpha level of .025 demonstrated that there was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees on emotional stability, $F_{2, 407} = 5.68$, $p = .004$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the senior hierarchical level group was significantly different (M = 2.79, SD = .979; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). There was not a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level on social adjustment, $F_{2, 407} = .53$, $p = .586$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$. Further, there was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees on personality integration, $F_{2, 407} = 12.51$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the senior hierarchical level group was significantly different (M = 2.77, SD = 1.417; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). Similarly, there was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees on emotional progression, $F_{2, 407} = 34.41$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .14$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the middle hierarchical level group was significantly different (M = 2.81, SD = 1.027; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). Finally, there was significant difference between between junior, middle and senior level employees on independence, $F_{2,}$

$_{407} = 4.24$, $p = .015$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the senior hierarchical level group was significantly different (M = 3.11, SD = .989; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). The results thus partially support the hypotheses 1 (c). This means that the dimensions of emotional maturity (emotional stability, personality integration, emotional progression and independence) will vary depending upon hierarchical level except for social adjustment. The results of analysis of variance for the emotional maturity dimensions have been displayed in table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10: Summary of the analysis of variance for the dimensions of emotional maturity (hierarchy basis)

Source of Variance	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Sum of Square (MS)	F	P
(a) Emotional Stability					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1 Middle level coded as 2 Senior level coded as 3*	10.952	2	5.476	5.683	.004
Within subjects	392.149	407	.964		
Total	403.100	409			
(b) Social Adjustment					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1 Middle level coded as 2 Senior level coded as 3	1.106	2	.553	.534	.586
Within subjects	420.976	407	1.034		
Total	422.081	409			
(c) Personality Integration					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1 Middle level coded as 2 Senior level coded as 3*	22.055	2	11.028	12.511	.000
Within subjects	358.754	407	.881		
Total	380.809	409			
(d) Emotional Progression					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1 Middle level coded as 2* Senior level coded as 3	58.391	2	29.195	34.415	.000
Within subjects	345.271	407	.848		
Total	403.662	409			
(e) Independence					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1 Middle level coded as 2 Senior level coded as 3*	8.185	2	4.092	4.246	.015
Within subjects	392.237	407	.964		
Total	400.422	409			

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .001$. (* indicate the significant age group as per Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001)

4.5.2 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ2

RQ2: Does the employees' locus of control dimensions (internal locus of control and external locus of control) vary with demographic profile (age, gender and hierarchical level) of respondents?

Hypothesis 2(a): Age has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.

Hypothesis 2(b): Gender has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.

Hypothesis 2(c): Hierarchy level has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.

To test hypothesis 2 (a) which asserts age has a significant effect on locus of control dimensions (internal locus of control and external locus of control) and MANOVA test had been used. There was a significant difference between age groups when considered jointly on the internal locus of control and external locus of control, Wilk's Λ = .611, $F_{10, 806}$ = 22.55, p = .000, partial η^2 = .21. Table 4.11 below exhibited the results for analysis of variance which demonstrated that there was a significant difference between age groups on internal locus of control, $F_{5, 404}$ = 10.08, p = .000, partial η^2 = .12. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the (21-25) age group was significantly different (M = 3.10, SD = 1.104; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001), and the (above 45) age group was significantly different (M = 3.67, SD = .813; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). Further, there was a significant difference between age groups on external locus of control, $F_{5, 404}$ = 33.97, p = .000, partial η^2 = .29. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the (41-45) age group was significantly different (M = 2.11, SD = .843; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001) and also (above 45) age group was significantly different (M = 3.26, SD = .957; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). The results thus obtained are fully supported the hypothesis 2 (a). The results of analysis of variance for the locus of control dimensions have been displayed in table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11 Summary of the analysis of variance for the dimensions of locus of control (age basis)

Source of Variance	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Sum of Square (MS)	F	P
(a) Internal Locus of Control					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1* (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4 (41-45) coded as 5 (Above 45) coded as 6*	50.437	5	10.087	11.905	.000
Within subjects	342.316	404	.847		
Total	392.754	409			
(b) External Locus of Control					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1 (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4 (41-45) coded as 5* (Above 45) coded as 6*	106.993	5	21.399	33.970	.000
Within subjects	254.492	404	.630		
Total	361.485	409			

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .001$. (* indicate the significant age group as per Scheffe post hoc analysis, $p < .001$)

Furthermore, to test the hypothesis 2 (b) which asserts that gender has a significant effect on (internal locus of control and external locus of control), independent sample t- test had been utilised. Additionally, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for internal locus of control and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = 1.21$, $p = .271$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = .51$, $p = .607$, 95% CI (-.304, .178). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females concerning internal locus of control. Similarly, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for external locus of control and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = 1.70$, $p = .192$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = .77$, $p = .442$, 95% CI (-.322, .140). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females concerning external locus of control. The results did not support hypothesis 2 (b). This means that employee locus of control will not vary depending upon their gender. Table 4.12 below exhibited the summary of independent sample t-test regarding locus of control dimensions.

Table 4.12 Summary of independent sample T-test for dimensions of locus of control (gender basis)

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t – value	Df	Sig.	Cohen's d	CI Lower case	CI Upper case
Internal Locus of Control (ILoC)	Males	332	3.4103	.9856	-.514	408	.271	0.062	-.304	.178
	Females	78	3.4734	.9603						
External Locus of Control (ELoC)	Males	332	3.5227	.9572	.263	408	.144	0.052	-.322	.140
	Females	78	3.4911	.8693						

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .05$.

Furthermore, to test the hypothesis 2 (c) which asserts that hierarchy level has a significant effect on (internal locus of control and external locus of control), MANOVA test had been utilised. There was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees when considered jointly on the internal locus of control and external locus of control, Wilk's $\Lambda = .866$, $F_{4, 812} = 15.14$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .06$. Furthermore, an each ANOVA evaluated at an alpha level of .025 demonstrated that there was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees on internal locus of control, $F_{2, 407} = 6.39$, $p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the junior hierarchy level group was significantly different (M = 3.18, SD = 1.101; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001), and also middle hierarchy level group was significantly different (M = 3.51, SD = .903; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001), and finally, senior hierarchy level group was significantly different (M = 3.67, SD = .854; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). Further, there was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees on external locus of control, $F_{2, 407} = 12.977$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .06$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the junior hierarchy level group was significantly different (M = 3.88, SD = .745; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). Thus, hypothesis 2 (c) is fully supported. This means that employee's locus of control will vary depending upon the hierarchical level (junior, middle and senior level). Table 4.13 exhibited the results of summary of analysis of variance.

Table 4.13 Summary of the analysis of variance for the dimensions of locus of control (hierarchy basis)

Source of Variance	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Sum of Square (MS)	F	P
(a) Internal Locus of Control					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1* Middle level coded as 2* Senior level coded as 3*	11.972	2	5.986	6.398	.002
Within subjects	380.781	407	.936		
Total	392.754	409			
(b) External Locus of Control					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1* Middle level coded as 2 Senior level coded as 3	35.169	2	17.585	21.932	.000
Within subjects	326.316	407	.802		
Total	361.485	409			

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .001$. (* indicate the significant age group as per Scheffe post hoc analysis, $p < .001$)

4.5.3 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ3

RQ3: Does the employees' personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) vary with respect to demographic profile (age, gender and hierarchical level)?

Hypothesis 3(a): *Age has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.*

Hypothesis 3(b): *Gender has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.*

Hypothesis 3(c): *Hierarchical level has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.*

To test hypothesis 3 (a) which asserts age has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness), MANOVA test had been used. There was a significant difference between age groups when considered jointly on the self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness, Wilk's $\Lambda = .916$, $F_{15, 1110} = 2.387$, $p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Table 4.14 below exhibited the results for analysis of

variance which demonstrated that there was a significant difference between age groups on self-disclosure, $F_{5, 404} = 6.112$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .07$. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the (41-45) age group was significantly different (M = 3.41, SD = .855; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001), and the (above 45) age group was significantly different (M = 3.57, SD = .817; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). There was not a significant difference between age groups on openness to feedback, $F_{5, 404} = .71$, $p = .612$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$ and also on perceptiveness $F_{5, 404} = .34$, $p = .885$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$. Table 4.14 below exhibited the results for the analysis of variance. Thus hypothesis 3 (a) is partially supported.

Table 4.14 Summary of the analysis of variance for the dimensions of personal effectiveness (age basis)

Source of Variance	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Sum of Square (MS)	F	P
(a) Self-disclosure					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1 (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4 (41-45) coded as 5* (Above 45) coded as 6*	17.299	5	3.460	6.112	.000
Within subjects	228.688	404	.566		
Total	245.987	409			
(b) Openness to feedback					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1 (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4 (41-45) coded as 5 (Above 45) coded as 6	2.454	5	.491	.715	.612
Within subjects	277.247	404	.686		
Total	279.702	409			
(c) Perceptivenesss					
Between subjects (21-25) coded as 1 (26-30) coded as 2 (31-35) coded as 3 (36-40) coded as 4 (41-45) coded as 5 (Above 45) coded as 6	1.123	5	.225	.346	.885
Within subjects	262.512	404	.650		
Total	263.636	409			

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .001$. (* indicate the significant age group as per Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001)

To test the hypothesis 3 (b) which asserts that gender has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback), independent sample t- test has been employed. Additionally, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for self-disclosure and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = .07$, $p = .786$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = .87$, $p = .383$, 95% CI (-.106, .275). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females concerning self-disclosure. Similarly, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for openness to feedback and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = 7.59$, $p = .066$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = -.33$, $p = .006$, 95% CI (-.238, .168). Thus, there was a statistically significant difference between males and females concerning openness to feedback. Similarly, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested for perceptiveness and satisfied via Levene's F test, $F_{408} = 1.08$, $p = .299$. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically insignificant effect, $t_{408} = 1.55$, $p = .120$, 95% CI (-.041, .353) Thus, there was no statistically significant differences between males and females concerning perceptiveness. Table 4.15 below exhibited the summary of independent sample t-test for dimensions of locus of control. Thus, hypothesis 3 (b) is partially supported.

Table 4.15 Summary of independent sample T-test for dimensions of personal effectiveness (gender basis)

Dimensions	*Gender*	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t – value*	*Df*	*Sig.*	*Cohen's d*	*CI Lower case*	*CI Upper case*
Self-disclosure (SD)	Males	332	3.7329	.77034	.873	408	.786	0.115	-.106	.275
	Females	78	3.6481	.79821						
Openness to feedback (OF)	Males	332	3.6308	.84603	-.338	408	.006	0.045	-.238	.168
	Females	78	3.6658	.74608						
Perceptiveness (P)	Males	332	3.7637	.79309	1.556	408	.299	0.196	-.041	.353
	Females	78	3.6076	.83601						

Notes: $N = 410$, $p < .001$.

To test hypothesis 3 (c) which asserts that hierarchy level has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) and MANOVA test had been used. There was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees when considered jointly on the self-disclosure, openness to feedback

and perceptiveness, Wilk's Λ = .957, $F_{6, 810}$ = 3.03, p = .006, partial η^2 = .02. Furthermore, an each ANOVA evaluated at an alpha level of .025 demonstrated that there was a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees on self-disclosure, $F_{2, 407}$ = 7.35, p = .001, partial η^2 = .03. Further, multiple comparison analysis revealed that the junior hierarchy level group was significantly different (M = 3.91, SD = .620; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001), and the middle hierarchy level group was significantly different (M = 3.59, SD = .825; Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001). However, there was not a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees on openness to feedback, $F_{2, 407}$ = .72, p = .486, partial η^2 = .04. Similarly, there was not a significant difference between junior, middle and senior level employees on perceptiveness, $F_{2, 407}$ = .64, p = .527, partial η^2 = .03. Thus, hypothesis 3 (c) is partially supported. The summary of analysis of variance has been displayed in table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16 Summary of the analysis of variance for the dimensions of personal effectiveness (hierarchy level)

Source of Variance	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Sum of Square (MS)	F	P
(a) Self-disclosure					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1* Middle level coded as 2* Senior level coded as 3	8.579	2	4.290	7.35	.001
Within subjects	237.408	407	.583		
Total	245.987	409			
(b) Openness to feedback					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1 Middle level coded as 2 Senior level coded as 3	.991	2	.495	.723	.486
Within subjects	278.711	407	.685		
Total	279.702	409			
(c) Perceptivenesss					
Between subjects Junior level coded as 1 Middle level coded as 2 Senior level coded as 3	.828	2	.414	.641	.527
Within subjects	262.808	407	.646		
Total	263.636	409			

Notes: N = 410, p < .001. (* indicate the significant hierarchy level group as per Scheffe post hoc analysis, p < .001)

4.5.4 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ4

RQ4: Does emotional maturity construct predict personal effectiveness?

Hypothesis 4: Emotional maturity is predictor of personal effectiveness.

To test hypothesis 4 which asserts that emotional maturity is the predictor of personal effectiveness, multiple hierarchical regression analysis has been utilised. Table 4.17 exhibited the results of regression analysis. Results revealed that emotional maturity explains 13.9% variance in personal effectiveness. Further emotional maturity was found to be significant predictor of personal effectiveness ($\beta = .394$, $p < .001$). Hence hypothesis 4 was supported in the study.

Table 4.17 Result of regression of emotional maturity on personal effectiveness

Variable	PE	
	Step 1	**Step 2**
Step 1: *CV*	β	β
Constant	3.756	2.554
Age	-.206	-.186
Gender	-.063	-.055
Hierarchical level	.013	-.119
Step 2: *IV*		
Emotional Maturity (EM)		.394***
***F*- Value**	1.282	64.152***
R^2	.019	.154
Adjusted R^2	.004	.139
ΔR^2		.135***

Notes: $N = 410$, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. ***$p <$ .001. PE: personal effectiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable.*

Hypothesis 4(a): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).

Hypothesis 4(b): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).

Hypothesis 4(c): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*

To test hypothesis 4 (a), 4 (b) and 4 (c) which assert that emotional maturity dimension, i.e. emotional stability has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions, i.e. self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback, multiple hierarchical regression analysis have been utilised. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1, and independent dimension of emotional maturity, i.e. emotional stability had been entered in to block 2 against dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness in SPSS. This process had been repeated thrice, i.e. first for self-disclosure, second for openness to feedback and third for perceptiveness. The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the influence of emotional maturity dimension (emotional stability) on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) have been displayed in table 4.18.

Table 4.18 demonstrates that emotional maturity dimension, i.e. emotional stability explains 12.3 % variance in self-disclosure dimension of personal effectiveness. Further emotional stability was found to be significant effect on self-disclosure ($\beta = .262$, $p < .05$). Hence, hypothesis 4 (a) was supported in the study. Further table 4.18 displayed that emotional stability explains 9 % variance in openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. Moreover, emotional stability was found to be the significant effect on openness to feedback ($\beta = .314$, $p < .05$). In the present analysis, the R^2 values are greater than the recommended threshold of 0.10 (Falk & Miller, 1992; Prayag, Hosany, & Odeh, 2013, p. 121). Hence hypothesis 4 (b) was supported in the study. Further, emotional stability ($\beta = .016$, $p > .05$) was insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 4 (c) was not supported in the study. Conclusively, the results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis provide no support for hypothesis 4 (c) and thus could not be supported. Further, hypothesis 4 (a) and 4 (b) were supported in the study.

Table 4.18 Result of regression of emotional stability on dimensions of personal effectiveness i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness

Variable	SD		OF		P	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1: *CV*	β	β	β	β	β	β
Constant	4.084	3.304	3.654	2.658	3.529	3.511
Age	-.298	-.508	.537	.285	-.654	-.659
Gender	-.057	-.045	.008	.022	-.072	-.071
Hierarchical level	.254	.257	-.162	-.157	-.054	-.053
Step 2: *IV*						
ES		.262***		.314***		.006
F- Value	5.514***	28.828***	1.181	39.810***	2.332*	.013
R^2	.076	.138	.017	.106	.034	.034
Adjusted R^2	.062	.123	.003	.090	.019	.017
ΔR^2		.062***		.089***		.000

Notes: $N = 410$, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. *$p < .05$, ***$p < .001$. ES: emotional stability, SD: self-disclosure, OF: openness to feedback, P: perceptiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable*.

Hypothesis 4(d): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*

Hypothesis 4(e): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*

Hypothesis 4(f): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*

To test hypothesis 4 (d), 4 (e) and 4 (f) which assert that emotional maturity dimension, i.e. social adjustment has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions, i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness, multiple hierarchical regression analysis have been utilised. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1 and independent dimension of emotional maturity, i.e. social adjustment had been entered in to block 2 against dimensions of personal effectiveness in SPSS version 21. This process had been repeated thrice, i.e. first for self-disclosure, second

for openness to feedback and third for perceptiveness. The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the influence of emotional maturity dimension (social adjustment) on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) have been displayed in table 4.19.

Table 4.19 demonstrates that emotional maturity dimension i.e. social adjustment (β = -.006, $p > .05$) was insignificant predictor of perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 4 (f) was not supported in the study. Table 4.19 displayed that social adjustment explains 10.4% variance in self-disclosure dimension of personal effectiveness. Further social adjustment was found to be significant effect on self-disclosure (β = .233, $p < .001$). Hence hypothesis 4 (d) was supported in the study. Moreover, social adjustment explains 14.6% variance in openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. The further social adjustment was found to be a significant effect on openness to feedback (β = .422, $p < .05$). Hence hypothesis 4 (e) was supported in the study.

Table 4.19 Result of regression of social adjustment on dimensions of personal effectiveness i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness

Variable	SD		OF		P	
	Step 1	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**
Step 1: *CV*	β	β	β	β	β	β
Constant	4.084	3.616	3.654	2.748	3.529	3.540
Age	-.298	-.276	.537	.576	-.654	-.655
Gender	-.057	-.063	.008	-.003	-.072	-.072
Hierarchical level	.254	.133	-.162	-.380	-.054	-.051
Step 2: *IV*						
SA		.233***		.422***		-.006
***F*- Value**	5.514***	19.855***	1.181	68.509***	2.332*	.011
***R*²**	.076	.119	.017	.160	.034	.034
Adjusted *R*²	.062	.104	.003	.146	.019	.017
Δ *R*²		.043***		.143***		.000

Notes: $N = 410$, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. *$p < .05$, ***$p < .001$. SA: social adjustment, SD: self-disclosure, OF: openness to feedback, P: perceptiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable*.

Hypothesis 4(g): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*

Hypothesis 4(h): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*

Hypothesis 4(i): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness)*

To test hypothesis 4 (g), 4 (h) and 4 (i) which assert that emotional maturity dimension, i.e. personality integration has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions, i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness, multiple hierarchical regression analysis has been utilised. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1, and independent dimension of emotional maturity, i.e. personality integration had been entered in to block 2 against dimensions of personal effectiveness in SPSS version 21. This process had been repeated thrice, i.e. first for self-disclosure, second for openness to feedback and third for perceptiveness. The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the influence of emotional maturity dimension (personality integration) on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) have been displayed in table 4.20. Table 4.20 demonstrates that emotional maturity dimension i.e. personality integration ($\beta = .096$, $p > .05$) was insignificant predictor of perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 4 (i) was not supported in the study. Table 4.20 displayed that personality integration explains 14.5% variance in self-disclosure dimension of personal effectiveness. Further, personality integration was found to be significant effect on self-disclosure ($\beta = .299$, $p < .001$). Hence hypothesis 4 (g) was supported in the study. Moreover, personality integration explains 10.4% variance in openness to feedback. Further, personality integration was found to be a significant effect on openness to feedback ($\beta = .330$, $p < .05$). Hence, hypothesis 4 (h) was supported in the study.

Table 4.20 Result of regression of personality integration on dimensions of personal effectiveness i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness

Variable	SD		OF		P	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1: *CV*	β	β	β	β	β	β
Constant	4.084	3.117	3.654	2.514	3.529	3.207
Age	-.298	-.277	.537	.559	-.654	-.648
Gender	-.057	-.054	.008	.010	-.072	-.071
Hierarchical level	.254	.279	-.162	-.134	-.054	-.045
Step 2: *IV*						
PI		.299***		.330***		.096
F- Value	5.514***	40.079***	1.181	46.737***	2.332	3.626
R^2	.076	.160	.017	.102	.034	.042
Adjusted R^2	.062	.145	.003	.104	.019	.026
ΔR^2		.084***		.102***		.009

Notes: $N = 410$, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. ***$p <$ .001. PI: personality integration, SD: self-disclosure, OF: openness to feedback, P: perceptiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable.*

Hypothesis 4(j): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).

Hypothesis 4(k): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).

Hypothesis 4(l): Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).

To test hypothesis 4 (j), 4 (k) and 4 (l) which assert that emotional maturity dimension, i.e. emotional progression has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions, i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness, multiple hierarchical regression analysis have been utilised. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1 and independent dimension of emotional maturity, i.e. emotional progression had been entered in to block 2 against dimensions of personal effectiveness in SPSS version 21. This process had been repeated thrice, i.e. first for self-

disclosure, second for openness to feedback and third for perceptiveness. The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the influence of emotional maturity dimension (emotional progression) on all dimensions of personal effectiveness have been displayed in table 4.21. Further, emotional progression (β = -.020, p > .05) was insignificant effect on self-disclosure dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 4 (j) was not supported in the study. Further, emotional progression (β = -.037, p > .05) was insignificant effect on openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 4 (k) was not supported in the study. Similarly, emotional progression (β = -.027, p > .05) was insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 4 (l) was not supported in the study. Conclusively, the results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis provide no support for hypothesis 4 (j), 4(k) and 4 (l), thus could not be supported in the study.

Table 4.21 Result of regression of emotional progression on dimensions of personal effectiveness i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness

Variable	SD		OF		P	
	Step 1	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**
Step 1: *CV*	β	β	β	β	β	β
Constant	4.084	4.152	3.654	3.787	3.529	3.623
Age	-.298	-.305	.537	.523	-.654	-.665
Gender	-.057	-.058	.008	.006	-.072	-.073
Hierarchical level	.254	.259	-.162	-.151	-.054	-.046
Step 2: *IV*						
EP		-.020		-.037		-.027
***F*- Value**	5.514***	.154	1.181	.488	2.332*	.267
***R*²**	.076	.076	.017	.018	.034	.034
Adjusted *R*²	.062	.060	.003	.001	.019	.017
Δ *R*²		.000		.001		.001

Notes: N = 410, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. *p < .05, ***p < .001. EP: emotional progression, SD: self-disclosure, OF: openness to feedback, P: perceptiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable*.

Hypothesis 4(m): *Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*

Hypothesis 4(n): *Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*

Hypothesis 4(o): *Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*

To test hypothesis 4 (m), 4 (n) and 4 (o) which assert that emotional maturity dimension, i.e. independence has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions, i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness, multiple hierarchical regression analysis has been utilised. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1, and independent dimension of emotional maturity, i.e. independence had been entered in to block 2 against dimensions of personal effectiveness in SPSS version 21. This process had been repeated thrice, i.e. first for self-disclosure, second for openness to feedback and third for perceptiveness. The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the influence of emotional maturity dimension (independence) on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) have been displayed in table 4.22. Table 4.22 displayed that independence explains 9.9% variance in self-disclosure dimension of personal effectiveness. Further, independence was found to be significant effect on self-disclosure (β = .203, p < .001). Hence hypothesis 4 (m) was supported in the study. In the present analysis, the R^2 values are greater than the recommended threshold of 0.10 (Falk & Miller, 1992). Table 4.22 demonstrates that emotional maturity dimension i.e. independence (β = .064, p > .05) was insignificant predictor of openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 4 (n) was not supported in the study. Moreover, independence (β = .019, p > .05) was insignificant predictor of perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 4 (o) was not supported in the study. Conclusively, the results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis provide support for hypothesis 4 (m), however no support for hypothesis 4 (n) and 4 (o), thus could not be supported.

Table 4.22 Result of regression of independence on dimensions of personal effectiveness i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness

Variable	SD		OF		P	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1: *CV*	β	β	β	β	β	β
Constant	4.084	3.616	3.654	3.498	3.529	3.482
Age	-.298	-.213	.537	.564	-.654	-.646
Gender	-.057	-.058	.008	.007	-.072	-.072
Hierarchical level	.254	.199	-.162	-.179	-.054	-.059
Step 2: *IV*						
I		.203***		.064		.019
***F*- Value**	5.514***	17.316***	1.181	1.536	2.332*	.144
R^2	.076	.114	.017	.021	.034	.034
Adjusted R^2	.062	.099	.003	.004	.019	.017
ΔR^2		.038***		.004		.000

Notes: $N = 410$, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. *$p < .05$, ***$p < .001$. I: independence, SD: self-disclosure, OF: openness to feedback, P: perceptiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable.*

4.5.5 Testing Hypotheses developed to address RQ5

RQ5: Does locus of control construct predict personal effectiveness?

Hypothesis 5(a): Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.

Hypothesis 5(b): Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.

To test hypothesis 5 (a) and 5 (b) which asserts that locus of control is a predictor of personal effectiveness, multiple hierarchical regression analysis has been utilised. Table 4.23 exhibited the results of regression analysis. Results revealed that internal locus of control explain 19.32% variance in personal effectiveness. Further internal locus of control was found to be a

significant effect on personal effectiveness (β = .440, p < .001). Hence hypothesis 5 (a) was supported in the study. Further, external locus of control explains 19.5% variance in personal effectiveness. Further external locus of control was found to be a significant effect on personal effectiveness (β = .475, p < .05). Hence hypothesis 5 (b) was supported in the study. Conclusively, the results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis provide full support for hypothesis 5 (a) and 5 (b). Hence locus of control construct is a predictor of personal effectiveness is fully supported in the study.

Table 4.23 Result of regression of locus of control on personal effectiveness

Variable	PE		Variable	PE	
	Step 1	**Step 2**		**Step 1**	**Step 2**
Step 1: *CV*	β	β	**Step 1: *CV***	β	β
Constant	3.835	3.205	**Constant**	3.835	2.873
Age	-.139	-.085	**Age**	-.139	.134
Gender	-.062	-.073	**Gender**	-.062	-.040
Hierarchical level	.046	-.072	**Hierarchical level**	.046	-.072
Step 2: *IV*			**Step 2: *IV***		
ILoC		.440***	**ELoC**		.475***
***F*- Value**	1.918	94.730***	***F*- Value**	1.918	95.965***
R^2	.014	.201	**R^2**	.014	.203
Adjusted R^2	.007	.193	**Adjusted R^2**	.007	.195
ΔR^2		.187***	**ΔR^2**		.189***

Notes: N = 410, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. *** p < .001. ILoC: internal locus of control, ELoC: external locus of control, PE: personal effectiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable*.

Hypothesis 5(c): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*

Hypothesis 5(d): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*

Hypothesis 5(e): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*

To test hypothesis 5 (c), 5 (d) and 5 (e) which assert that locus of control dimension, i.e. internal locus of control has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions, i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness, multiple hierarchical regression analysis has been utilised. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1 and independent dimension of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control had been entered in to block 2 against dimensions of personal effectiveness in SPSS version 21. This process had been repeated thrice, i.e. first for self-disclosure, second for openness to feedback and third for perceptiveness. The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the influence of locus of control dimension (internal locus of control) on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) have been displayed in table 4.24.

Table 4.24 displayed that internal locus of control explains 29.9% variance in self-disclosure dimension of personal effectiveness. Further internal locus of control was found to be significant effect on self-disclosure (β = .502, $p <$ .01). Hence hypothesis 5 (c) was supported in the study. Moreover, internal locus of control explains 9.1% variance in openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. Further internal locus of control was found to be a significant effect on openness to feedback (β = .319, $p <$ .05). In the present analysis, the R^2 values are greater than the recommended threshold of 0.10 (Falk & Miller, 1992). Hence, hypothesis 5 (d) was supported in the study. Table 4.24 demonstrates that locus of control dimension i.e. internal locus of control (β = .016, $p >$ .05) was insignificant predictor of perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Hence hypothesis 5 (e) was not supported in the study.

Table 4.24 Result of regression of internal locus of control on personal effectiveness dimensions i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness

Variable	SD		OF		P	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1: *CV*	β	β	β	β	β	β
Constant	3.969	2.864	3.683	2.935	3.853	3.818
Age	-.348	-.287	.032	.071	.042	.044
Gender	-.064	-.076	.017	.010	-.074	-.074
Hierarchical level	.147	.012	-.055	-.141	.002	-.002
Step 2: *IV*						
ILoC		.502***		.319***		.016
F- Value	9.091***	141.990***	.206	44.190***	1.068	.095
R^2	.063	.306	.002	.100	.008	.008
Adjusted R^2	.056	.299	-.006	.091	.000	.002
ΔR^2		.243***		.098***		.000

Notes: N = 410, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. ***$p <$ .001. ILoC: internal locus of control, PE: personal effectiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable.*

Hypothesis 5(f): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*

Hypothesis 5(g): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*

Hypothesis 5(h): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*

To test hypothesis 5 (f), 5 (g) and 5 (h) which assert that locus of control dimension, i.e. external locus of control has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions, i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness, multiple hierarchical regression analysis have been utilised. In multiple hierarchical regression technique, in step 1, the control variables had been entered in block 1 and independent dimension of locus of control, i.e. external locus of control had been entered in to block 2 against dimensions of personal

effectiveness in SPSS version 21. This process had been repeated thrice, i.e. first for self-disclosure, second for openness to feedback and third for perceptiveness.

The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test the influence of locus of control dimension (external locus of control) on personal effectiveness dimensions (self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) have been displayed in table 4.25. Table 4.25 displayed that external locus of control explains 16.5% variance in self-disclosure dimension of personal effectiveness. Further, external locus of control was found to be significant effect on self-disclosure (β = .363, p < .01). Hence hypothesis 5 (f) was supported in the study. Table 4.25 displayed that external locus of control also explains 14.5% variance in perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Importantly, external locus of control (β = .123, p < .05) was found to be a significant effect on openness to feedback. Thus, hypothesis 5 (g) was supported in the study. Further, external locus of control was found to be a significant effect on perceptiveness (β = .417, p < .01). Hence hypothesis 5 (h) was supported in the study.

Table 4.25 Result of regression of external locus of control on personal effectiveness dimensions i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness

Variable	SD		OF		P	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1: *CV*	β	β	β	β	β	β
Constant	3.969	2.836	3.683	3.276	3.853	2.507
Age	-.348	-.140	.032	.102	.042	.282
Gender	-.064	-.047	.017	.023	-.074	-.054
Hierarchical level	.147	.056	-.055	-.085	.002	-.102
Step 2: *IV*						
ELoC		.363***		.123*		.417***
***F*- Value**	9.091***	54.219***	.206	5.165*	1.068	69.834***
R^2	.063	.174	.002	.014	.008	.154
Adjusted R^2	.056	.165	-.006	.004	.000	.145
ΔR^2		.111***		.013*		.146***

Notes: N = 410, standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table. ***p < .001. ELoC: external locus of control, PE: personal effectiveness, *CV = control variables*, *IV = independent variable*.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The fourth chapter provides the detailed analysis and results of the study. Further, the details of statistical analyses such as t-test, MANOVA, and multiple hierarchical regression have been provided to achieve the objectives of the study. Also, the details of the data screening, data preparation, scale validation and assessment of common method bias have been provided. The results obtained in this study are summarised in table 4.26 below.

Table 4.26: Summary of results obtained in the study

Hypotheses	Results
Hypothesis 1(a): *Age has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.*	Partially Supported
Hypothesis 1(b): *Gender has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.*	Not supported
Hypothesis 1(c): *Hierarchical level has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration, emotional progression and independence.*	Partially Supported
Hypothesis 2(a): *Age has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.*	Supported
Hypothesis 2(b): *Gender has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.*	Not supported
Hypothesis 2(c): *Hierarchy level has a significant effect on internal locus of control and external locus of control.*	Supported
Hypothesis 3(a): *Age has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.*	Partially supported
Hypothesis 3(b): *Gender has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.*	Partially supported
Hypothesis 3(c): *Hierarchical level has a significant effect on self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback.*	Partially supported
Hypothesis 4: *Emotional maturity is the predictor of personal effectiveness.*	Supported
Hypothesis 4(a): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	Supported

Hypothesis 4(b): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	Supported
Hypothesis 4(c): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(d): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	Supported
Hypothesis 4(e): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	Supported
Hypothesis 4(f): *Emotional maturity dimension (Social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(g): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	Supported
Hypothesis 4(h): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	Supported
Hypothesis 4(i): *Emotional maturity dimension (Personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness)*	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(j): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(k): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(l): *Emotional maturity dimension (Emotional progression) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(m): *Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	Supported

Hypothesis 4(n): *Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	Not supported
Hypothesis 4(o): *Emotional maturity dimension (Independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	Not supported
Hypothesis 5(a): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.*	Supported
Hypothesis 5(b): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness.*	Supported
Hypothesis 5(c): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	Supported
Hypothesis 5(d): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	Supported
Hypothesis 5(e): *Locus of control dimension (Internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	Not supported
Hypothesis 5(f): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Self-disclosure).*	Supported
Hypothesis 5(g): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Openness to feedback).*	Supported
Hypothesis 5(h): *Locus of control dimension (External locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (Perceptiveness).*	Supported

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is acquaintance with the detailed discussion of the findings obtained in the study. (Please see Figure 5.1)

- The first section is acquaintance with the discussion on the accomplishment of objective 1 of the study. **First Section**

- The second section highlights the discussion on the accomplishment of objective 2 of the study. **Second Section**

- The third section entails the discussion on the accomplishment of objective 3 of the study. **Third Section**

- The fourth section detailed the discussion on the accomplishment of objective 4 of the study. **Fourth Section**

- The fifth section detailed the discussion on the accomplishment of objective 5 of the study. **Fifth Section**

Figure 5.1:Organization of the chapter 5

The primary aim of this study was to examine the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control on employees' personal effectiveness. As discussed in Chapter 1 (rationale of the study section), the reason for selecting specifically, these three variables are noted as follows. First, evolving fast-growing competition in the global market strongly emphasised on the

development of human capital in the form of personal effectiveness to overcome the continuous pressure from global competition in the Indian market (Siengthai, Tanlamai, & Rowley, 2008). Second, many empirical studies on personal effectiveness have been conducted in the United Kingdom and Canada that too in a university setting among the undergraduate students. However, there are few studies that investigate the personal effectiveness in the context of emerging economies like India, especially in an organisational setting (Sharma, 2015). Third, the socio-cultural characteristic of any nation is likely to influence the socio-psychological perspective of people (Ko & Moon, 2014). Further, the situational element of one state of mind that is directly associated with individual behaviour, thoughts and values will eventually influence the personal effectiveness (Budhwar & Singh, 2008; Chen, 1995; Verghese, 2008). It is noteworthy that any nation culture involves of norms, social values, and customs are likely to influence the personal effectiveness of employees (Budhwar, 2008; Ko, 2015; Kurbalija, Ivanović, Radovanović, Geler, Mitrović, Dai, & Zhao, 2015; Kurbalija, Ivanović, Radovanović, Geler, Dai, & Zhao, 2018; Sharma, 2007; Sharma, 2015). Personal effectiveness encompasses self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness, which are social phenomena and are primarily influenced by culture (Pasupathi et al., 2009). In fact, based on calls from Croucher et al. (2010) which states that culture, colonial heritage, religious diversity, historical, political and linguistic differences and complexity of India, sheds light on the necessity to explore the varied dimensions that possibly affect the personal effectiveness. Hence, it is crucial to examine less-explored strategically essential personal effectiveness construct in the Indian scenario.

Specifically, it is crucial to investigate the possible factors that are likely to predict personal effectiveness among employees in Indian organisations. In fact, the emotional maturity and locus of control are considered as one of the possible predictors of personal effectiveness (Please see Chapter 2- Literature review for details). Emotional maturity encompasses interpersonal – intrapersonal elements. Interpersonal elements involve social skills, social resources and social sharing. Intrapersonal elements comprises of high self-esteem, positive emotions, positive self-concept, personal strength and calm behaviour (Avkiran, 2000; Carmichael, 1968; Chamberlain, 1960; Chaube, 2002; Coleman, 1948; Devda & Makvana, 2014; Dogan & Vecchio, 2001; Eddington, 2003; Fox & Zauderer, 1987; Hurlock, 1981; Waller, 1974; Yusoff et al., 2011). These interpersonal-intrapersonal elements support employees' personal effectiveness. Therefore, personal effectiveness is likely to be considered as the combined process of intrapersonal-interpersonal elements that is guided in part and expedited via emotional maturity. Similarly, another important construct that is

likely to support the personal effectiveness is the locus of control. Research suggests that personality characteristics such as self-management, self-esteem, self-efficacy, positive self-image, self-confidence and activeness which possibly leads to personal effectiveness is guided in part by locus of control (Anderson et al., 2005; Ashby et al., 2002; Baumeister et al., 2003; Cauce, 1986; Korman, 1970; Loosemore & Lam, 2004; Shapiro & Swensen, 1977; Vernberg, 1990). Therefore, the locus of control may lead to employees' personal effectiveness. Despite these facts, a very few studies independently explore the relationship between emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness in an Indian context. Given the above background, emotional maturity and locus of control are identified as the potential predictors of employees' personal effectiveness to be studied in the Indian context.

The basic rationale behind conducting the research study was to provide insight and advance understanding of emotional maturity and locus of control that demonstrate its effect on employees' personal effectiveness, which ultimately enhances the organisational performance. Additionally, this study aims to explore the influences of all dimensions of emotional maturity and locus of control on all dimensions of personal effectiveness in the Indian context. Further, the present study aims to continue research in the field of emotional maturity and locus of control and its influence on personal effectiveness specifically in the organisational setting that will generate awareness about its significance among academics for future research. Conclusively, the following five sections include the discussion on each of the hypothesis testing results. The chapter is concluding with the chapter summary.

5.2 Accomplishment of objectives of the study

5.2.1 Accomplishment of objectives 1of the study

5.2.1.1 Perceived emotional maturity and employee's age

The first section highlights objective 1, whether demographics (i.e. age, gender and hierarchical level) has a significant effect on emotional maturity dimensions. The results demonstrated that age has a significant effect on emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration and emotional progression dimensions of emotional maturity. Independence is the only dimension which does not vary with employees' age.

The differences in the perception of emotional stability as perceived by the employees in different age groups may be due to the fact that employees in younger age group, i.e. 21-25 are more inclined to the high self-esteem and high level of psychological well-being, that uplift the job performance and always look forward for advancement in their career adopting new job skills and challenges. With increasing age groups, i.e. 26-30 and 31-35 employees

are in the position in the organisation to bring a change in the existing system of work and are able to allocate resources in a better way on task-relevant activities rather than what traditional system of work was. The employees' in the age groups of 21-25 (M = 3.29), 26-30 (M = 3.53) and 31-35 (M = 3.41) almost have similar kind of perception concerning emotional stability, as these employees are in between the starting and middle stage of their career. Importantly, personality trait like emotional stability is likely to change throughout the lifespan, but interestingly more pronounced change could be observed in younger and older age groups (Specht, Egloff, & Schmukle, 2011). However, increasing age groups, i.e. 36-40 (M = 2.39) and 41-45 (M = 2.74) are more commonly inclined to the less physical well-being, report discomfort, distress and dissatisfaction over the time regardless of the situation that results in negative experiences. Further, under these circumstances, individuals commonly need emotional support from others and give importance to job stability and job security in their career rather than showing interest in new systems and challenges of work, which ultimately exhibits the reflection of emotional instability. The previous research studies by Soto, John, Gosling, and Potter (2011) and Terracciano, McCrae, Brant, and Costa (2005) support the above findings which revealed that emotional stability would vary depending upon age groups.

The differences in the perception of social adjustment as perceived by the employees in different age groups may be because of the fact that employees in younger age groups, i.e. 21-25 (M = 3.13) and 26-30 (M = 3.80) in comparison to employee in older age groups i.e. 41-45 (M = 2.04) and above 45 (M = 2.01) are inclined to high self-esteem, self-monitoring ability, positive interpersonal relationship, social networking and social sharing at different places of interaction like in society and at the workplace which eventually supports social adjustment. In addition to this, the justification of such observation lies in the dynamic work culture and mentoring concept in the organisation. Now a day organisations are taking the mentoring idea, where junior employees' feel happy to learn new knowledge and advance in career under the mentorship of senior level employees who eventually support, understand, adjust and adapt with new employees. Furthermore, gone are the days when power distance between the superior and subordinates existed. These days' organisations continuously stress on developing positive work culture that leads to enhance the interpersonal interaction, social sharing and social networking; which in turn reduce the power distance as adopted from the Western ways of doing work. For instances, Marriott Hotel in India was set up by following the Western culture developing mentoring programs that reduced the power distance within the organisation (Chaturvedi, Sengupta, Bhattacharyya, Roy, Mitra, Ganguly, Sangani, &

Mahanta, 2014), additionally, developing an interpersonal relationship, social sharing and friendly social culture enhanced the organisational learning, reduces miscommunication and the cost related to training and development (Broughan, 2013). Consequently, it also develops the organisational human capital through supportive work environment and collective work culture.

The differences in the perception of personality integration as perceived by the employees in different age groups may be due to the fact that employees in age groups, i.e. 21-25, 26-30 and 31-35 are more inclined to the positive self-concept, subjective well-being, self-esteem, self-control, better adjustment and optimal psychological functioning that possibly supports personality integration which helps to adapt the changing expectations of the 21st century organizations which demand employees to be pro-active in bringing organizational changes. Also, the literature supports the similar notion (Seeman, 1983). This maybe because younger employees were convinced by the challenging work culture that provides an opportunity to prove themselves and get career advancement. Whereas, on the other hand, employees in the age group of above 45 have slightly lower mean scores (M = 2.79) in comparison to employees in the age groups of 21-25 (M = 3.55), 26-30 (M = 3.53) and 31-35 (M = 3.58). The reason behind this could be because the employees in the age group of above 45 have crossed their mid-career stages, and they are not keen to shift jobs; do not accept challenges and changes in work culture. Because they commonly possess low self-esteem and low well-being repertoire that ultimately reveals the impression of individual having lack of personality integration. Furthermore, generally employees in the age group of above 45 do not emphasis much on career-enhancing experience and they are not struggling for changing job, although a reverse pattern is observed in those employees who are in their early career stages and are always looking for career development opportunities.

Regarding emotional progression, a significant differences have been observed between the employees in the age groups of 36-40 (M = 2.15) and 41-45 (M = 2.38). It was found that employees who are in age group 41-45 have shown more significance to emotional progression. The justification of such observation may lie in the fact that the older age groups are more associated with psychological-maturity, mental well-being and emotional expression. Older age group employees are active not only on emotional expression, social behaviour and life satisfaction, but they demonstrate positive feeling and values with others. Also, the literature supports the fact that older individuals are high on psychological maturity and emotional expression; further emotional expression and psychological maturity is guided in part by emotional progression (Luong, Charles, & Fingerman, 2011; Sadeghi & Niknam,

2015). Interestingly, the employees in the age groups of 21-25 (M = 3.24, SD = .709) possess slight higher perception for emotional progression. The reason could be because commonly younger employees' in the age groups of 21-25 have higher level of physical well-being, self-esteem, self-confidence and interaction ability. Furthermore, these traits commonly support the individual to arise the emotional advancement with respect to the surrounding environments. This is possibly how employees in the age group of 21-25 display higher level of emotional progression.

Now the research diverts the attention to non-significant results which assert that independence did not vary with employees' age. It has been found that employees in various age groups have the same perception regarding independence. Interestingly, now a days organisations are slowly but continuously adopting Western culture, where organisations provide an environment that involves freedom, autonomy, open door policy, own personal likes and dislikes and are more careful while examining their losses and gains before acting. Furthermore, the concept of joint family in Indian culture is rapidly decreasing, whereas the trend of the nuclear family is gradually gaining in Indian culture. In current scenario both husband and wife are working and children are left behind in crèche. Such instances and situations may bring the change from collectivistic to individualistic approach that possibly enhances the individual independence. Collectivistic approach talks about individuals trusting, relying and helping friends and family members, depending on a superior and supporting a subordinate that eventually supports co-operation, obligations and interpersonal sharing, whereas individualism is reverse of that. Also, it is supported by the findings of previous studies which reported that Indian culture is commonly the fusion of both collectivist and individualist approach depending upon the situation (Sinha & Tripathi, 1994; Tripathi, 1988). This is possibly one of the reasons that employees in different age groups might have same preferences for independence.

5.2.1.2 Perceived emotional maturity and employee's gender

Further, while examining the influence of employees' gender on the dimensions of emotional maturity, it was found that no differences between the perception of males and females could be identified related to the any dimensions of emotional maturity. The possible justification of this findings may lie in the fact that, nowadays' organisations are coming up with the practices of advance and develop leadership programmes particularly for women to offer them better psychological and career growth that helps them to attain top leadership position in the organisations. Besides this, the study on the great place to work revealed that males to females ratio is proportionally less in Indian organisations, however, the female employees

are getting similar kind of training opportunities and mentoring programmes that ultimately help to achieve a higher position in the organisations. For instances, the Indian organisations like American Express have the abovesaid concept and are also providing an environment, where employees' did not feel discriminated by their gender (Chaturvedi et al., 2014). In addition to this, literature also supports that female employees are not different in their perception with male employees' concerning to emotional maturity; further, the study revealed that gender barriers are getting declined over the period (Singh et al., 2014; Wani & Masih, 2015). Literature also provides support for this finding where no differences have been reported among genders for emotional maturity, more specifically in the Indian context (Panth, Chaurasia, & Gupta, 2015).

5.2.1.3 Perceived emotional maturity and employee's hierarchical level

The results demonstrated that there is a significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception with dimensions of emotional maturity, i.e. emotional stability, personality integration, emotional progression and independence, however, there are no significant differences among employees' hierarchical levels concerning social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity. The differences in the perception of emotional stability as perceived by the employees in different hierarchical levels may be due to the fact that employees' in senior (M = 2.79) level are experienced and their daily routine are tentative to be more fragile, are assigned more duities, have time constraints, and are surrounded by highly pressurized work environment and work events which are heterogeneous in nature and make their routines more disrupted by stressors which eventually influence the circadian rhythm (means the nature cycle that tells our bodies when to rise, sleep, eat and process other psychological mechanisms), physical activity, and affect variability, this ultimately may reduce the level of emotional stability. Literature also provides supports on this finding where senior level employees experience higher affective variability which likely influence the emotional stability (Almeida, Wethington, & Kessler, 2002; Eid & Diener, 1999). Interestingly, there is no significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels for social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity. The possible justification of such observation may lie in the fact that social relationship plays a crucial role in managing the human resources in Indian organisations (Budhwar & Singh, 2008). Therefore, employees at varying hierarchical levels exhibit a good interpersonal relationship with their subordinates and colleagues; this is further strengthened by the fact that India ranks high on human orientation, where individuals care for each other and are more inclined towards having helping nature and relationship orientation towards others (Chhokar, 2007). This will

possibly diminish the power distance between the junior-middle-senior level employees'. In addition to this, the sample statistics report that a majority of employees were at junior and middle levels. Generally, it was observed that employees at these levels are in continuous interaction with each other and eventually supports the better flow of information, understanding, and good interpersonal relationship, this will ultimately enhance the cooperative and supportive work environment and culture which was possibly leads to social adjustment.

Regarding personality integration, the significant differences have been observed between the employees working in the different hierarchical levels. It was found that employees, who are in junior levels (M = 3.60), have given significance to personality integration. The differences in the perception of personality integration as perceived by the employees in different hierarchical levels may be due to the fact that employees' in junior level are more inclined towards better physical health, high self-esteem, optimal psychological functioning and happiness. It is noteworthy that self-esteem is an integral part of personality integration. Thus employees in junior level of hierarchy potentially exhibit personality integration. This is how employees at the junior level have self-esteem and display personality integration. Importantly, self-esteem is positively associated with personality integration (Cooley & Seeman, 1979; Erol & Orth, 2011; Robins et al., 2001). The literature also supports the fact that employees in junior level (generally employees' in the age of groups of 21-25 and 26-30) were found high on self-esteem (Orth & Robins, 2014). Further, it has been found that employees at the senior level (M = 2.76) have varied perception concerning personality integration. The possible explanation of such observation may lie in the fact that employees' in senior level are likely to experience obsolete work skills, low physical functioning, reduced mobility and declining health that eventually contribute to a normative decline in self-esteem (McMullin & Cairney, 2004), and this in turn reduces the level of personality integration. Further, the literature also supports similar notion that employees in different level of hierarchy (in younger and older age) share different perception concerning personality integration (Mehta, 2016).

In terms of emotional progression, the significant differences have been observed between the employees working in different hierarchical levels. The differences in the perception of emotional progression as perceived by the employees in different hierarchical levels may be due to the fact that employees' in middle level (generally adulthood age) are more inclined towards higher level of adjustment, maturity, emotional expressivity, emotional well-being, and positive emotional experiences that eventually lead to enhance the

emotional progression. Furthermore, many previous studies support the same notion (Carstensen et al., 2000; Sadeghi & Niknam, 2015; Terraccianoet al., 2005). However, on the other hand, employees in middle level (generally young adult) have lower mean scores (M = 2.81) in comparison to employees in the senior level (M = 3.59). Employees working in middle level act as a crucial bridge between the junior level and senior level. However, employees in middle level continuously face the challenges to balance sides (junior level and senior level), effective team management, the flow of correct and appropriate information that ultimately leads to heterogeneous work stressors which is likely to influence the level of emotional progression among employees working in the middle level.

Conclusively, concerning independence, the significant differences have been observed between the employees working in different hierarchical levels. The justification of such observation may lie in the fact that employees' in the senior level commonly experience high stability in work, better family relationship, high on mastery and achievement, which results in control over the self and environment, this ultimately leads to independence. The literature supports the fact that employees in senior-level (generally adulthood) are found high on independence (Erikson, 1968; Levinson, 1978). Employees at the junior level have lower mean scores (M= 3.17) for independence in comparison to employees in senior-level (M = 3.48). This means that junior level employees have unrealistic positive views about self for the work environment which is far away from realistic happening. Furthermore, employees in junior level hierarchy begin to compare their abilities and skills to their fellow colleagues and consider feedback from others, which eventually reflects the impression of less positive self-view, which ultimately indicates the impression of low in independence ability. Also, the literature supports the similar notion (Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005).

5.2.2 Accomplishment of objectives 2 of the study

5.2.2.1 Perceived locus of control and employee's age

The second section in the accomplishment of objective 2 is the discussion on the relationship between locus of control and demographics (i.e. employees' age, gender and hierarchical level). While investigating the influence of employees' age on the dimensions of locus of control, it was found that internal locus of control and external locus of control differ significantly depending upon employees' age. Differences could be observed in the internal locus of control between the employees in the age groups of 21-25 (M = 3.10), and above 45 (M = 3.67). It is evident from the results that younger employees (21-25) generally feel that they can largely determine the nature and amount of rewards they receive. Furthermore, an

employee in the age group of 21-25 high on self-esteem and they feel that greater range of experience supports in the development of effective coping resources, they are able to resolve problems easily and make it less stressful. Consequently, it reduces the chance of hassles; this eventually enhances internal locus of control. The finding is in alignment with the previous research studies by Lao (1970) and Aldwin, Sutton, Chiara, and Spiro (1996). According to these studies, the internal locus of control increase with respect to age from youth to adulthood (i.e. 15 years to 25 years) and increasing age will bring better work adjustment, optimal well-being and perceive fewer sources of stress which support employees at the current job longer. Furthermore, employees' in the age groups above 45 shows that their mean scores increase with their age. This finding is further supported by the research study by White and Spector (1987). Another justification for this finding is that employees' in the age groups of above 45 feel that they have accompanied with the ageing process, where individuals generally experience loss of physical work productivity, financial strain and relationship that may lead to the lower sense of control.

The results also demonstrated that there exists significant difference among employees' of different age groups with respect to dimensions of locus of control, i.e. external locus of control. The differences in the perception of external locus of control as perceived by the employees in different levels may be because employees' in the age groups of 41-45 (M = 2.11) and above 45 (M = 3.26) are more inclined towards an external locus of control. The justification of such observation may lie in the fact that religiosity and spirituality plays a crucial role in Indian culture and social system. Generally, older individual strongly believes in religiosity and their different ways of religious coping approaches such as deferring approach where the individual relinquishes personal responsibility to God. Furthermore, employees in the age group of 41-45 and above 45 commonly feel that they have little or no control over the events happening in their lives and their stronger belief in religiosity may lead to enhance the external locus of control (Smith & Denton, 2005). This finding is further supported by the research study by Kumar (2016) which revealed that people in the age groups of 41-45 and above 45 in India are from different socio-economic backgrounds and they are continuously struggling for unemployment and financial constraints, which results in religiosity, this in turn to enhance external locus of control. Another justification for this finding is that religiosity may associate with how individuals view their relationship with God, such as reframing a religious happening regarding punishment from God or to relinquish personal responsibility to God. However, religiosity has also positive psychological outcome, but the idea of "collaborative

control" means at the same time reliance on God may have slight chances to equally enhance both the external locus of control and internal locus of control. Furthermore, employees' in the age groups of 41-45 and above 45 shows that their mean scores (M = 2.11) to (M = 3.26) increase with their age. The possible explanation of such observation may lie in the fact that employees in the age groups of 41-45 and above 45 feel that they have accompanied with the ageing process, where individuals generally experience the declining health, reduced mobility, low physical functioning, and normative decline in self-esteem, and relationship that may lead to the lower sense of control. Literature also supports the similar finding (Mirowsky & Ross, 2000).

5.2.2.2 Perceived locus of control and employee's gender

While examining the influence of employees' gender on the dimensions of locus of control, it was found that there exist no significant differences among employees' gender concerning both dimensions of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control. However, the literature supports our findings that there is no clear state about the gender differences for dimensions of locus of control (Sherman, Higgs, & Williams, 1997). The findings of this study are justified in the sense that perception differences could not be found as the sample of the study is male-dominated, where the number of females respondents (78) participating in the survey is less than the number of male respondents (332). Furthermore, literature provides support on this finding, where minimal differences or no differences have been reported between females and males about their perception concerning dimensions of locus of control (Cellini & Kantorowski, 1982; Chandler & Dugovics, 1977; Strickland & Haley, 1980). On similar lines, literature also suggests that male and females are quite similar and were not different in their perception for the locus of control dimensions, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control (Doherty & Baldwin, 1985). Another possible explanation of such observation may lie in the fact that the gender is indicated by the age of the respondents, where the majority of respondents came in between the age groups of 21-25 and 26-30. The employees in these age groups are generally young and likely to share the common thought process that eventually shapes their preferences about a locus of control in identical fashion irrespective of their gender (Kashyap & Rangnekar, 2016).

5.2.2.3 Perceived locus of control and employee's hierarchical level

The results demonstrated that there exist significant differences among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception about dimensions of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control. The differences in the perception of internal locus of control as perceived by the employees in different hierarchical levels may be due to the fact that employees' in junior level (M = 3.18) feel that they have accompanied with the high self-esteem, physical mobility, and higher level of physical work productivity that may lead to the higher sense of control. Furthermore, there is a very slight difference between the mean scores of employees' at the middle level (M = 3.51) and senior level (M = 3.67). Whereas, on the other hand, employees at the middle level and senior level have slightly higher mean scores in comparison to employees at junior level. This may be due to the fact that these employees in this age group commonly feel that they are in mid career stages, and having reduced physical mobility, and lower level of physical work productivity that may lead to the lower sense of control. Furthermore, employees' in the age groups above 45 shows that their mean scores increase with their age. This finding is further supported by the research study by White and Spector (1987).

The results demonstrated that there exist significant differences among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception about dimensions of locus of control, i.e. external locus of control. The differences in the perception of external locus of control as perceived by the employees in different hierarchical levels may be due to the fact that in developing countries like India the youth (employee in junior level) are familiar with various challenges like job uncertainties, economic exploitation, unemployment threat and financial crunch. Furthermore, in such environmental circumstances and situations, a younger person (employees' in the age groups of 21-25 and 26-30) are likely to be associated with a religiosity that ultimately tends their perception towards strong belief in God, which in turn enhances the external locus of control. This is also supported by the findings of various studies which indicated that people tend to increase the religiosity during the economic hardship, and the findings are further strengthening by the fact that, India is one of the countries, where religiosity is considered as a crucial part of their lives (Harris & Medcalfe, 2015; World Values Survey, 2014). Whereas, on the other hand, employees in the middle level and senior level reported increases in their mean scores (M = 3.34) to (M = 3.40). This may be due to the fact, that these employees at the senior level have crossed their mid-career stages, and they commonly experiences the health declines, sometimes loneliness and loss of relationship, such instances eventually change their perception of life and tends towards

strong association with the religiosity that leads to enhances the external locus of control. Also, the existing literature supports the fact that religiosity increases the external locus of control (Pargament & Hahn, 1986). This is also supported by the findings of another study, which indicates that lifespan development within the individuals changes their perception towards religiosity that enhances the external locus of control (Wuthnow, 1976).

5.2.3 Accomplishment of objectives 3 of the study

5.2.3.1 Perceived personal effectiveness and employee's age

The third section in the accomplishment of objective 3 is the discussion on the relationship between personal effectiveness and demographics (i.e. employees' age, gender and hierarchical level). The results demonstrated that there exist significant differences among employees' age for the dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure; however, there are no significant differences among employees' age concerning others dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. perceptiveness and openness to feedback. Regarding self-disclosure, the significant differences have been observed between the employees in the age groups of 21-25, 26-30, 31-35, 41-45 and above 45. It was found that employees who are in age groups of 41-45 (M = 3.41) and above 45 (M = 3.57) have given less significance to self-disclosure. The justification of such observation may lie in the fact that employees' in the age groups of 41-45 and above 45 commonly experience physical decline and low self-monitoring ability. Importantly, high self-monitoring ability shows the degree to which individual control or monitors their behaviour that supports in developing desired appearances and positive responses to social cues of behavioural appropriateness. Whereas low self-monitoring ability represents the vice-verse behaviour and where the individual commonly opposed the degree to which individually control their inner states like feelings and attitude. Moreover, high self-monitoring is positively linked with self-disclosure. The literature supports the fact that older people (employees' in the age group of 41-45 and above 45) are low in self-monitoring tendency of behaving and do not follow their own feelings and attitude (Reifman, Klein, & Murphy, 1989). Interestingly, the employees in the age groups of 21-25 (M = 3.92) and 26-30 (M = 3.87) have given more significance to self-disclosure. This possibly is because of the reason that employees' in the age groups of 21-25 and 26-30 have more physical strength, self-esteem, and have high on self-monitoring ability that eventually supports the self-disclosure. Furthermore, this is also supported by the findings of another study which indicated that individual in the age groups of 41-45 and above 45 have low self-monitoring ability in comparison to individuals in the age group of 21-25 (Li, 1997).

Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which assert that openness to feedback and perceptiveness did not vary with employees' age. It has been found that employees' in different age groups have the same perception regarding openness to feedback and perceptiveness. This meant that employees in the different age groups in Indian organisations feel that they are in an environment that posses' good social relationships, mutual understanding, better interpersonal relationship, caring with their colleagues and superiors, having encouraging and supporting colleagues that ultimately supports the confronting behaviour. Confronting behaviour encompasses empathy, self-analysis, positive critical attitude, and listening, this, in turn, supports the openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Furthermore, this is also supported by the findings of another study which indicates that confronting and pro-social behaviour was expected to have a stronger influence on employee behaviour ability (like openness to feedback and perceptiveness) that eventually enhances the employees' outcomes (Frenkel, Sanders, & Bednall, 2013).

5.2.3.2 Perceived personal effectiveness and employee's gender

While examining the influence of employees' gender on the dimensions of personal effectiveness, it was found that there exist no significant differences among employees' gender with respect to both dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure and perceptiveness, but there exists significant differences of employees' gender on the dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. openness to feedback. The findings of this study are justified in the sense that perception differences for openness to feedback could be found as females employees' are more relationally-oriented, expressive, sentimental, soft-hearted and more engaged in emotional expression that ultimately supports the openness to feedback. Whereas, on the other hand, male employees' are more striving, achieving, tough, objective, emotionally inexpressive and unsentimental that possibly leads to defensive behaviour which will probably not supports openness to feedback. Furthermore, literature also provides support on this similar finding (Ferree, 2010). Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which assert that self-disclosure and perceptiveness did not vary with employees' gender. It has been found that both males and females employees' have an identical perception regarding self-disclosure and perceptiveness. The possible justification of this finding may lie in the fact that, the representation of women in Indian organisations has increased over the past few years, despite the fact, the women representation will remain below the global average of 14.7% (Andrade, 2016). Therefore, organizations continuously stress on building the positive work environment, where males'

supervisors encourage them (females' employees) to use their talents, provide them opportunities to learn new skills, builds a better interpersonal relationship and offers the opportunity to come up with new ideas. This consequently supports the Indian organizations to start focusing more on women empowerment and equal opportunity (Pareek, 1997; Ramaswamy & Schiphorst, 2000) as it results in positive work attitude, effective learning experiences, better understanding and interpersonal relationship among the employees' (between males and females) that may possibly the reason why there exist no significant differences among employees' gender with respect to both dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure, and perceptiveness. The literature provides the mix findings; some studies reported that females disclose more than males (Dindia & Allen, 1992), some studies suggested that males disclose more than females and some studies reported no differences (Yu, 2014). The findings of this study are also justified in the sense that perception differences could not be found as the set of studies represents more than one population (e.g. higher the magnitude of sex differences for self-reports) this will cause the variability in effect size (Dindia & Allen, 1992).

5.2.3.3 Perceived personal effectiveness and employee's hierarchical level

The results demonstrated that there exist significant differences among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception of the dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure. However, there are no significant differences among hierarchical levels concerning dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. perceptiveness and openness to feedback. Regarding self-disclosure, the significant differences have been observed between the employees in the junior level, middle level and senior level. The differences in the perception of self-disclosure as perceived by the employees in different hierarchical levels may be due to the fact that employees' at junior level (M = 3.91) (generally younger age) are more inclined towards higher level of self-regulation, self-esteem, positive self-concept, subjective well-being and physical strength, that eventually leads to enhance the self-disclosure. Furthermore, Indian organisations having collectivism culture that includes caring, supporting, encouraging, nurturing each other and exhibits paternalism approach, where supervisor's are expected to behave like a father in the family and inspire the other family members (i.e. employees') that ultimately supports the self-disclosure (Rangnekar, 2004). Moreover, employees in the senior level have high mean scores (M = 3.74) in comparison to employees at the middle level (M = 3.59). The possible explanation of such observation may lie in the fact that employees' in senior level are more experienced, lives in highly pressurised work environment, time-bound tasks activities and are strategy planners

that leads to enhance the level of stress and anxiety (Sushil, 2015). It is a fact that individuals tend to self-disclose more in the situation of stress and anxiety, however, the outcome of such disclosure will not give a positive outcome. Literature also provides support on this finding, where individuals are likely to disclose more in the situation of anxiety and depression, but it may result in the poor interpersonal relationship (Stiles et al., 1992). The non-significant results of the research which asserts that openness to feedback and perceptiveness did not vary with employees' hierarchical levels. It has been found that employees' in different levels of the hierarchy have an identical perception regarding openness to feedback and perceptiveness. The possible explanation of such observation may lie in the fact that Indian organizations consistently stress on developing a flexible work environment and give freedom to employee to owns his area of function and offers employees' participative approach in strategic decisions, that ultimately supports the awareness among the employee regarding the management style of the organization at different level of hierarchy which enhances confidence across different levels of employees with respect to their its abilities, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Literature also supports the fact that, greater awareness about the management style of the organization is associated with openness to feedback and perceptiveness (Swailes, 1997).

5.2.4 Accomplishment of objectives 4 of the study

To study the impact of emotional maturity on employees' personal effectiveness.

5.2.4.1 Emotional maturity and personal effectiveness

The objective 4 of the study examined the influence of emotional maturity on employees' personal effectiveness. The fourth section in the accomplishment of objective 4 is the discussion on the relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. Further, this section also discusses the relationship between underlying dimensions of emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that overall emotional maturity is significantly associated with personal effectiveness. This possibly is because of the reasons that; first, individual having emotional maturity have the ability to control emotions, coping effectiveness, self-control, self-management, self-awareness, self-motivation, thinking capacity and stress tolerance ability which leads to better interpretation and perception of others behaviour, resulting to display creativity at correct time and do not supports the destructive and discourteous behaviour that eventually leads to personal effectiveness. Secondly, emotional maturity encompasses positive emotions therefore and individual having positive emotions enhance the thought-action repertoire (mean to increases

the action, cognition and attention within the individual) and also build various resources such as intellectual, physical and social resources. In this sense, the findings are well justified that individual having emotional maturity is positively linked with positive emotions, and which, in turn, leads to the thought-action repertoire, intellectual and physical resources that ultimately support to personal effectiveness. The finding is in alignment with the previous studies, which indicated that the positive emotions enhance own thought-action repertoire and intellectual resources, which in turn impacts on the personal effectiveness (Fredrickson, 1998; Fredrickson, 2001). Besides this, emotional maturity encompasses interpersonal and intrapersonal elements. Furthermore, interpersonal elements involve social skills, social resources and social sharing and intrapersonal elements comprise of high self-esteem, positive emotions, positive self-concept, personal strength and calm behaviour. Thus, due to the large positive effect of interpersonal-intrapersonal elements, emotional maturity influences the personal effectiveness. Recent literature also revealed that the individual who have emotional maturity, easily manage and guide emotional tendencies that eventually leads to achieving the projected goals and organisational objectives at the workplace this, in turn, influences to personal effectiveness (Nehra & Rangnekar, 2018; Yusoff et al., 2011).

5.2.4.1.1 Emotional maturity dimensions [Emotional stability (ES)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

This section discusses relationship between underlying dimensions (i.e. emotional stability, self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness) of emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that emotional maturity dimension (emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). The possible justification of this finding may lie in the fact that, sharing positive events leads to self-disclosure. It is noteworthy that sharing positive events often lead to positive emotions, and positive emotions are inherently embodied within emotional stability. Therefore, emotional stability potentially supports positive events (activities) and positive emotions which in response display an opportunity for better cost reward analysis. Here, cost refers to the risk related to disclosing positive events and reward as the degree of response from the receiver. This is how an individual having emotional stability impacts on self-disclosure. This finding also receives enough empirical support from the existing literature that emotional stability supports sharing positive events that lead to influence on the self-disclosure (Bose, Mudgal, & Banerjee, 2013; Gable et al., 2004; Nehra & Rangnekar, 2017; Reis et al., 2010). Further, emotional stability dimension of emotional maturity has a

significant effect on openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. This possibly is because of the reasons that, an individual having emotional stability better display austerity of body, speech and mind, which lead to high on self-esteem and self-regulation ability, this, in turn, reflects socially competent behaviour. This efficiently fulfils and satisfies the need of others who are engaged in interaction that ultimately influence on openness to feedback. The finding is in alignment with the previous studies, which indicated that the individual having emotional stability impacts on openness to feedback (Mehta, 2016; Sarvapriyananda, 2008). Furthermore, the justification of such observation is strengthened by the fact that Indian organisations strongly emphasises on social sharing, social networking, reverse mentoring have friendly social culture and are continuously adopting the western culture that supports the self-disclosure and openness to feedback among employees'. Further, emotional stability dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. This may be possibly because of the reason that Indian organizations are continuously trying to improve the work environment, work culture and flexible human resource policy. In spite of this, Indian organizations still face various challenges such as high employee turnover, unstable workload, and heterogeneous work stressors that are likely to influence the positive behaviour, which in turn do not supports the perceptiveness ability within an individual (Bose & Sampath, 2015). The existing literature revealed that highly pressurised work environment does not support the positive behaviour outcome (such as perceptiveness ability) towards others (Eid & Diener, 1999).

5.2.4.1.2 Emotional maturity dimension [Social adjustment (SA)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

The results demonstrated that an emotional maturity dimension (social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). The justification of this finding may lie in the fact that, an individual having social adjustment can live with others in an adapted, satisfied, adjusted; but not as unadjusted, dissatisfied and maladjusted, which in turn supports the social acceptance, reduces stress level and increase social sharing that leads to self-disclosure. Furthermore, the justification of such observation is strengthened by the fact that social adjustment not only enhances the trust and liking but also reduces the biasness amongst the groups, which result in self-disclosure. The finding is in alignment with the previous studies, which indicated that the social adjustment is positively linked with self-disclosure (Rogers, 1961). This finding also receives enough empirical support from the existing literature that social adjustment has a significant effect on

self-disclosure (Fantasia et al., 1976). Further, social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. The findings are well justified in the sense that individual having social adjustment better facilitates positive interpersonal relations and human social behaviour that enhances affirmative beliefs and individuals relationship, which in turn supports the openness to feedback. The finding is in alignment with the previous studies which indicated that individual characteristics such as socially competent behaviour, activeness and confidence are inherently embodied within self-control which reduces the tendency to suffer from aggression, depression and anxiety. Notably, self-control is positively associated with social adjustment, which in turn impacts on openness to feedback (Spinrad et al., 2012). Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which assert that social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. This means that individual having social adjustment do not support the perceptiveness, the possible explanation of such findings is that the majority of respondents were in younger age groups that commonly have unrealistic positive views and may likely to suffer from the misperception about themselves and others behaviour that ultimately leads to less accurate perceptiveness.

5.2.4.1.3 Emotional maturity dimension [Personality integration (PI)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

The results demonstrated that an emotional maturity dimension (personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). The possible justification of this finding may lie in the fact that, an individual having personality integration is high on self-esteem, positive self-concept and self-accountability that eventually supports the ability to convey their feeling to others. Besides this, ample of research evidence suggested that savouring is positively associated with self-esteem. Savouring in itself is responsible to control and enlarge the positive effect by focusing on positive events and experiences as they occur in the present and past that assist in building social connections, happiness and positive events thereby strengthening pro-social behaviour that leads to self-disclosure. It is noteworthy that savouring often lead to self-disclosure and savouring is positively associated with self-esteem (self-esteem is an integral part of personality integration). Thus, personality integration potentially influences the self-disclosure. This is how an individual having personality integration impacts on self-disclosure. The finding is in alignment with the previous studies which indicated that the

savouring leads to higher positive affect, happiness, trust, life satisfaction, pro-social feeling and high self-esteem, which in turn enhance the self-disclosure (Bose, 2013; Bryant & Veroff, 2007; Jose et al., 2012). Further, personality integration dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. This possibly is because of the reason that, individual having personality integration display favourable personality characteristics that include optimal psychological health, positive self-concept, self-organized, selfless behaviour and social connection. This results in better perception for the environment and people around them, which enhances the feeling of a positive and safe environment, leading to influences the openness to feedback. The finding is in alignment with the previous research studies by Mehta (2012). According to this study, the individual having integrated personality display selfless behaviour, social connection and spirituality that leads to impacts on openness to feedback. Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results, which assert that personality integration dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. This means that individual having personality integration does not influences the perceptiveness, the possible explanation of such findings is that 37% of respondents were not in younger age groups (i.e. employees in the age groups of 36-40, 41-45 and above 45) that commonly have declining health, reduced mobility, low physical functioning, and normative decline in self-esteem, this ultimately indicates the impression of being low in personality integration which eventually not supports the perceptiveness. Further, literature also supports a similar notion (McMullin & Cairney, 2004).

5.2.4.1.4 Emotional maturity dimension [Emotional progression (EP)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which asserts that emotional progression dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on all dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback). This finding did not receive enough empirical support from existing literature. First, the results from Singh et al. (2014) revealed that emotional progression is positively related to social maturity that not only enhances the social behaviour but it also leads to better adjustment, life satisfaction, positive feelings and values with others, this in turn to impacts on self-disclosure. Also, the studies conducted by Loosemore and Lam (2004) and Mousavi et al. (2012) suggested that self-regulation is inherently embodied within emotional progression, and this results in better self-analysis, positive critical attitude and empathy that

eventually supports the coping skills which assist in optimal mental action and cognitive efforts, thereby strengthening the individual ability with respect to openness to feedback and perceptiveness. The possible explanation of such observation may lie in the fact that in case of Indian organizations, majority of respondents were from public sector organizations, where the open door policy, flexible work environment, positive work culture and reverse mentoring are somehow more prevalent in private sector organization rather than in public sector organizations (Dhar, Dhar, & Jain, 2004; Gulla & Gupta, 2012). Importantly, pro-social behaviour, emotional expressivity and social-networking are an integral part of the emotional progression that potentially supports the self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Furthermore, the number of such public sector organizations are very few that potentially supports the open door policy, positive work culture, pro-social behaviour and social-networking. These are possibly some of the reason which justified that emotional progression dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on all dimensions of personal effectiveness.

5.2.4.1.5 Emotional maturity dimension [Independence (I)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

Further, the results demonstrated that emotional maturity dimension (independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). The possible explanation of this finding may lie in the fact that, individual having independence is positively associated with extraversion. Further, extraversion involves various positive characteristics such as excitability, sociability, talkativeness and emotional expressiveness that ultimately enhance the positive feeling towards social setting and interaction with others, which in turn results to impacts on self-disclosure. Another possibility for such finding is that independence is positively associated with high self-esteem. The high self-esteem earns the gains of savouring that ultimately supports the self-disclosure. This is how individual having independence impacts on self-disclosure. This means that individual having independence influences the dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure. This finding also receives enough empirical support from the existing literature that independence is positively associated with extraversion and high self-esteem which helps to earn the benefits of savouring and pro-social behaviour that leads to self-disclosure (Kumar et al., 2009; Marušić et al., 1995). Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which asserts that independence dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on other two dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness). This finding did not receive enough empirical support from existing

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literature. Also, the study conducted by Quick et al. (1992) suggested that independence involves effective functioning, better mental health, psychological well-being and prevents overdependence which leads to openness to feedback and perceptiveness. The findings revealed that employees in Indian organisations felt that independence is not impacts on openness to feedback and perceptiveness. The possible reason for such a finding is that the lesser number of respondents in the study are from older age groups (i.e. employees in the age groups of 36-40, 41-45 and above 45) that commonly are matured enough, high on psychological well-being and have more realistic view about self and others, that better influences the openness to feedback and perceptiveness; whereas the majority of respondents are from younger age group (i.e. employees in the age groups of 21-25 and 26-30) who commonly are not matured enough, group bias, have more unrealistic view about self and others which eventually indicates low in independence ability that will not impacts the openness to feedback and perceptiveness. This is possibly one of the reason independence dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on openness to feedback and perceptiveness dimensions of personal effectiveness.

5.2.5 Accomplishment of objectives 5 of the study

To study the impact of locus of control on employees' personal effectiveness.

5.2.5.1 Locus of control and personal effectiveness

The objective 5 of the study examined the influence of locus of control on employees' personal effectiveness. The fifth section in the accomplishment of objective 5 is the discussion on the relationship between locus of control and personal effectiveness. The further fifth section also discusses on the relationship between underlying dimensions of locus of control and personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that overall locus of control (i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control) is significantly associated with personal effectiveness. The possible justification of this finding may lie in the fact that, self-efficacy and self-regulation lead to personal effectiveness. It is noteworthy that self-efficacy is positively associated with self-evaluation that leads to an effective action by an individual which makes them more optimistic, which, in turn, results in supporting them for optimum utilization of the resources to achieve the desired goals and uplift coping ability to resolve difficulties which ultimately influences the individual personal effectiveness. Importantly, self-efficacy is inherently embodied within the internal locus of control. Thus, internal locus of control potentially impacts on personal effectiveness. Another possible explanation of such observation may lie in the fact that individual having self-regulation can

direct its behaviour, attention and emotions in such a way that they will better support adaptive behaviour which, in turn, effectively operationalize in achieving desired goals which eventually leads to influences the personal effectiveness. Moreover, self-regulation is positively associated with internal locus of control, and therefore, internal locus of control potentially impacts on the personal effectiveness. This is how an individual having the internal locus of control influences the personal effectiveness. This finding also receives enough empirical support from the existing literature that self-efficacy and self-regulation are an integral part of internal locus of control that eventually influences the personal effectiveness (Tims et al., 2014; Ursache et al., 2012).

Further, the results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (external locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness. The possible explanations of this finding may lie in the facts that; the first individual having external locus of control display non-assertive, inactive, emotional instability, introvert behaviour, that leads to depression and anxiety, which, in turn, leads to express negativity, negative self-concept, low self-esteem, psychological distress and adopted avoidance strategy for problems that eventually influences on personal effectiveness. Second, the individual having the external locus of control chiefly engage in maladaptive behavioural patterns, this, in turn, leads a mismatch between actions and the consequences that ultimately lead to the feeling of hopelessness and a higher level of stress that impact on the personal effectiveness. Third, individual having the external locus of control encompasses low self-esteem and self-efficacy, which, in turn, leads to a lower level of autonomy in their behaviour and display lower ability to cope with life stress that ultimately leads to counterproductive behaviour that possibly influences the personal effectiveness. This finding receives enough empirical support from existing literature. Also, the study conducted by Asberg and Renk (2014) suggested that individual having the external locus of control is positively related to low self-esteem and high level of stress that impacts on the individual personal effectiveness. This is how an individual having the external locus of control influences on the personal effectiveness. This meant that organisations consistently emphasize to assess the level of external locus of control at the time of hiring to avoid the influences on the personal effectiveness. This is also supported by the findings of various studies which indicate that India is one of the countries, where economic hardship is shared; thereby employees' are likely to be associated with religiosity. The findings are further strengthening by the fact that people in India considered religiosity as a crucial part of their lives (Harris & Medcalfe, 2015) which is positively associated with an external locus of control that eventually leads to influences the personal effectiveness.

5.2.5.1.1 Locus of control dimension [Internal locus of control (ILoC)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

The results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). The possible explanation of this finding may lie in the fact that, an individual having the internal locus of control is high on self-efficacy and self-evaluation, which ultimately influences the self-sufficiency in self-behaviour. Therefore, individual having better autonomy in their behaviour think positive about themselves after disclosing information with others, because an individual may be more confident with their self-view that leads to impacts on self-disclosure. Another possible justification of such observation may lie in the fact that positive emotions and self-esteem influences on self-disclosure. It is noteworthy that self-esteem is positively associated with happiness and pro-social feeling; this, in turn, supports the self-disclosure. Furthermore, individual having self-esteem think positive about themselves after sharing information with others and also enjoy various positive affects such as trust, happiness, life satisfaction and pro-social behaviour that eventually impacts on the self-disclosure. Notably, self-esteem is positively related to the internal locus of control. Therefore, internal locus of control potentially influences the self-disclosure. The finding is in alignment with the previous studies which indicated that the individual having an internal locus of control is positively associated with self-esteem (Nehra, 2018; Sharma & Sharma, 2015) that leads to influences on self-disclosure. Further, the results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (openness to feedback). This means that individual having the internal locus of control shows inclination towards those aspects which an individual themselves are not aware of, but others know about it. The possible explanation of this findings is that the ample of research evidence suggested that internal locus of control is inherently embodied with self-evaluation and self-assessment that ultimately enhances the own willingness to known the more accurate view of their capabilities, abilities and personality traits which eventually influences on openness to feedback. Furthermore, another possible explanation of this finding may lie in the fact that individual having the internal locus of control are more self-confident, proactive, happy, and express positivity that ultimately enhance the willingness to those aspects which individual themselves are not aware of, but others know about it. Further, the finding also receives enough empirical support from existing literature. While explaining why individual having the internal locus of

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control impacts on openness to feedback; Antill and Cotton (1987) in their study concluded that internal locus of control is positively associated with self-evaluation and self-assessment that results in explaining the relationship with openness to feedback. According to the authors, Wood and Forest (2016) self-evaluation and self-assessment are the factors that lead to enhancing employees' willingness for openness to feedback. Further, the results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (internal locus of control) has an insignificant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (perceptiveness). This means that individual having the internal locus of control shows no relationship with individual ability to understand verbal and non-verbal cues from others. This possibly is because of the reason that younger adults commonly have high self-esteem (i.e. in this study, a majority of respondents are in the age groups of 21-25 and 26-30) that exhibits stronger in-group favouritism that may lead to discrimination and prejudice which ultimately do not supports the perceptiveness. Also, the studies conducted by Baumeister, Heatherton, and Tice (1993), Lemyre and Smith (1985), and Rosenberg (2015) suggested that high self-esteem may lead to adverse effects like favouritism, discrimination, prejudice and sometimes irrational ways of extreme self-enhancing that eventually do not supports the individual ability to perceptiveness.

5.2.5.1.2 Locus of control dimension [External locus of control (ELoC)] with personal effectiveness dimensions [Self-disclosure (SD), openness to feedback (OF) and perceptiveness (P)]

The results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (external locus of control) has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). This meant that employees in Indian organisations feel that they are struggling with job security, economic hardship, work pressure and work environment, despite the facts that organisations are continuously taking steps to overcome such limitations. These instances are likely to enhance the level of depression, anxiety, negativity, negative emotions, psychological distress, and emotional instability, which in turn leads to adopting emotion-focused coping strategies that lead to isolation which eventually shows the characteristics of the individual having the external locus of control. An individual having an external locus of control encompasses of traits like non-assertive, inactive, negative self-concept, anxiety, and introvert behaviour that influences the self-disclosure. The findings are well justified in the sense that individual having the external locus of control reflects anxiety and depression that strongly influences the quality of life, happiness, life satisfaction and well-being which eventually impacts on self-disclosure. Furthermore, this is also

supported by the findings of another study which indicates that individual having the external locus of control were expected to have strong association with low self-esteem, negative self-concept, negativity, depression and anxiety that will lead to isolation (Wood et al., 2009). Further, the results also demonstrated that external locus of control has a significant effect on the other two dimensions personal effectiveness (i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness). This possibly is because of the reason that individual having an external locus of control have negative self-evaluation and commonly express negativity that will likely arises the conflicted self that will influences the openness to feedback (means reduces individual willingness with respect to those aspects that individual themselves are not aware of, but others know about it). On similar lines, a result also revealed that external locus of control has significant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. This meant that individual having the external locus of control has a significant effect on the perceptiveness. This possibly is because of the reason that individual having an external locus of control displays aggression, low self-esteem and negative self-evaluation that potentially leads to defensive behaviour and defensive behaviour in itself influences the perceptiveness (means not to support the individual ability to understand the non-verbal and verbal cues from others). The above explanation of such finding is in alignment with the previous study by Benassi et al. (1998) which states that individual having the external locus of control encompasses of low self-esteem and negative self-evaluation that will likely to influences the individual ability to perceptiveness. This study is likely to suggest to organisations that the hiring process should be in alignment with the assessment of the degree of external or internal locus of control, which helps organizations to enhance their organisational performance.

5.3 Chapter summary

The chapter gave a detailed explanation on the results obtained in the study. The chapter included five sections. The first section in the accomplishment of objective 1 is the discussion on the relationship between emotional maturity and demographics (i.e. employees' age, gender and hierarchical level). While investigating the influence of employees' age on the dimensions of emotional maturity, it was found that emotional stability, social adjustment, personality integration and emotional progression associated with an emotional maturity varied with employees' age and the only dimension, i.e. independence did not vary with employees' age. Further, while examining the influence of employees' gender on the dimensions of emotional maturity, it was found that there exists no difference among the

perception of males and females concerning all dimensions of emotional maturity. The results demonstrated that there exists significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception about dimensions of emotional maturity, i.e. emotional stability, personality integration, emotional progression and independence, however, there is no differences among employees' hierarchical levels concerning social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity.

The second section in the accomplishment of objective 2 is the discussion on the relationship between locus of control and demographics (i.e. employees' age, gender and hierarchical level). While investigating the influence of employees' age on the dimensions of locus of control, it was found that internal locus of control and external locus of control differ significantly depending upon employees' age. Further, while examining the influence of employees' gender on the dimensions of locus of control, it was found that there exists no significant difference among employees' gender concerning both dimensions of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control. The results demonstrated that there exists significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception about dimensions of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control.

The third section in the accomplishment of objective 3 is the discussion on the relationship between personal effectiveness and demographics (i.e. employees' age, gender and hierarchical level). The results demonstrated that there exists significant difference among employees' age concerning dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure. However, there are no significant differences among employees' age concerning others dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Further, while examining the influence of employees' gender on the dimensions of personal effectiveness, it was found that there exists no significant difference among employees' gender with respect to both dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure and perceptiveness, but there exists significant differences of employees' gender on the dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. openness to feedback. The results demonstrated that there exists significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception about the dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure. However, there are no significant differences among hierarchical levels concerning dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness.

The objective 4 of the study examined the influence of emotional maturity on employees' personal effectiveness. The fourth section in the accomplishment of objective 4 is

the discussion on the relationship between emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. Further fourth section also discuss on the relationship between underlying dimensions of emotional maturity and personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that overall emotional maturity is significantly associated with personal effectiveness.

The results demonstrated that emotional maturity dimension (emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). Further, emotional stability dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. Further, emotional stability dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that an emotional maturity dimension (social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). Further, social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which assert that social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that an emotional maturity dimension (personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). Further, personality integration dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on openness to feedback dimension of personal effectiveness. Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results, which assert that personality integration dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which asserts that emotional progression dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on all dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. self-disclosure, perceptiveness and openness to feedback). Further, the results demonstrated that emotional maturity dimension (independence) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). Now the research diverts the attention concerning non-significant results which asserts that independence dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on other two dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness).

The objective 5 of the study examined the influence of locus of control on employees' personal effectiveness. The fifth section in the accomplishment of objective 5 is the discussion on the relationship between locus of control and personal effectiveness. Further

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fifth section also discuss on the relationship between underlying dimensions of locus of control and personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that overall locus of control (i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control) is significantly associated with personal effectiveness. The results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (self-disclosure). Further, the results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (openness to feedback). Further, the results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (internal locus of control) has an insignificant effect on personal effectiveness dimension (perceptiveness). The results demonstrated that locus of control dimension (external locus of control) has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). This study finally concludes that emotional maturity and locus of control are significantly associated with personal effectiveness. Further, the relationship between emotional maturity and locus of control are found to be the predictor of personal effectiveness.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE SCOPE

The sixth chapter shows the conclusion, implication, limitation and future scope of this study that drawn by review of literature, analysis and findings of the study. This chapter is categories into five sub-sections. The first section highlights the conclusion of the study. The second section narrates the contribution of the present study. The third section entails the practical implication of the study. The fourth section is acquaintance with the limitation of the study. The final fifth section detailed the future research directions. The chapter is concluding with the chapter summary. (Please see Fig. 6.1)

First Section
- The first section highlights the conclusion of the study.

Second Section
- The second section narrates the contribution of the present study.

Third Section
- The third section entails the practical implication of the study.

Fourth Section
- The fourth section is acquaintance with the limitation of the study.

Fifth Section
- The final fifth section detailed the future research directions.

Figure 6.1: Organization of the chapter 6

6.1 Conclusion

The rationale behind this study was to understand the perception of employees concerning emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. The study more specifically addresses how emotional maturity and locus of control influence employee personal effectiveness.

The first objective of this study was to assess the employees' emotional maturity in selected Indian organizations which was investigated by testing the hypotheses 1 (a), 1 (b) and 1 (c) in the present study. The findings revealed that emotional stability, emotional progression, social adjustment and personality integration associated with an emotional maturity varied with employees' age and the only dimension, i.e. independence did not vary with employees' age. The results of the study indicated that employees in the different age groups in Indian organizations were varying concerning dimensions of emotional maturity. The results of the study also demonstrated that employees in the age groups of 21-25 and 26-30 in Indian organization reflected that emotional stability, social adjustment and emotional progression are reportedly high in these age groups. This meant that organizations commonly emphasize to hire the employees in the age groups of 21-25 and 26-30 because employees in these age groups are commonly high on emotional stability, social adjustment and emotional progression which are considered as crucial personality traits which ultimately were found to influence the individual personal effectiveness. Further, the results demonstrated that gender has insignificant effect on all dimensions of emotional maturity (Pacoy, 2013). The possible explanation of such findings may be due to the fact that Indian organizations are slowly but continuously supports the mentoring concept and are offering an equal training opportunity to every employee irrespective of genders. This may result in better psychological, career growth and stress on equity principle which eventually reduces the power distance. Thus, it possible supports the Indian organizations to offers equal growth opportunity that reduces the gender bias. It can be concluded that Indian organizations stress on equity principle which offers equal growth opportunity that reduces the gender bias. Finally, the results revealed that there exists significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception with dimensions of emotional maturity, i.e. emotional stability, personality integration, emotional progression and independence, however, there are no differences among employees' hierarchical levels for social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity. The results of the study also indicated that Indian employees' in the junior level of hierarchy are high on emotional stability and personality integration. This meant that employee' in the age

groups 21-25 and 26-30 constituted the junior level of hierarchy in Indian organizations which were more inclined to high self-esteem, optimal psychological functioning, happiness and better physical health that likely to enhance the individual performance. The results of the study further indicated that employees at different levels of hierarchy reported no differences concerning social adjustment. This meant that Indian organizations are adopting the open door policy and the best workplaces practices that enhance the supporting work climate, creating collective work culture, social sharing and better interpersonal relationship which eventually improve the social adjustment at varying levels of hierarchy.

The second objective of this study was to assess the employees' locus of control in selected Indian organizations was investigated by testing the hypotheses 2 (a), 2 (b) and 2 (c) in the present study. The findings revealed that all dimensions of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control differ significantly depending upon employees' age. This meant that employees in the age group of 21-25 in Indian organizations felt that greater range of work experiences enhances the coping ability and easily appraises difficult situations that lead to work adjustment, better well-being and less stressful. It can be concluded that employees in Indian organizations are slowly but continously likely to earn the experiences about work culture, work environment and work challenges that support in developing problem-focused coping ability and better psychological well-being that ultimately leads to the higher sense of control. The results of the study further indicated that external locus of control differs significantly depending upon employees' age. This meant that employees' in Indian organizations in the age groups of 41-45 and above 45 generally experience financial constraints, lack of career opportunity, and strongly believe in religiosity that is likely to support the external locus of control. Further, employees in Indian organizations in the age groups of 41-45 and above 45 felt that increasing age may experiences loss of work productivity, physical decline, physical discomfort and stress that may lead to a lower sense of control. It can be concluded that employees in Indian organizations may experiences enhancement in the external locus of control with ageing. Further, it was found that there exists no significant difference among employees' gender concerning both dimensions of locus of control, i.e. internal locus of control and external locus of control. This meant that majority of Indian organization are male-dominating. Further, even the sample of the study reflected male domination; where number of females' respondents (78) participating in the survey is proportionally less than the number of male respondents (332) and with the higher differences in magnitude of sex differences for self-

reports will cause the variability in effect size (Dindia & Allen, 1992; Omotoye, Sharma, Ngassam, & Eseonu, 2006). Finally, the results revealed significant differences in the perception of internal locus of control and external locus of control as perceived by the employees in different hierarchical levels. This meant that junior-level employees in Indian organizations are experienced high self-esteem, physical mobility and are slowly more aware of the culture, and environment that enhances the higher sense of control. Further, the results indicated a significant difference in the perception of external locus of control as perceived by the employees in different hierarchy levels. This meant that Indian organizations commonly face various challenges in turn of profitability, global competition, labour issues, working conditions, growth uncertainties, economic instability, and financial crunch that likely to influence the employees' behaviour. Such circumstances inclined the individual behaviour towards religiosity which enhances the lower sense of control within the individual.

The third objective of this study was to assess the employees' personal effectiveness in selected Indian organizations which was investigated by testing the hypotheses 3 (a), 3 (b) and 3 (c) in the present study. The results revealed that there exists significant difference among employees' age concerning dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure. However, there are no significant differences among employees' age for others dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness. This meant that employees in different age groups in Indian organizations experience different level of self-monitoring ability. Further, the results indicated that employees' in the age groups of 41-45 and above 45 experiences lower level of self-disclosure ability in comparison to employees' in the age groups of 21-25 and 26-30. Interestingly, self-monitoring ability shows the degree to which individual control or monitors their behaviour that supports in developing desired appearances and positive responses to social cues of behavioural appropriateness through expressing their own feeling and attitude which eventually leads to self-disclosure. Moreover, results revealed that there exists no difference among employees of different age groups with respect to openness to feedback and perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. This meant that employees in the various age groups in Indian organizations felt that they are in environment that possesses good social relationships, caring colleagues and superiors who are encouraging and supporting which ultimately supports the confronting behaviour that may lead to openness to feedback and perceptiveness. Further, while examining the influence of employees' gender on the dimensions of personal effectiveness, it was found that there exist no significant differences among employees' gender with respect to both dimensions of

personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure, and perceptiveness; but there exists significant differences of employees' gender on the dimension of personal effectiveness i.e. openness to feedback. This meant that females' employees in Indian organizations are more sentimental, emotionally expressive and soft-hearted that supports to openness to feedback; whereas males employees that are tough, striving, unsentimental and emotionally un-expressive that results in to less likely to support the openness to feedback (Pacoy, 2009). Further results indicated that no significant differences among employees gender with respect to self-disclosure and perceptiveness dimensions of personal effectiveness. This meant that employees in Indian organizations have women empowerment and equal growth opportunity without considering the gender bias. Finally, the results demonstrated that there exists significant difference among employees' hierarchical levels and their perception about the dimension of personal effectiveness, i.e. self-disclosure. However, there are no significant differences among hierarchical levels with respect to dimensions of personal effectiveness, i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness. This meant that employees in the different age groups in Indian organizations felt that they are in collectivism culture which encompasses of supporting, encouraging, and nurturing each other. Further Indian organizations display Guru-Shishya heritage, where the guru (senior employees) serve as a philosophical guide and the teacher for his/her shishya (junior employees) which enhances the openness to feedback and perceptiveness ability across the different hierarchy levels (Pacoy, 2008). Further, the results indicated that there is a significant difference among employees' hierarchy levels with respect to self-disclosure. This meant that employees in junior level of hierarchy in Indian organizations are more inclined towards high level of self regulation, positive self concept and self-esteem that lead to happiness and self-disclosure; therefore the employees are likely to self-disclosure.

The objective fourth of the study examined the influence of emotional maturity on employees' personal effectiveness which was investigated by testing the hypotheses 4 in the present study. The results revealed that overall emotional maturity was found to be significantly associated with employee personal effectiveness. This meant that organizations must put in efforts to develop and maintain emotional maturity among the employees,which will help the organizations to enhance the employees' personal effectiveness. Further, investigation of the influence of independent dimensions of emotional maturity on the dependent dimensions of personal effectiveness was investigated by testing the hypotheses 4 (a), 4 (b), 4(c), 4(d), 4(e), 4(f), 4(g), 4(h), 4(i), 4(j), 4(k), 4(l), 4(m), 4(n) and 4(o) in the present study. The hypotheses 4 (a), 4 (b) and 4(c) proposed that emotional stability

dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). The results revealed that an emotional maturity dimension (i.e. emotional stability) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (i.e. self-disclosure and openness to feedback). Further, emotional stability dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. The hypothesis 4(d), 4(e) and 4(f) proposed that social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness. Further, the results revealed that an emotional maturity dimension (i.e. social adjustment) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (i.e. self-disclosure and openness to feedback). Further, social adjustment dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. The hypotheses 4(g), 4(h) and 4(i) proposed that personality integration dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness. The results also revealed that emotional maturity dimension (i.e. personality integration) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (i.e. self-disclosure and openness to feedback). The results also demonstrated that personality integration dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. The hypothesis 4(j), 4(k) and 4(l) proposed that emotional progression dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness. Finally, the result revealed that emotional progression dimension of emotional maturity has an insignificant effect on all dimensions of personal effectiveness. The hypothesis 4(m), 4(n) and 4(o) proposed that independence dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness. Finally, the result revealed that independence dimension of emotional maturity has a significant effect on self-disclosure, whereas independence has an insignificant effect on other dimensions of personal effectiveness (i.e. openness to feedback and perceptiveness).

The objective fifth of the study examined the influence of locus of control on employees' personal effectiveness which was investigated by testing the hypotheses 5(a) and 5(b) in the present study. The results demonstrated that overall locus of control (internal locus of control and external locus of control) is significantly associated with personal effectiveness. The result revealed that internal locus of control has a significant effect on personal effectiveness; a further result also revealed that external locus of control has a significant effect on personal effectiveness. Further, investigation of the influence of independent dimensions of locus of control on the dependent dimensions of personal

effectiveness was investigated by testing the hypotheses 5(c), 5(d), 5(e), 5(f), 5(g) and 5(h) in the present study. The hypotheses 5(c), 5(d) and 5(e) proposed that locus of control dimension (i.e. internal locus of control) has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). The result revealed that internal locus of control has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (i.e. self-disclosure and openness to feedback). The result also showed that locus of control dimension (i.e. internal locus of control) has an insignificant effect on perceptiveness dimension of personal effectiveness. The hypotheses 5(f), 5(g) and 5(h) proposed that external locus of control has a significant effect on personal effectiveness dimensions (i.e. self-disclosure, openness to feedback and perceptiveness). Finally, the result revealed that external locus of control has a significant effect on all the dimensions of personal effectiveness. Conclusively, previous research shed light on the role of emotional maturity and locus of control in influencing various work-related outcomes such as interpersonal communication, entrepreneurial style and leadership, but the underlying mechanisms explaining the relationship with individual personal effectiveness have not been widely explored. By accepting that the role of emotional maturity and locus of control helps in developing and influencing individual personal effectiveness, organizations would do well to inculcate the ethos of emotional maturity behaviour in their employees and value systems.

6.2 Contribution of the present study

This study extends to existing literature in several ways.

It is noteworthy in response to the incessant calls of organizational behaviour researchers to explore personal effectiveness dimensions for one of the most important personality traits such as emotional maturity and locus of control (Avkiran, 2000; Judge & Bono, 2001; Singh et al., 2014). This study attempted to examine the relationship of emotional maturity and locus of control with personal effectiveness. The essential reasons for such calls could be directly credited to the availability of few numbers of research studies examining the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control on personal effectiveness. Therefore, by exploring and investigating the impact of relatively unknown relations between proposed relationships, this study fulfils the gap in existing literature and overcome the limitations in the academic research.

The study is crucial from the practical and theoretical point of view. Unlike earlier studies which principally intended to investigate individual dimensions of emotional maturity and locus of control, this study offered an insight where the influence of all dimensions of

emotional maturity and locus of control on all dimensions of personal effectiveness was empirically examined. More importantly, this study provides the support on the relationship between emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness. The present work has addressed to the scarcity of existing literature relating to emotional maturity, locus of control with personal effectiveness, as mentioned by (Marbouti & Lynch, 2017; Sharma, 2015). Besides this, it is notable to mention here that numerous research studies observed that personal effectiveness has remained an understudied and one of the neglected areas of research more specifically in the context of Indian organizational setting. It needed to be explored further to help organizations in gaining higher organizational performance and competitive advantage through personal effectiveness (Ajitabh & Momaya, 2004; Park, 2006). Hence, responding to the calls by (Croucher et al., 2010), the study provides insight on the personal effectiveness by exploring how emotional maturity and locus of control lead to individual personal effectiveness.

Importantly, literature claimed that personal effectiveness issues are culture-specific; thus, what is rejected in one culture may be appreciated in other cultures (Brett et al., 2009; Collins & Miller, 1994; Hamid, 1994; Moon & Ko, 2013; Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2010). Furthermore, the socio-culture attributes of any geographical region is likely to impact the socio-psychological perspective of individual and situational elements of the state of mind that directly put impact on once own personal effectiveness (Kishali, Sharma, & Gupta, 2013). Notably, literature continuously stresses that the culturally situated study of personal effectiveness may lead to insights about essential variables affecting personal effectiveness (Hasting, 2000). It is notable, "because of cultural complexity of India; it would be beneficial to the personal effectiveness literature to investigate the varied dimensions that is likely to enhance the personal effectiveness in understudied, non-Western culture, like India" (Croucher et al., 2010; Katsoni, Papageorgiou, & Maria, 2011). The study helps to clarify better how personality variables, i.e. emotional maturity and locus of control influence the individual personal effectiveness in a culture outside that of the Western countries like the United States (Watts, 2009; Watts & Noh, 2014). Furthermore, the majority of variables (i.e. emotional maturity and personal effectiveness) under study are measured via instruments which were developed in Indian organizational setting. However, one variable, i.e. locus of control is measured via instruments which were designed in the western context, even though all scales validates in Indian settings by investigating their psychometric properties using Indian sample.

Notably, the study work addresses the calls of other prominent researchers (Croucher et al., 2010; Gable et al., 2004; Hastings, 2000) and makes an essential contribution to the existing literature on personal effectiveness by examining the personal effectiveness-emotional maturity- locus of control relationship from "broaden-and-build" and capitalization theories perspective in an understudied, non-U.S. culture like India. In this sense, the study highlights the relevance of broaden-and-build and capitalization theories on exploring the relationship between emotional maturity, the locus of control and personal effectiveness more particularly in Indian organizational setting. Conclusively, this study contributes to the literature by fulfilling the existing gap by providing empirical shreds of evidence supporting the relationship between the emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness.

6.3 Practical implications

The critical metric for every sector to become successful organization is based on the employees' personal effectiveness (Tang et al., 2013). Employees' personal effectiveness supports the organizations to stand different from their competitors that ultimately provide organizations with a competitive edge over the others (Banwet, Momaya, & Shee, 2002; Gupta, Sharma, & Mitchem, 2010). The findings of this study provide several implications for the organizations.

First, this study suggested that creation of emotional maturity is not limited to the process of recruitment. The organization need to consistently stress on maintaining and building the employees' emotional maturity throughout the different stages of career life cycle as lack of employees' emotional maturity at any stage of career life cycle, will likely influence personal effectiveness which eventually leads in negative behavioural outcomes like low self-esteem, low performance, low morale, low self-confidence and activeness. To build and attract strong human capital, not working on emotional maturity strategies is no longer a choice of any organization. It is difficult for the organizations to sustain and develop employees' personal effectiveness due to employees' lack in emotional maturity, if their is lack of training and development programs by HR personnel which may result to be destructive for the existing employees (Katsoni, 2007(a)). This study strongly suggests that the yoga (like pranayama), training, spiritual counselling sessions and meditations activities at the workplace enhance the emotional maturity, positive self-concept and self-esteem. Thereby enabling employees to maintain their performance without external intervention and keep them motivated to work within their normal limits to enhance the workplace performance.

Additionally, the findings, offer advance understanding about the framing and implementation of HR policies with respect to emotional maturity and locus of control. Results of this study suggest that the levels of emotional maturity and locus of control may vary according to the level of job hierarchy and employees in different age groups. Therefore, the level of emotional maturity and locus of control cannot be uniformed across employees in the different age groups and levels of hierarchy in the organization. Considering this, organizations and managers need to plan accordingly and enable HR manager to strategically plan HR policies in line with the organizational objectives that eventually sustain a higher level of emotional maturity and internal locus of control within the employees (Katsoni, 2007).

In line with the findings of the study, it can be projected that managers and executives who are in charge of different workgroups with cultural diversity and the multicultural team should concern themselves with managing supportive work climate and collective work culture through internal locus of control and emotional maturity. Thereby, enabling employees to share active learning experiences and friendly relations between manager-followers association at the workplace. The study recommends organising employees' social gathering, festival celebration, and recreational activities that arelikely to create a positive feeling and enhances the sense of belongingness to official group as a family; eventually it will lead to reasons for better interpersonal relationship and favourable work climate, this in turn will enhance the personal effectiveness.

The study opened a glimpse into the effect of sharing positive events and positive emotions on the relation between emotional maturity, locus of control and personal effectiveness in the context of India. The study suggested that organizations strongly stress to develop the self-disclosure among employees. This helps to enhance positive feeling at workplace and reduces negative thought, which in turn will improve the collective work culture and positive work environment. This study also suggests that manager take initiatives to share positive events with their subordinates and colleagues in leisurehours (such as at breakfast, lunch, high tea and dinner) during working hours. In addition to this, showing video clips about success stories of employees and recreational activities in reception and cafeteria (acts as sharing positive events) that enhance the positive emotions within employees that ultimately facilitate individual personal effectiveness.

This study also recommended checking the emotional maturity and locus of control level (before-after) training sessions and also emphasizes on organizational communication through personalized emails and bulletin boards that supports in effectively clarifying queries

and other work-related problems, this leads to sense of security and better protégé and mentor relationship that enhances the listening ability within employees. Therefore, it would be strongly beneficial to hire the workforce that retains emotional maturity and internal locus of control; as it supports better sharing of positive events and satisfy the necessity for all those who involve in self-disclosure; this lead to better interpersonal relationship, sharing pleasing relations and effective learning experiences, which in turn enhance individual personal effectiveness. The study also suggested establishing thinking rooms in organization that supports in building mental cooperation between employees concerning innovation, creativity and group creative strategies.

6.4 Limitations

Like any other research study, this study has some limitations.

1.   The data in the study were collected using self-report measures. Thus, there is a possible threat of recall bias and responses. However, in this study, only standardised instruments are employed intending to avoid the risk of variance, and at the same time, the findings and implications have been drawn in light of the relevant literature.

2.   As in the present study, data were collected from junior, middle and senior levels employees in India, in spite of this, the sample reported very less number of women in the study. This is because women participation in the paid workforce is comparatively less in India than in Western countries. On similar lines, previous studies have witnessed the similar challenges concerning gender ratio in their samples (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). This result in a dominant number of males' respondents in the study; thus the generalization of such findings is not possible for the whole population.

3.   The current research study has focused on the demographic profile (only on age, gender and hierarchical level) to established the relation with study variables. There may be a possibility that other demographic variables (such as educational qualification and type of organizations) may also have a certain influence on variables under study.

6.5 Future research directions

1.   The present study was employing self-reported measures. Therefore, the common method bias was also examined in the study and the results confirmed that common method biased was not an issue in the current study. Future research studies could focus on the use of ethnographic observation, daily diary study, interviews and focus groups.

2.   The study reported the fact that there is the dominant number of males' respondents; thus the generalization of such findings is not possible for the whole population. This study

suggested to take into consideration the equal representation from both gender (males and females) concerning their perception about variables under study, this in turn to better conclusion can be drawn on gender differences in future research studies.

3. Future research studies could focus on longitudinal research design, as present study employing cross-sectional survey-based research design.

4. The future researcher can also focus on the scale development and validation for measuring locus of control more specifically in the Indian context as no scale has been developed so far in measuring the employee locus of control in the Indian context.

5. This study has opened new avenues for future research; this study investigated the relationship between study variables through the perspective of micro-level factors such as self-esteem, sharing positive events, cultivating positive emotions, self-efficacy, self-monitoring and the intrinsic motivators may further be observed as underlying mechanisms establishing the relationship between emotional maturity, personal effectiveness and locus of control. Future research directions should majorly focus on exploring the role of micro-level factors in different cultural context.

6. Another important consideration for future research studies can be the inclusion of potential mediator or moderator between emotional maturity - personal effectiveness -locus of control more specifically in different cultural context.

7. It is worth taking to find out the differences in the firm productivity between the organizations with the employee having the emotional maturity or without having emotional maturity. Future research studies should be focused on other demographic variables (such as educational qualification and type of organizations) may also have a certain impact on variables under study.

6.6 Chapter summary

The sixth chapter is acquaintance with conclusion, implication, limitation and future research direction that drew from the research findings. The research concluded that however some of the independent dimensions of emotional maturity and locus of control might not have influenced the dependent dimensions of personal effectiveness although, the overall perception of emotional maturity and locus of control was supportive and helpful in impacting the employees' personal effectiveness. This mechanism could also possibly support the competitive advantage for the organizations over others.

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ANNEXURE-1

Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee

Department of Management Studies

Dear Participants

Greetings!

Personal effectiveness has always been a crucial challenge facing the organizations across the globe. Emotional maturity and locus of control are one of the recent trends that organizations adopt to enhance employee personal effectiveness. In this study, researchers aim to examine the influence of emotional maturity and locus of control on employee personal effectiveness.

In this direction the attached research instrument is a tool that helps us to advance understanding on the proposed relationship. Your response will add value to our research as well as to the literature. We therefore request your response to the survey. Your response will enhance the reliability of the findings of this research. We therefore request your response to the survey. Further, respondents were asked to not disclose their name so as to prevent any extra critical behaviour. Thus, the identities of respondents and anonymity of responses assured. The questionnaires were collected in person immediately after the respondents filled them.

Thank you in anticipation, for your helpful response.

Yours Sincerely

Nagendra Singh Nehra   Prof. (Dr.) Santosh Rangnekar

(Research Scholar)   Professor

Department of Management Studies   Department of Management Studies

Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee   Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee

Roorkee-247667, Uttarakhand, India   Roorkee-247667, Uttarakhand, India

PART – A

1. Name (Optional)..
2. Name of the Organization...................................
3. Age 21-25.......36-30......31-35........36-40............41-45........... above 45...............
4. Gender Male..............Female.................
5. Hierarchy Level Junior level...............Middle level...............Senior level...............
6. Type of Organization Public...................... Private.........................
7. Experience 0-5 years........6-10 years........11-15 years.........16-20 years........above 20 years.......
8. Educational qualificationDiploma............UG...............PG...........Ph.D.........others......
9. State of Belongingness.................................
10. My Email-ID (Optional)...............................
11. My Contact No (Optional)...........................

Emotional Maturity

Please respond to the following items as per their rating. Mark (√) for each statement, decide how agree or disagree you feel about the following statements.

Emotional Stability

1. Are you involved in mental botheration?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided 4- Much   5- Very Much

2. Do you get frightened about the coming situations?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided 4- Much   5- Very Much

3. Do you stop in the middle of any work before reaching the goal?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided 4- Much   5- Very Much

4. Do you take the help of other persons to complete your personal work?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided 4- Much   5- Very Much

5. Is there any difference between your desires and objectives?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided 4- Much   5- Very Much

6. Do you feel within yourself that you are short-tempered?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided 4- Much   5- Very Much

7. Do you feel that you are very stubborn?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided 4- Much   5- Very Much

8. Do you feel jealous of other people?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

9. Do you get wild due to anger?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

10. Do you get lost in imaginations and day dream?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

Social Adjustment

1. Do you have a strained companionship with your friends and colleagues?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

2. Do you hate others?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

3. Do you praise yourself?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

4. Do you avoid joining in social gathering?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

5. Do you spend much of your time for your own sake?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

6. Do you lie?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

7. Do you bluff?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

8. Do you like very much to be alone?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

9. Are you proud by nature?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

10. Do you shrunk from work?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

Personality Integration

1. Even though you know some work, do you pretend as if you do not know it?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

2. Even if you do not know about some work, do you pose as if you know it?

1- Never 2- Probably 3- Undecided 4- Much 5- Very Much

3. Having known that you are at fault, instead of accepting it, do you try to establish that you are right?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

4. Do you suffer from any kind of fear?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

5. Do you loose your mental balance?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

6. Are you in the habit of stealing of any thing?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

7. Do you indulge freely without bothering about moral codes of conduct?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

8. Are you pessimistic towards life?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

9. Do you have a weak will? (Self will and determination)

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

10. Are you intolerant about the views of others?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

Emotional Progression

1. If you fail to achieve your goal, do you feel inferior?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

2. Do you experience a sense of discomfort and lack of peace of mind?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

3. Do you teasing against the others?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

4. Do you try to put the blame on others for your lapses?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

5. When you do not agree with others, do you starts quarrelling with them?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

6. Do you feel yourself as exhausted?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

7. Is your behaviour more aggressive than your friends and others?

   1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

8. Do you get lost in the world of imaginations?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

9. Do you feel that you are self centred?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

10. Do you feel that you are dissatisfied with yourself?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

Independence

1. Do people consider you as undependable?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

2. Do people disagree with your views?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

3. Would you like to be a follower?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

4. Do you disagree with the opinions of your group?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

5. Do people think of you as an irresponsible person?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

6. Don't you evince interest in others work?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

7. Do people hesitate to take your help in any work?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

8. Do you given more importance to your work than others work?

1- Never   2- Probably   3- Undecided   4- Much   5- Very Much

Locus of Control

Please respond to the following items as per their rating. Mark (√) for each statement, decide how agree or disagree you feel about the following statements.

Internal Locus of Control

1. A job is what you make of it

1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish

1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you

1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

5. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the efforts

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

6. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

7. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

8. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

External Locus of Control

9. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

10. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

11. In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

12. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

13. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

14. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

15. It takes a lot of luck to be outstanding employees on most jobs

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

16. The main difference between peoples who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

Personal Effectiveness

Please respond to the following items as per their rating. Mark (√) for each statement, decide how agree or disagree you feel about the following statements.

Self-disclosure

1. I don't find it difficult to be frank with people unless i know them very well

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

2. I express my opinion in a group or to a person without hesitations

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

3. Generally, I don't hesitate to express my feeling to others

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

4. When someone discusses his problems, I spontaneously share my experience and personal problems, of a similar nature with him

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

5. I enjoy talking with others about my personal concerns and matters

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

Openness to feedback

1. I listen carefully to others opinion about my behaviour

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

2. When someone directly tells me how he feels about my behaviour, I tend to close up and stop listening

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

3. I take steps to find out how my behaviour has been perceived by the person with whom i have been interacting

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

4. If someone criticises me, i hear him at that time but do not bother myself about it later

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

5. I value what people have to say about my style, behaviour etc

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

Perceptiveness

1. I tend to say things that turn out to be out of place

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

2. On hindsight, i regret why i said something tactlessly

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

3. I deliberately observe how a person will take what i am going to tell him, and accordingly communicate to him

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

4. I fail to pick up cues about others feeling and reactions when i am involved in an argument or a conversation

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree

5. I am often surprised to discover (or told) that people were put off, bored or annoyed when I thought they were enjoying interacting with me

   1- Strongly disagree   2- Disagree   3- Neutral   4- Agree   5- Strongly agree