

The role of trait emotional intelligence (EI) in the workplace

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Είμαι σίγουρη ότι τώρα χαμογελάς κάτω από τα μουστάκια σου!

Σου χρωστάω τα πάντα και σε ευχαριστώ!

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Abstract

This thesis applies the concept of trait EI within the context of a theoretical framework of emotions (covering e.g. behaviour, personality and decisions) by analysing its relationship with employees' job-related feelings (Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Motivation), emotion-related behaviour (Decision-Making, Counterproductivity in work behaviour), and emotion-related personality traits (e.g. Competitiveness, Perfectionist, Socialised Leadership Traits). With regard to the definition of trait EI, Petrides and Furnham (2001) have proposed that individuals differ in the extent to which they attend to, process and utilise affect-laden information. Its investigation should therefore be primarily conducted within a personality framework, measured using self-report questionnaires. The data used in this thesis were gathered from questionnaires and 360° feedback assessments distributed in various sectors in the UK and Ireland, and analysed using correlation and regression techniques. Chapter 3 (Study 1 and 2) and 5 (Study 5) confirmed that trait EI's investigation should be primarily conducted within a personality framework, since strong relationships were found between trait EI and emotion-related personality traits. The findings of Chapter 4 (Study 3) and Chapter 5 (Study 5) revealed that trait EI is positively related to employees' job-related feelings (e.g. Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Emotional Motivation). From the perspective of emotion-related behaviour, Chapter 4 (Study 4) showed that a person with low trait EI is more likely to exhibit deviant behaviour, such as absence and aggressiveness. Chapter 6 (Study 6) showed that positive emotionality such as well-being and emotional awareness clearly influences decision making. Overall comparisons between high and low trait EI scorers were also investigated and the results were in

line with the theoretical framework of emotions, in terms of negative vs. positive emotionality. In the present thesis, trait EI seems to be broadly consistent with the neuropsychological theories where emotions, dispositions and feelings are presented as biological brain functions, linked to behaviour, personality and decisions.

1. Chapter 1: Literature Review

1.1. Introduction

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the increasingly popular role of emotional intelligence (EI) in the workplace. The ultimate aim of this work is to develop a theoretical foundation and empirical framework within which EI can be related to employees' perceptions with respect to their job satisfaction, organisational commitment, financial decisions and counterproductivity work behaviour.

EI was chosen to be examined in relation to emotional and behavioural work-related variables for the reason that EI is concerned with emotion-related self-perceptions. Armed with the belief that emotions serve to motivate, shape personalities direct and activate social behaviours, it could be assumed that EI would predict employees' behaviour, attitudes and feelings about their jobs. In particular, it is hypothesised that EI will be strongly associated with emotion and social job-related factors; this is due to the fact that the theoretical foundation of this thesis is that emotions play a vital role in our lives as they influence behaviour, perceptions and decisions. Emotion-related perceptions are essential to predict people's behaviours and attitudes. This thesis develops the hypotheses that emotional awareness, well-being and emotional personality traits are linked with employees' job-related feelings (e.g. job satisfaction, affective job commitment, job motivational needs), with emotion-related job behaviour (e.g. risk-taking decision-making, counterproductive job behaviour and leadership effectiveness) and with job-related personality traits (personalised leadership traits, socialised leadership traits, conscientiousness etc.). In particular, it is hypothesised that people with high well-being, emotionality, sociability and emotion control scores will experience higher levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, be charismatic leaders and make the right

job-related decisions. This thesis has an innovative approach in that it is based on employees' emotion-related self-perceptions and their impact on their job-related behaviour and attitudes rather than on employees' abilities or on their skills.

In order to achieve the goals of this thesis, surveys were conducted across various sectors. The primary need for such evidence is essential, especially in view of the notion that people's emotionality plays an important role in determining their work-related behaviour. The most important issue in the field of EI was that it lacked theoretical justification, which led to a methodological confusion through the use of two different approaches and by underestimating the emotional component of EI. EI started to lose its appeal, as researchers used it as an ability measurement. Attempts to examine the relationship between EI and performance have failed because EI is not an ability measurement but it is an emotion-related self-perception that can be used as an instrument to assess people's emotion-related behaviour, personality and self-perceptions. EI indicates the amount of well-being which determines the quality of social relationships and personal psychological motivational needs.

Chapter 1 serves to summarise, evaluate and integrate previous theoretical work in the field of EI, as well as scrutinise the available empirical evidence. In recent years, there has been a proliferation of publications pertaining to EI as two different constructs (e.g. ability EI vs. trait EI). The most important issue in the field of EI was that it lacked theoretical justification, which led to a methodological confusion through the use of two different approaches and by underestimating the emotional component of EI. EI started to lose its appeal, as researchers used it as an ability measurement. Attempts to examine the relationship between EI and performance have failed because EI is not an ability measurement but it is an emotion-related self-

perception that can be used as an instrument to assess people's emotion-related behaviour, personality and self-perceptions. EI indicates the amount of well-being which determines the quality of social relationships and personal psychological motivational needs. Chapter 1 focuses on the differences between these two types of EI and their weaknesses. It then goes on to develop a theoretical framework of self-assessed EI (trait EI) and to conduct an in-depth discussion of the salient approaches of it.

Chapter 2 gives the conclusions of the literature review and sets out the aims and direction for the rest of the thesis. Chapter 3 (study 1 and Study 2) is important because it focuses on the psychometric evaluation of the most popular self-report EI (EQ-i) and its relationship with its theoretical framework. The third chapter also contains an empirical investigation which is concerned with the relationship between self-assessed EI and leadership effectiveness.

Chapter 4 (Study 3 and Study 4) is primarily focused on the aims of the present thesis, which examines the relationship between EI and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and counterproductive behaviour. In this chapter, the relationship between EI with job satisfaction and job commitment among three industries are examined.

Chapter 5 (Study 5) builds on this investigation and more specifically it completes the effort to show that self-report EI is strongly correlated with job-related feelings (job satisfaction factors and job-related motivational needs). Furthermore, this chapter shows that EI is related to key work-related personality traits. Chapter 6 (Study 6) focuses on the role of EI in financial decision-making, and in particular on the differences between bankers and non-bankers in terms of their self-report EI and financial decisions

1.2. Origins and Background of Emotional Intelligence (EI)

According to EI theorists (Bar-On, 1997, Goleman, 1998, Petrides & Furnham, 2001, Salovey & Mayer, 1990) the distant roots of EI are traced back to Thorndike's (1920) early work on Social Intelligence (SI). Thorndike (1920) used the term SI to describe the importance of skills in understanding and managing other people. More specifically, Thorndike (1920) coined the term SI to refer to the ability to understand people, manage people and act wisely in human relations. He proposed two different types of SI: the first was to 'understand people' and the second was 'wise social action' or 'behavioural effectiveness'.

However, while Thorndike (1920) promulgated the idea as a single concept, recently psychologists have appreciated its complexity and described it in terms of multiple competencies (Bar-On, 1997, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Many EI researchers agreed that SI is comprised of two basic components: being aware of other people's needs and concerns and adapting to the immediate environmental/social situation (Ford & Keating, 1978; Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Thorndike, 1920; Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor & Mumford, 1991). The above theoretical consideration of SI can be interpreted to refer to individuals' competencies in being aware of, adapting, acting in and understanding in the broadest terms, their work and personal life.

A great deal of attention has been given to the measurement of SI. There have been many discussions as to whether SI is only a single function of a general intelligence or whether SI might be defined as a distinct function, independent of general intelligence. A series of scientific studies have been conducted in order to separate SI from general intelligence (g). However, attempts to develop a validated SI

instrument have failed, mainly because definitions of SI vary somewhat from researcher to researcher.

Initially, SI instruments were designed to assess social-cognitive abilities rather than an individual's social personality traits (Walker & Foley, 1973). This distinction in the theoretical conceptualisation of SI resulted in analyses focussing on the distinction between cognitive and behavioural aspects of SI (Ford & Tisak, 1983; Keating, 1978). Keating (1978) measured 'the understanding people' aspect of SI with a battery of instruments including defining issues tests and social insight. Keating (1978) conducted a factor analysis which resulted in the production of two factors, each of which consisted of a mix of the two types of intelligence tests. Further, Keating (1978) found that the three measures of abstract intelligence were stronger predictors of Gough's (1966) social maturity index than the SI task-based instruments.

In contrast to Keating's (1978) results, Ford and Tisak (1983) found that the measures of SI and academic intelligence loaded on different factors. They attributed these results to the selection of SI measures according to the criterion of behavioural effectiveness, rather than the criterion of understanding other(s). They also attributed these results to the use of self report rather than task based tests. Furthermore, Ford and Tisak (1983) found that SI was a better predictor on the behavioural instruments of social effectiveness than general intelligence (g) was. Similar findings were obtained by Brown and Anthony (1990) who assembled a battery of personality measurements ostensibly tapping various aspects of social behaviour.

It is worthy of note that there is a clear distinction between social cognitive abilities and behavioural effectiveness of SI. Task-based SI assessments are unable to fully explain and assess behavioural aspects of SI. In addition, it should be noted that the concept of behavioural SI effectiveness was first proposed by Wechsler in 1940.

Wechsler (1940) argued that SI is not a factor of general intelligence (g), but taps more personality, than cognitive, aspects (Derksen, Kramer & Katzko, 2002).

The proximal roots of EI lie also in the theory of Multiple Intelligence (MI) (Gardner, 1983), and more specifically in the factors of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. In particular, the theory of MI claims that each individual possesses a number of distinct forms of intelligence in varying degrees. Gardner (1983) proposed seven primary forms of intelligence: linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, body-kinaesthetic, intrapersonal (e.g., insight, meta-cognition) and interpersonal (social skills). Intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence are mostly associated with social capabilities. In particular, intrapersonal intelligence entails the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations. Intrapersonal intelligence is concerned with the affective working model of ourselves, and the ability to use such information to regulate our lives. Interpersonal intelligence is concerned with the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people, and to work effectively with others. Educators, salespeople, and political leaders, all tend to benefit from well-developed interpersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983).

However, there is no empirical evidence to support the consideration of MI as a useful and meaningful psychological construct. MI cannot be perceived as a validated and meaningful construct as it does not comprise testable and defined components (Waterhouse, 2006). According to Allix (2000) and Fuller (2004), a construct without defined components cannot be tested for validity. Indeed, Gardner (2004) claimed that there are no testable components for MI. Gardner's failure to define testable components can be attributed to his use of intelligence tests to assess emotional and social personality traits. More specifically, the definition of MI tended

to be too broad; thereby blending into personality and intelligence, and failing to capture the essence of the construct.

Based on the literature of SI and MI, it can be seen that attempts to use intelligence tests (task-based tests) to measure social and emotion-related variables have failed. Task-based tests are appropriate tools to assess general intelligence and skills but not emotion and social-related personality traits for adults. This distinction is paralleled in the two forms of EI that have developed from these constructs.

1.3. Emotional Intelligence (EI) - A Summary

The most recent development in emotion literature is the notion of Emotional Intelligence (EI). As a result of the growing acknowledgement by practitioners of the importance of emotions in the workplace (Feldman-Barrett & Salovey, 2002), research on the topic continually gained momentum. Yet it was not until the publication of Goleman's (1995, 1998) best-sellers 'Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ' and 'Working with Emotional Intelligence' that the term EI was popularized. Thereafter, articles on EI began to appear with increasing frequency across a wide range of academic topics.

EI was initially defined as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.189). Similarly, Bar-On (1997) described EI as an array of non-cognitive (emotional and social) capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. However, Bar-On (1997), Goleman (1998), Salovey and Mayer (1990) developed similar definitions and theoretical frameworks to define EI but they developed different models to assess it.

The definitions of EI as attempt to capture similar notions to MI and SI, which has resulted in them being similarly diverse and difficult to 'pin down'. Specifically, EI encompasses variables from established trait taxonomies such as empathy and flexibility which are not amenable to task-based assessments. As emotions and motivations for behaviour can only be fully 'known' to the person experiencing those emotions, it is not theoretically robust to apply objective scoring in their assessment. Salovey and Mayer (1990) attempted to define EI as a set of cognitive abilities and to address mechanisms related to thinking about emotions. However, there have been similar attempts in the past from Thorndike (1920), Keating (1978) and Gardner (1983, 1999) who attempted to assess similar constructs - but their efforts all failed. Attempts to measure personality traits and emotional and behavioural tendencies met with difficulties when attempting to develop items with objective responses.

Objective measures (task-based tests) are assessments of performance designed to assess problem solving abilities, reasoning and intelligence. This is a fundamental distinction between cognitive tests and psychometric measures of personality, which was ignored by SI, MI and early EI theorists. EI's theoretical conceptualisation is focused on people's emotional perception and not on their knowledge of emotions. Assessing emotion-related individual differences with cognitive tests or the reverse is theoretically wrong. It is theoretically incorrect if one attempts to assess cognitive skills by self-report measures. In fact, self-report measures provide subjective information about people's perception and are not meant to assess people's problem solving ability. Cognitive ability must be tested by tasks. Salovey and Mayer (1990), Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995) agreed that EI is a kind of interplay between emotions and cognitive skills, and attempted to assess this interplay with self-report measures. Their attempts also met with limited success as

their measurements naturally could not account for the emotional ‘understanding’ element still included in EI.

Petrides and Furnham (2000) were first to spot the theoretical and operational weaknesses of EI and applied the manifest distinction of typical and maximal performance to the EI model. Petrides and Furnham (2000) proposed that there are two EI models: the ability EI model and trait EI model. The ability EI model is operationalised through cognitive tests, and trait EI through self-report questionnaires. They suggested (2001) that “self-report measurement of EI leads to the operationalization of the construct as a personality trait and behavioural dispositions, whereas maximum-performance measurement leads to the operationalization of the construct as a cognitive ability” (p. 426). Opposed to the ability-based model, which refers to individuals’ abilities and skills, Petrides and Furnham (2000) claimed that trait EI is not a set of competencies but that it refers to individuals’ emotion-related self-perceptions which are located at the lower levels of personality. In other words, trait EI encompasses behavioural dispositions and emotion-related personality characteristics such as emotional awareness and emotional well-being. Specifically, trait EI measures the following 15 facets.

Table 1.1. The Adult Sampling Domain of Trait Emotional Intelligence

Facets	High scorers perceive themselves as...
Adaptability	...flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions
Assertiveness	...forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights
Emotion perception (self and others)	...clear about their own and other people’s feelings
Emotion expression	...capable of communicating their feelings to others
Emotion management (others)	...capable of influencing other people’s feelings
Emotion regulation	...capable of controlling their emotions

Impulsiveness (low)	...reflective and less likely to give in to their urges
Relationships	...capable of having fulfilling personal relationships
Self-esteem	...successful and self-confident
Self-motivation	...driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity
Social awareness	...accomplished networkers with excellent social skills
Stress management	...capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress
Trait empathy	...capable of taking someone else's perspective
Trait happiness	...cheerful and satisfied with their lives
Trait optimism	...confident and likely to "look on the bright side" of life.

However, at this point it is important to point out that the two different measurements of these two models is not the most important difference between them. The different measurements are a reflection of their different concepts: ability EI measures emotional skills and abilities as they manifest themselves in behaviour and are therefore open to objective measurement; trait EI measures emotional perceptions as they are experienced by the subject, which by their nature can only be measured through self-report. Ability EI theory is conceptually distinct from personality traits, dispositions and emotion-related tendencies and describes the human capacity to reason about emotions (Brinol, Petty & Rucker, 2006). However, both EI models (trait EI and ability EI) share the same concepts of emotional and social functioning in human behaviour. Nevertheless, trait EI focuses on emotional and social behaviour and ability EI focuses on the ability to understand emotions.

1.4. Ability EI and its Measurements

In this section, the nature of ability EI, as well as the measurement instruments developed to study it, are described. According to Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000),

the concept of ability EI involves the ability to reason with, and about, emotions. In other words, they try to address the interconnection of cognitive intelligence and emotions. Their thinking about ability EI was influenced by the theory of MI (Gardner, 1983), in which the individual's cognitive intelligence operates on social, intra – interpersonal intelligence and emotional information processing. Mayer and Salovey's (1997) theory of EI was focused on the role of intelligence and mental abilities in emotional and social functioning, while reasoning - cognition - intelligence and emotions – dispositions have been considered in opposition by Damasio (1995). The theoretical conceptualisation of ability EI raises the question of how to integrate emotions and cognitive abilities.

The proponents (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) of the ability EI approach developed two performance tests to assess ability EI; the first is known as a Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS, Mayer, et al., 1999). The second ability EI test is called Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Scale (MSCEIT, 2002, see Figure 1.1) and this is an updated version of MEIS with more reliable and better-normed scales (Lopes, Salovey & Straus, 2003). Both of these tests (MEIS and MSCEIT) were developed within a cognitive intelligence scale tradition. More specifically, the ability model of EI focuses on an individual's ability to recognize feelings and emotions. The formal definition of ability EI refers to “the abilities to perceive, appraise and express emotions, to access and/ or generate feelings when they facilitate thought, to understand emotion and emotional knowledge, and to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.10). Their model comprises four dimensions. The first dimension is called *Identifying Emotions*, which involves a number of skills, such as identifying others' feelings and emotional expressions, and the ability to differentiate the real and the

counterfeit. Several qualities commonly attributed to identifying emotions such as emotional regulation and awareness, or empathy are excluded.

According to Mayer, et al.'s (1999) definition, this dimension is a learned ability and is restricted by individual differences in the structure and function of neurobiological structure of emotions. The main approach of this thesis is based on people's views, feelings and not on learned skills. In addition, EI's definition is concerned with emotion regulation and not with the ability to recognise. Recognising emotions (facial images) is not a newly discovered ability but extends back to different kinds of research such as abnormal psychology. The second dimension is the *Emotional Facilitation of Thought or Using Emotions* and it refers to skills in using emotions as tools to redirect attention to important events. This dimension includes the ability to stimulate emotions to facilitate decision-making and encourage innovation and problem solving. Considering the theoretical framework of emotions and motivational needs, thoughts and reasoning have no place in this process. Moreover, from the theoretical perspective on emotion being adopted by this thesis, which emphasises their neuropsychological distinctness as processes, a focus on reasoning and cognitive processes in relation to emotion fails to capture their central characteristics and it seems unacceptable to use these two contradictory terms together. Theoretically and practically there are no emotional thoughts. It can be also assumed that our thoughts are products of cognitive process and our behaviour is a product of our emotions.

The third dimension is *Understanding Emotions* and it is concerned with skills involved in understanding the causes and effects of emotions. The last dimension is *Managing Emotions* which explores the individual's ability to cope with others' emotions, even with those that are unpleasant. Emotion management is a part

of coping behaviour. Coping behaviour can be assessed only with self-report assessments because these kinds of assessments help us to understand people's personalities and behaviours and to refrain from judging their behaviour. Using skills tests to assess people's behaviour, seems to imply that people are judged and assessed by their behaviour and opinions.

Branch 1 - Identifying Emotions

Indicate how much of each emotion is present in this picture.



Emotion	<i>Not Much</i>					<i>Very</i>
<i>Happiness</i>	1	2	3	4	5	
<i>Fear</i>	1	2	3	4	5	
<i>Sadness</i>	1	2	3	4	5	
<i>Surprise</i>	1	2	3	4	5	

Branch 2 – Using Emotions

What mood(s) might be helpful to feel when meeting in-laws for the very first time?

Mood	<i>Not Useful</i>					<i>Useful</i>
<i>Tension</i>	1	2	3	4	5	
<i>Surprise</i>	1	2	3	4	5	
<i>Joy</i>	1	2	3	4	5	

Branch 3 - Understanding Emotions

Tom felt anxious, and became a bit stressed when he thought about all the work he needed to do. When his supervisor brought him an additional project, he felt _____. (Select the best choice.)

- a) Overwhelmed
- b) Depressed
- c) Ashamed
- d) Self Conscious
- e) Jittery

Branch 4 - Managing Emotions

1. Debbie had just come back from vacation. She was feeling peaceful and content. How well would each action preserve her mood?

Action 1: She started to make a list of things at home that she needed to do.

Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

Action 2: She began thinking about where and when she would go on her next vacation.

Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

Action 3: She decided it was best to ignore the feeling since it wouldn't last anyway.

Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

Figure 1.1: Ability EI test (MSCEIT).

Mayer et al. (1999, 2002) developed ability EI measures to assess EI as a part of general intelligence. The construct of ability EI places EI in the sphere of cognitive ability in which it is viewed much like abstract intelligence (e.g. the ability to understand and manage ideas and feelings and the ability to solve problems), social intelligence (e.g. the ability to get along with others) and personal intelligence (e.g. the ability to access internal emotional life) (Kihlstrom & Cantor, 2000). In other words, these constructs have not been designed to assess the key principles of emotions such as well-being, emotional awareness, empathy, emotional control, happiness and self-motivation. It can be also argued that the word Emotional in the title of Ability EI is irrelevant with the whole concept of this construct. Furthermore, this construct is mainly focused on people's emotion-related skills or learned emotional capabilities which are not in line with the main approach of this thesis. This present thesis is focused on people's personality, feelings and emotion-related self-perceptions and behaviour. As it can be seen in ability EI construct, none of the dimensions is concerned with people's behaviour, feelings and self-perceptions.

1.5. The Scoring Methods of Ability EI

Both MEIS and MSCEIT are objective tests because they involve only 'good' or 'bad' and 'right' or 'wrong' answers. Mayer et al. (1999) argued that performance tests must be scored either with reference to expert opinion of correct answers and/or by evaluating the answers with respect to the population's consensus which reflects the optimal answer. Regarding the scoring method used for the identification of correct answers in ability EI tests, Mayer et al. (1999) applied both approaches to determine the correctness of the answers; those approaches are called: Consensus scoring and Expert scoring. The general consensus of the participating group was used as the optimal answer to many questions. More specifically, the MSCEIT items were

given to a large, heterogeneous sample. Responses were tallied from the normative sample, and participants were given a 'point' for any 'correct' answer, if their answers matched those provided by the normative sample. In that case, the key scoring of MSCEIT is determined by the normative group, or in other words by the response of a large sample. This form of consensus scoring appears to be vulnerable to an accusation of bias, especially when the smaller group differs from the larger group in a particular item or section of the test. For example, if the small group scores high in one item and gets the score of 1 but the large sample has scored lower and got the score of 0 for the particular item, then the smaller group loses the point and gets the score of 0 too, even if this group is qualified or skilled to identify emotions.

In the Expert scoring method, experts indicate which option or answer is correct. The main challenge for performance-based tests of EI is that of establishing veridical scoring criteria (Bowman, Markham & Roberts, 2002). This method of scoring is problematic when experts disagree, as usually happens in the cases of facial expressions and emotions studies (Fridlund, 1994). Barchard and Russel (2006) claimed that such scoring methods (expert and consensus) had failed to overcome bias in measuring emotions or facial expressions. In fact, these methods do not provide an accurate score of how an individual articulates an emotion-related stimuli as these objective scoring systems are not fully adequate in the sense of that individual's introspective answer. Furthermore, Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews (2001) claimed that the equivalence of two different scoring methods for the same test is problematic. The two methods of scoring the ability EI measure gives general factors that weakly correlated with each other.

Further research (Palmer, Gignac, Manocha & Stough, 2005) with the measure preceding MSCEIT was conducted to examine the level of convergence between the

Expert and the Consensus scoring methods. They examined the relationship between the consensus scores from their sample and the consensus scores from the Mayer et al.'s (2002) standardization data, and the respective relationships with experts' scores (raw data); they showed that the reliability of the MSCEIT dimensions was lower than that reported by Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitarenios (2003). In particular, the reliability of the MSCEIT dimensions varied from $\alpha = .86$ for the pictures scales to $\alpha = .48$ for the facilitation, sensations and management scales.

Furthermore, the reliability coefficients of the experts' scores were lower than the consensus scores. Particularly, they were below .70 for the facilitation, sensations and management factors. Regarding the correlations between the two scoring methods, empirical findings revealed that the consensus scoring was higher than the expert scoring in Palmer et al.'s study, where Mayer et al. (2003) reported a higher degree of convergence amongst the expert group. The findings of Palmer et al.'s (2005) study provided further evidence that the expert scoring method proves superior to the general consensus only in respect to Perceiving and Understanding emotions. Generally, the results from Palmer et al.'s study replicated those found by Mayer et al. in terms of consensus and expert scoring. However, Palmer et al. (2005) argued that the factor structure of the MSCEIT does not appear to reflect the four-factor model that has been postulated by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and has ostensibly been demonstrated empirically by Mayer et al. (2003).

Regarding the limitations associated with intelligence scale or task-based ability indicators, several researchers (Roberts et al., 2001; Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2004) argued that with the ability-based model of assessment it appears to be difficult to promote accurate scoring procedures in order to objectively determine correct and incorrect responses and to provide truly veridical criteria in scoring the

tasks of ability EI. For example, the people who have low ability to recognize or/ and judge emotions, when considering facial expressions, are 'less correct' than others. MSCEIT items and their response scales are presented in Figure 1.1. However, the scoring procedure and the assessment method (performance assessment) of ability EI construct are incongruous since part of ability EI domain is based on emotion-related aspects and personal relationships, neither of which aspects of ability EI can be measured on performance-based tests.

In general, there is much evidence to support the idea that task-based assessments are not well suited to evaluating how people experience emotions or enjoy socialising with other people. The evidence begs the question whether ability EI can be measured using task-based assessments and expert and consensus scoring methods. These scoring methods have been developed and implemented to assess overall brain efficiency, including mental skills, attention, and working memory. Emotion is the personal experience of a feeling that cannot be observed or measured by task-based instruments. Intelligence is a brain process that is correlated with intellectual performance and is not directly related to emotions.

In this section, it is clear that the scoring system used to assess ability EI seems to be problematic in terms of accuracy. In fact, ability EI measures do not seem to assess what they are supposed to assess. The ability EI model encompasses emotion-related factors such as emotion management and emotion perception which are psychometrically well-defined factors and are less amenable to such techniques. As it has been discussed earlier in SI, all the attempts to assess emotions with the same techniques used to assess intelligence failed. Most aspects of emotional-perceptions can be assessed only in a subjective way (self-report), because continued

difficulties in justifying the accuracy of objective scoring for emotional and behavioural factors were anticipated.

1.6. The Reliability of Ability EI

Considering the limitations of the methods that have been employed to determine the correctness of the answers in the MSCEIT and MEIS tests, several researchers argued that the performance scale of ability EI showed poor reliability, and went on to state that possible improvements would require complicated and arduous work (Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 1998). Furthermore, Roberts et al. (2001) acknowledged that “the reliability of the subtests that form the highest branches of the model, and thus probably the most important components of the MEIS is among the worst in the battery” (p. 224).

Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi (2000) conducted a study, in order to shed light on the above criticisms, by examining the reliability and the factor structure of MEIS test. The results revealed that the general reliability of MEIS was not similar to those obtained by Mayer et al. (1999). In particular, the reliability scores reported by Ciarrochi et al. (2000) was $a = .61$ and Mayer et al. (1999) reported that MEIS's reliability was .76. The Principal Component Analysis showed that all tasks of MEIS were loaded on the first factor, called 'general EI' (Mayer et al., 1999). The second factor was not as clear as the first one, and it was labelled 'Perceiving, Understanding and Managing Emotions' and the tasks of Emotional Identification shifted under 'Managing and Understanding emotions' factors (see Table 1). In another study Mayer et al. (2003) reported split half reliabilities of .93 to .91 for both scoring methods (e.g. expert and consensus). The four branched scores of Perceiving, Facilitating, Understanding, and Managing ranged from .76 to .91 for both types of reliabilities (see Table 1.2). However scored, reliability at the total scale and area

levels was excellent. Reliability at the branch level was very good, compared with the MEIS; reliabilities were higher overall at the task level (e.g., Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 1999) but were lower than those revealed by Bradberry and Su's (2006). In Bradberry and Su's study (2006) the reliability of the individual tasks ranged from .48 to .65. The reliability of MSCEIT relies on whether a general or expert scoring criterion is used. That is because reliability analyses are based on individual's scored responses at the item level, and scores at the item level vary depending on whether responses are compared against the general or the expert criterion.

Table 1.2. MSCEIT Reliability

MSCEIT	Bradberry & Su (2006)	Mayer et al (2003)	Ciarrochi et al. 2000	Mayer et al. 1999
1. Perceiving Emotion	.64	.93 / .91*		
Faces			.82	.89
Design			.88	.90
Stories			.76	.85
2. Facilitate Thought	.65	.79 / .76		
Synesthesia			.59	.86
Feeling biases			.67	.70
3. Understanding emotion	.60	.80 / .77		
Blends			.35	.49
Progressions			.46	.51
Transitions			.52	.94
Relativity			.66	.78
4. Management emotions	.48	.83 / .81		
Managing others			.55	.72
Managing self			.43	.70
Unweighten			.61	.76
average				

**Expert scores.*

With regard to the internal consistency reliability, coefficients for the composite MSCEIT test, as indexed by Cronbach's alpha, were generally acceptable

for all branches. However, the branch of Understanding Emotions appeared the least reliable branch and further test development may be required. Moreover, the branch of Emotion Perception, and that of Managing Emotions yielded coefficients of .86, the branch of Assimilating Emotions yielded a coefficient of .70, and the branch of Understanding Emotions had the weakest coefficient of .61 (Zeidner, et al., 2005).

1.7. Discriminant Validity of Ability EI

The discriminant validity of ability EI is an important step for its validation in terms of its theoretical conceptualisation. Mayer and Salovey's (1997) tighter focus on the relationship between emotions and thoughts is more closely aligned with the notion of EI as a strict form of intelligence. However, the MSCEIT appears to show insufficient discriminant validity in relation to general intelligence. Several researchers (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz, Sellin & Salovey, 2004; Shulte, Ree & Carretta, 2004; Warwick & Nettlebeck, 2004) found that ability EI measurements were stronger when correlated with general intelligence than with personality traits. However, the relationship between ability EI and intelligence was not sufficiently strong to support its theoretical framework.

Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2002) conducted a study in order to examine the relationship between ability EI, as assessed by MEIS test and personality trait models by using 16PF (Cattell, Cattell & Cattell, 1993) and verbal intelligence as assessed by WAISS vocabulary factor. The findings of this study revealed that the MEIS had a significant moderate correlation with the Verbal Reasoning Ability Scale ($r = .21, p < .01$), which was not a self-report personality scale. The MEIS also was only positively correlated with Sensitivity trait ($r = .22, p < .01$) and with Extraversion ($r = .16, p < .05$). These results may, to some extent, seem contradictory with those reported by Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi (2000). In particular, Ciarrochi, et al., (2000) found that

the global score of MEIS and its factors of Perception, Understanding and Managing were not correlated with general intelligence. However, the global score of MEIS and its factors were correlated with empathy ($r = .43$), extraversion ($r = .26$) and openness to feelings ($r = .24$).

Similar inconsistencies appeared in many other studies when researchers examined the discriminant validity of MSCEIT. With respect to verbal intelligence, MSCEIT factors were modestly correlated with Verbal Reasoning Ability Scale ($r = .23$ to $.39$) (Brackett, Mayer & Warner, 2004). However, in another study, Verbal Reasoning Ability Scale correlated modestly with the Understanding Emotions factor of MSCEIT, but not with any other factor of MSCEIT or with its the global score (Lopes, Salovey & Straus, 2003). In another study, Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz, Sellin and Salovey (2004) found that MSCEIT was not significantly correlated with the big five personality traits, but the factor of MSCEIT of Managing Emotions was significantly correlated with the four of five personality traits (extraversion, introversion, agreeableness and openness to experience). Moreover, the four factors of the MSCEIT did not correlate negatively with neuroticism, as was expected. These results were inconsistent with previous studies (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Lopes, et al, 2003). In particular, Brackett et al. (2003) found that MSCEIT was positively correlated with openness to experience and agreeableness.

By contrast, Lopes, et al. (2003) found that MSCEIT was positively correlated with agreeableness and conscientiousness, and negatively correlated with openness to experience. In addition, only the Understanding Emotions factor was positively correlated with Verbal Intelligence ($r = .39$, $p = .05$). However, it is worth noting that the results of these studies are totally inconsistent with what was being predicted by Mayer et al., (1999; 2002) in the sense that ability EI should be strongly and

consistently related to general intelligence and weakly related to personality.

Considering Mayer, et al.'s (1999, 2002) assumption, it was expected to obtain stronger and consistent correlations between ability EI measures and general intelligence, even if it was concerned with 'verbal' or 'performance' intelligence.

Therefore, as far as the ability EI measures are concerned, the above empirical studies have failed to support the discriminant validity in terms of general intelligence, emotional awareness and social skills. The results of the above-mentioned studies are summarized and presented in Table 1.3.

Another more recent study (Bradberry & Su, 2006) was conducted in order to examine the extent to which ability EI as assessed by MSCEIT is correlated with assessment using the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (a scale using the same theoretical framework, created in 2001 by Goleman). The four-factor taxonomy of the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal is: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. The study looked at the relationship between ability EI and leader job performance in over 200 employees across three different organizations. The results revealed that MSCEIT is not significantly correlated with Emotional Intelligence Appraisal assessment. Interestingly for this thesis, the study also showed that relationship management was a stronger predictor of leader job performance than the other components of Emotional Intelligence Appraisal, indicating that there is a link between some components of EI and performance in the workplace.

Emotional Intelligence Appraisal's theoretical framework contains assumptions about cognitive ability and intelligence and the fact that it even runs contrary to its method of assessment (self-report).

Table 1.3: Discriminant validity of Ability EI

Authors	Participants	Measures	Discriminant Validity
Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, (2000)	134 undergraduate students	Ability EI: MEIS Personality: NEO PI-R, IQ: Raven's Standard Test	MEIS is not related to general Intelligence but it is related to extraversion, openness to experience.
Caruso, Mayer, Salovey (2002)	183 undergraduate students	Ability EI: MEIS Personality: 16PF. IQ: Verbal SAT	MEIS is not associated with Personality traits MEIS is significantly associated with verbal SAT.
Brackett, Mayer & Warner (2003)	330 College students	Ability EI: MSCEIT IQ : Verbal SAT.	MSCEIT is modestly correlated with Verbal SAT score.
Brackett & Mayer, (2003)	207 Caucasian College students	Ability EI: MSCEIT Personality traits: NEO PI-R	MSCEIT was positively correlated with openness to experience and agreeableness
Lopes, Salovey & Straus, (2003)	103 University students	Ability EI: MSCEIT Personality traits: NEO-FFI IQ: WAIS III	MSCEIT was positively correlated with agreeableness and consciousness and negatively correlated with openness to experience. The Understanding Emotions subscale was positively correlated with IQ
Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz Sellin & Salovey (2004)	118 College students	Ability EI: MSCEIT Personality traits: NEO PI-R	Managing Emotions subscale of MSCEIT was significantly correlated with big five traits except conscientiousness
Bradberry & Lu (2006)	212 employees	Ability EI: MSCEIT and Emotional Intelligence Appraisal	MSCEIT was positively correlated but not significantly correlated with Ability EI measure of Emotional Intelligence Appraisal.

1.8. The Incremental Validity of Ability EI

Testing the incremental validity of ability EI is an important step for its validation. Ideally, all the following criteria should be met in order to establish a clear conceptual framework for ability EI. First, to establish a clear conceptual framework for ability EI, the studies cited by ability EI founders should provide an incremental predictive validity over and above standardised measures of intelligence for important socially and emotionally relevant outcomes. If ability EI shows an incremental validity when predicting emotion and social-related criteria, this would support the utility of the construct in addition to or independently of intelligence. Unlike the growing research in EI, the incremental validity of ability EI has not been convincingly proved. The studies presented below are concerned with the incremental validity of ability EI regarding the extent to which ability EI can predict emotion and social-related criteria beyond intelligence and personality traits. The second criterion that needs to be met is that the dependent variable studied should be based on objective indexes and not on self-report measures. To our knowledge, the majority of well-established emotion and social-related measures rely on self-reports measures.

Caruso et al. (2002) examined the relationship between ability and social behaviour and career interests. Social behaviour was assessed through the use of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behaviour questionnaire (FIRO-B; Schutz, 1989) and career interests were assessed through the use of the career decision-making questionnaire (Holland's Self Directed Search, 1990). The participants in this study were undergraduate psychology students. The results showed a moderate negative relationship between ability EI and the enterprising factor (business and leadership

careers). This relationship was not strong enough to support the predictive role of ability EI in business issues. With regard to the association of ability EI to affection and social behaviour, only moderate correlations were obtained indicating that ability EI does not convey information about an individual's social ability and his/ her ability to understand emotions. This is the opposite of the theory of ability EI but is in line with the findings of Lopes et al. (2004) and Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputti (2000).

Lopes et al. (2004) examined the relationship between ability EI and the quality of relationships with friends using the Network of Relationships Inventory, (NRI; Furman & Buhrmester, 1985) that is self-evaluated, and evaluated by two friends of the participants and their social interaction. Their findings revealed that the MSCEIT is not correlated with NRI criteria (negative interaction, emotional support and conflict resolution) and social interaction.

Similarly, Engelberg and Sjoberg (2004) examined the relationship between self-report (SREIT, Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998) and task-based, EI measures (MSCEIT) with their theoretically derived aspects, such as social adjustment and emotional reactivity. Social adjustment was assessed using two sets of assessment: work-life balance (Sjoberg, 2001a) and the UCLA loneliness scale (Russell, 1996). Emotional reactivity was assessed with the Affect Intensity Measure (AIM; Larsen, Diener, & Emmons, 1986). The results showed that self-report EI measure correlates positively with AIM ($r = .19, p < .01$), and social adjustment ($r = .50, p < .01$), whereas ability EI relates only to loneliness ($r = -.14, p < .05$). Specifically, the results clearly revealed the lack of a linkage between ability EI and its theoretically derived basis, such as social behaviour and emotional reactivity. By contrast, the associations

within the theoretically derived basis of self-report EI measures seem to be more reliable and valid than those of ability EI. In short, performance-based scales are not a suitable means of assessing an individual's behavioural and emotional patterns.

The weak linkages between MSCEIT and emotional and social interactions may indicate a wide gap between ability EI (as it is assessed by MSCEIT) and social and emotional functions. It may be safely assumed according to the growing catalogue of evidence, that the operationalisation of ability EI is not linked to its theoretical framework.

However, not unlike the outcomes of the above reported studies, ability EI was examined in relation to other similar emotion-related objective tests. In particular, Roberts, Schulze, O'Brien, MacCann, Reid and Maul (2006) showed that ability EI is not related to established emotion-related objective measures (Index of Vocal Emotion Recognition (Vocal I); and Japanese and Caucasian Brief Affect Recognition Test (JACBART)). Both of these emotion-related assessments are task-based assessments and were designed to assess emotion recognition and they have been widely used for academic purposes. The conceptual foundation of both task-based instruments is identical to the first and third branch of the MSCEIT: Identifying and Understanding Emotions. Both emotion measures used in Roberts, et al.'s (2006) study showed only a small correlation with MSCEIT's factors. Correlations between the total scores of ability EI and other measures were not significant. In addition, the factor analytic results failed to support the formal definition of ability EI as perceiving and understanding emotions. The factorial analysis showed that emotion measures (JACBART and Vocal I) and MSCEIT factors failed to load on the same factor.

Despite the fact that these three measures are virtually identical assessment methods, they do not perform as the same indicators of one factor and they are factorially distinct. In light of these findings, it seems reasonable to call the validity of MSCEIT, in terms of its relationship with established emotion-related measures and tasks, into question. However, to date there is a paucity of research through which to link ability EI to other emotions constructs.

Three main conclusions may be derived from the above mentioned studies. First, the items used to assess ability EI are fundamentally different from objective emotion-related tests. Second, there is no evidence to indicate that ability EI is an important dimension of individual differences. Finally, there is no convincing evidence that ability EI provides incremental predictive validity over and above standardised measures of personality and intelligence for socially and emotionally relevant outcomes.

In brief, despite such interest on the part of ability EI to be measured as skill, previous studies have shown that task-based assessment of EI cannot capture emotion-related information. The empirical evidence seems robust enough to reject the use of the ability EI model in the present thesis. First of all, ability EI measurement does not provide any basis for making interpretations beyond the task context such as emotional perceptions or awareness. Ability EI measurement may elicit performances that depend on abilities or knowledge unrelated to emotional behaviour per se. As it has been said before, this thesis is based on people's perceptions and not on their abilities. My point of view is that self-perceptions and abilities are contradictory terms. All the above studies are presented in Table 1.4 below.

Table 1.4: Incremental validity of Ability EI

Authors	Measures	Discriminant Validity
Caruso, Mayer, Salovey (2002)	Ability EI: MSCEIT Social Behaviour & Affections: FIRO-B Career Dec-Mak: HSDS	MSCEIT is modestly correlated with affections, social behaviour and with career decision making factors.
Engelberg and Sjoberg (2004)	Ability EI: MSCEIT Work-life balance UCLA: loneliness scale AIM: Emotional Reactivity	MSCEIT was moderately correlated with loneliness only. No correlations found between MSCEIT and Emotional reactivity and work-life balance.
Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz Sellin & Salovey (2004)	Ability EI: MSCEIT Relationships – Social interaction: NRI	MSCEIT is not significantly correlated with NRI factors (e.g. Conflict resolution, emotional support and negative social interaction).
Roberts, Schulze, O'Brien, MacCann, Reid and Maul, 2006	Ability EI: MSCEIT JACBART: Brief Affect Recognition Vocal I: Test Index of Vocal Emotion Recognition	MSCEIT did not locate in Affect recognition and Test of Vocal. The factor correlation was not statistically significant.

1.9. Trait Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Petrides and Furnham (2001) claimed that those EI models which are not distinct from personality traits and assessed with self-report measures should be called trait EI

models. As it has been mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the name of any questionnaire should be based on the theory on which it is focused on. Here, what it can be seen is that Petrides and Furnham (2001) labelled the trait EI according to the method of assessment and not on what this theory represents. The word 'trait' in the self-assessed EI model does not change the concept of 'intelligence'; the concept of intelligence remains the same. Subsequently, the self-report assessments developed by Bar-On (1997), Goleman, (2001), Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden and Dornheim, (1998), Petrides and Furnham, (2001) are not supposed to be called trait emotional intelligence because they have not been designed to assess intelligence. They could be called Trait Emotional Response or Behaviour or Perceptions. However, all the criticisms of trait EI are due to definitional issues linked to its limited theoretical connection to the nature of emotions.

The two most popular self-report trait EI measurements developed prior to the distinction between trait EI and ability EI, are: the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i, Bar-On, 1997) and the Self-Report EI test (SREIT, Schutte, et al., 1998).

In general, trait EI has been proposed both as an important addition to the domain of individual differences, and more importantly as a key predictor of positive life qualities such as life-satisfaction (Martinez-Pons, 1997) and happiness (Furnham & Petrides, 2003). There are two principal reasons for the widespread interest in the topic of trait EI. First of all, the theoretical conceptualisation of trait EI is an interesting idea in its own right. Some would argue that the focus on individuals' *self-reported* emotional skills and abilities is an acknowledgement that emotions cannot be measured objectively, and indeed that there is no value in attempting to do so. If a measurement of self-perceived

qualities can give meaningful results that correlate with other, objectively measured qualities, this suggests that self-reported measures are no less valuable to enquiry as those that can be objectively verified. This represents a new direction in research that has not been covered by existing measures of personality, bringing further research activity in the fields of individual differences and behaviour. Second, as it was developed to assess cross situational consistency in behaviour, trait EI is expected to be associated with key characteristics of a successful professional life such as leadership, job satisfaction, commitment and decision-making, (Petrides, Furnham, & Mavroveli, 2007).

In terms of the relationship between individual differences and behaviour, it has been proposed that, by including the situation as perceived by the person, and by analyzing behaviour in its situational context, consistencies that characterize the individual would be found (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004). This assumption fully supports the fundamental assumption of personality theory, namely, that an individual's behaviour and individual personality characteristics are consistent across diverse situations - thus, traits do not always correspond to an individual's behaviour. However, this assumption opens a route to researching the role of emotions in people's behaviour. Personality traits have been criticized as being purely descriptive, offering limited explanations of the underlying causes of behaviour. Systematic research on the process of emotion elicitation and the consequences of emotions for driving people's behaviour has proposed that once a person is in a particular emotional state, he/she is more likely to evaluate upcoming events in line with his/her emotions (Lerner & Keltner, 2000).

Trait EI models encompasses key emotional principles such as emotional awareness, empathy, self-motivation, emotional regulation, happiness and self-motivation

(Bar-On, 1997, Petrides & Furnham, 2001). According to these principles, trait EI model can be located into emotion-related theory as it is described in Section 1.18. All of these principles were mentioned in the description of the biology of emotions. Certainly, this is the theory that needs to be taken into account when building trait EI theoretical framework and understanding people's behaviour, since this theory is linked directly with personality and behaviour.

In conclusion, from the theoretical perspective, trait EI refers to emotion-related personality traits by explaining the expressiveness, regulation and appraisal of emotional behaviour either in oneself or in others. Trait EI as an emotion-related personality trait model should be investigated only within an emotion-related framework. A self-report scale has been identified as the most adequately reliable method to assess personality and emotions at work. In fact, as expected, the self-report measures of trait EI have salient loadings onto personality traits, since emotions refer to the individuals' behavioural preferences and mainly reflect personality 'Traits'. Due to the fact that trait EI belongs to personality traits, it can be measured exclusively using self-report-report scales (Cronbach, 1949).

1.10. Trait EI Weakness

When trait EI first emerged, researchers attempted to develop self-report EI measures that would measure EI at the same level as ability EI models (Bar-On, 1997, Schutte et.al. 1998). However, according to Perez, Petrides and Furnham (2005) trait EI measurements would not be expected to correlate strongly with measures of general intelligence (g), whereas trait EI measurements should be related to personality traits measures. Thus, several EI measurements reach trait EI's criteria but their theoretical

framework addresses principles similar to those addressed for ability EI measurements. A good example of this case is Bar-On's (1997) Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) measurement and Goleman's Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI, Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 1999) and Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (Goleman, 2001). In particular, they believed that their self-report EI measurements were designed to assess an array of abilities that influence an individual's ability to succeed in life and the individual's psychological well being. However, phrases such as abilities or competencies are not amenable to self-report measures.

Such trait EI measurements are broad in scope and focus on both constructs of EI (ability and trait). The main issue with these measurements is that the self-report assessments have little to do with the formal measurement of abilities and the theoretical framework of the trait EI model. Evidence is accumulating that these measurements are not distinct from personality traits, but rather they are distinct from cognitive abilities and general intelligence. In particular, Bar-On's EQ-i measure was strongly correlated with personality traits, ($r_s = .22$ to $.44$), (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2001) and moderately or weakly associated with general intelligence (Bar-On, 2000, Conor & Little, 2003, Newsome, Day & Catano, 2000). Accordingly, such trait EI measures fail to either theoretically or scientifically map onto ability EI theory. This scientific evidence distinguished them from ability models.

Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki (2007) describe trait EI as a "compound personality construct located at the lower levels of the two (commonly used) taxonomies" and find that it can be used to predict personality criteria more accurately than the Big Five: its

failure to map onto ability EI theory does not necessarily undermine its own intrinsic value.

1.11. Trait EI Measurements.

EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997) is the best-known measure of trait EI in business research. The EQ-i measure contains 133 items, 15 scales and 5 factors, namely: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptation, stress management and general mood of EI. Bar-On's model is based on his earlier work on the determinants of psychological well-being. Bar-On's model suffers from limitations such as unreliable factorial structure and vague theoretical framework, resting as it does on the assumption that it is possible to assess an individual's cognitive skills such as problem-solving through self-report. The lack of clarity surrounding the measurement and the theoretical framework of EQ-i, results from the fact that there is no clear theoretical framework besides this model. With respect to anomalies in factorial structure, very attractive labels were chosen for EQ-i's factors, the items that were supposed to assess these factors did not theoretically correspond to them – for example, self-perception items were designed to assess problem solving and reality testing. EQ-i model will be examined empirically in Chapter 2 and its psychometric properties will be scrutinised.

Palmer, Manoch, Gignac and Stough (2003) conducted exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses and found that the factorial structure of the EQ-i measurement encompassed a general factor of EI and six primary factors rather than the five and fifteen respectively. Regarding EQ-i's discriminant validity, the following evidence distinguished EQ-i from ability EI models. Specifically, EQ-i was not significantly correlated with the WAIS (Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale) cognitive

scale, (Palmer, et al. (2003) and with many other task-based measurements such as emotional and non-emotional performance tasks and fluid intelligence (Austin, Saklofske and Egan, 2005). However, when Austin et al. (2005) examined the discriminant validity of EQ-i, they supported Petrides and Furnham's (2001) findings and concluded that trait EI is a lower-order personality factor.

Moreover, Brackett and Mayer (2003) found that SREIT (Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test; Schutte et al, 1998) and EQ-i (Emotional Quotient Inventory; Bar-On, 1997) were consistently found to be positively correlated with extraversion, Openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness and negatively correlated with neuroticism.

In conclusion, the EQ-i is highly correlated with well-established measures of personality. However, Bar-On ignored this empirical evidence, and he kept arguing that EQ-i was designed to measure individuals' abilities and skills. Unsurprisingly, this led to numerous problems, such as several other self-report EI measurements (ECI, EQ-i) being disputed with regard to their incremental and discriminant validity.

As it has been already mentioned in Chapter 1, EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997) is the most widely used self-report measure of EI to date. The EQ-i was designed to assess five composite factors (intra-personal; inter-personal; adaptability; stress management and general mood) and 15 scales (see Table 1.5). However, previous studies (Palmer, Manocha, Gignac & Stough, 2003, Petrides & Furnham, 2001) have identified several anomalies regarding the factorial structure of EQ-i. Indeed, this structure is not clear and neglects important parts of its theoretical foundation (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). In

particular, only one factor was identified by previous studies and this factor was labelled as trait EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Palmer, Manocha, Gignac & Stough, 2003).

Table 1.5: EQ-i – Factors and Scales.

Factors/ Scales	Descriptions of scales:
Intrapersonal	
Emotional self-awareness	Recognise and understand one's feelings.
Assertiveness	Express feelings, beliefs and thoughts and defend one's rights in a non-destructive manner.
Self-regard	Be aware of, understand, accept and respect oneself.
Self-actualisation	Realise one's potential capabilities.
Independence	Be self-directed and self controlled in one's thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency.
Interpersonal	
Empathy	Be aware of, understand and appreciate the feelings of others.
Interpersonal relationship	Characterized by emotional closeness and by giving and receiving affection.
Social responsibility	Establish mutually satisfying relationships that demonstrate oneself to be a co-operative, contributing and constructive member of one's social group.
Adaptation	
Problem solving	Identify and define problems, as well as generate and implement potentially effective solutions.
Reality testing	Assess the correspondence between what is subjectively experienced and what objectively exists.
Flexibility	Adjust one's emotions, thoughts and behaviour to changing situations and conditions.
Stress management	
Stress tolerance	Withstand adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart by actively and positively coping with stress.
Impulse control	Resist or delay an impulse, drive, or temptation to act.
General mood	
Happiness	Feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy one's and other's company and to have fun.
Optimism	Look at the brighter side of life and maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity.
Global EQ-i	

As can be seen, the initial challenge for this research is not to establish EQ-i's factorial structure but to establish its position within EI constructs. The factorial structure of EQ-i is problematic because the factorial design of EQ-i was based on terms that do not exist or cannot be assessed by EQ-i's items such as problem solving. Therefore, the challenge of Study 1 is to examine whether Bar-On's EI measurement (EQ-i) is able to assess what it was meant to assess. It is a challenge because Bar-On (2006) characterised his EI model as a broader form of ability assessment. In other words, Bar-On designed a self-report instrument to assess cognitive abilities such as problem solving, and personality traits like assertiveness using one self-report measurement. Certainly, self-estimate ability measures cannot be considered as accurate intelligence assessments as they are subject to bias.

It is clear that Bar-On's EQ-i measure suffers from limitations as it rests on the assumption that EQ-i is related to general intelligence (Bar-On, 2006). Empirically, EQ-i was only weakly correlated with intelligence, and strongly correlated with personality traits (Bar-On, 2000; Derksen, Kramer & Katzko, 2002). The very low correlation between the measure of EQ-i and general intelligence, allows us to connect EQ-i to the mainstream personality literature, including trait EI. Supporting the prevailing orthodoxy, there is a fundamental difference between EQ-i and general intelligence.

1.12. Discriminant Validity of EQ-i

Petrides and Furnham (2001) claimed that trait EI was focused on behavioural consistency across situations and that it assessed the typical behaviour of people affected by emotions and personality traits. In line with this approach, trait EI is embedded within the personality framework which should exclusively show strong correlations with

personality traits and weak and / or moderate correlation with intelligence (Dawda & Hart, 2000, Derksen, et al., 2002, Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Previous studies empirically showed that the average correlation between the EQ-i and Big Five Personality traits were approximately .44 (Dawda & Hart, 2000) and .22 (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Both studies showed that there was a consistent correlation between EQ-i and neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness. With respect to the other two personality traits, Dawda and Hart (2000) found that EQ-i was negatively correlated with openness, and positively correlated with agreeableness.

On the other hand, Petrides and Furnham (2001) showed that EQ-i was negatively correlated with agreeableness and positively with openness. These consistent strong correlations between EQ-i and personality traits locate EQ-i in the field of trait, and the inconsistencies between the above two studies are due to the lack of clarity in EQ-i's theoretical conceptualization which is a result of its meaningless factors. In particular, EQ-i contains factors such as problem solving and reality testing which are irrelevant to trait EI's theoretical conceptualisation.

Furthermore, EQ-i comprises items that were nearly identical to those used in other standardised personality trait measurements to measure certain scales such as assertiveness, positive emotions feelings such as openness, impulsiveness. These scales also apply to the big five personality facets such as assertiveness, positive emotions from extraversion; impulsiveness and anxiety from neuroticism; feelings from openness; compliance and tender-mindedness from agreeableness and achievement-striving and self-discipline from conscientiousness.

Considering the relationship between EQ-i and general intelligence, Conor and Little (2003) found that EQ-i was not correlated with general intelligence as measured by the ACT college entrance test which was used as an indicator of students' general cognitive ability. This finding is consistent with previous research (Newsome, Day & Catano, 2000) that reported no significant correlations between the factors of EQ-i and general intelligence as assessed by the Wonderlic Personnel test. On the other hand, Baron (2000) claimed that his model, EQ-i, is correlated at a factor of .12 with Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale.

Furthermore, Petrides and Furnham (2001) conducted a study and confirmed that EQ-i was a trait EI measurement. In particular, they showed that trait EI was a distinguishable construct within personality inventories by isolating EQ-i as a distinct personality factor within the Eysenck personality questionnaire and Big Five personality scale.

To sum up the key points of the above mentioned, it is important to highlight that the strong correlation between EQ-i and personality traits certainly raises the question of the distinctiveness of EQ-i from the standardised personality traits. Particularly, some theorists have claimed that there was an overlap between the EQ-i and personality traits, and they wondered if EQ-i is a less useful tool in individual differences research than personality inventories (Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 1998; Newsome et al., 2000). The answer is that there is an overlap between EQ-i and personality measurements because EQ-i is an emotion-related personality trait. Trait EI as assessed with self-reports questionnaires integrate a wide range of emotion-related behavioural characteristics under the umbrella term of personality. More specifically, the role of trait EI in individual

differences research is to assess emotion-related personality traits and emotion-related behavioural tendencies. As it has been mentioned in Chapter 1, trait EI is supposed to exhibit predictive validity beyond the standardised personality traits only when it is related with social and emotion-related criteria or affect-laden criteria. However, EQ-i might not exhibit very strong predictive validity beyond personality traits as it does not contain many emotion-related and personality factors but, in addition, it contains some other irrelevant factors such as reality testing and problem solving. Consequently, EQ-i is not a fully comprehensive trait EI questionnaire.

The founders of the trait EI model, Petrides and Furnham (2001) defined trait EI as a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Their definition is primarily focused on emotion-related personality traits. Therefore, they argue that the trait model assesses trait EI, since it is originally based on behavioural consistency across situations, and assesses the typical behaviour of people affected by emotions and personality traits. Petrides and Furnham (2001) showed that trait EI is a distinguishable, emotion-related perception and lower-order personality factor, since self-report EI models are highly associated with personality traits.

It is important to point out that they are the only ones who promoted EI as an emotion-related trait and not as a skill or ability. Based on their broad definition of trait EI, they developed the '*Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire*', (TEIQue; Petrides & Furnham, 2001, 2003). TEIQue is the only emotion-related EI model which was designed to assess the key emotion-related principles. These emotion-related key principles are: the emotional well-being, emotionality (emotion regulation, awareness and

emotion perception), self-control, self-motivation and sociability which are more commonly used as a trait.

Moreover, Petrides and Furnham (2001) proposed that trait EI is conceptualized as a unique construct at the primary level of trait measurements. The TEIQue measure is well-constructed since it shows a meaningful pattern of convergent validity with many other criteria such as life satisfaction, mood dimension and coping styles.

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) or WLEIS is a self-report measure that was designed for use in industrial and organizational research. The WLEIS encompasses four factors which are: Self-Emotions Appraisal, Regulation of Emotion, Use of Emotion and Others-Emotions Appraisal. The response format of the WLEIS is a 7-point self-report scale. The coefficient alphas for the four dimensions of WLEIS, as presented by Law, Wong and Song (2004) were: .90, .89, .79 and .93, respectively. The findings of this study revealed that EI as assessed by WLEIS is moderately correlated with personality traits. With regard to the incremental validity of WLEIS, Wong and Law (2002) found that scores are positively correlated with employee performance and job satisfaction.

The Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP; Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel & Hooper, 2002), is an inventory designed to profile the trait EI of individuals involved in teamwork. The WEIP consists of seven factors which are: awareness of own emotions, ability to discuss own emotions, ability to recognize others' emotions, ability to detect false displays of emotions, empathetic concern and ability to manage others' emotions. Research with the WEIP inventory suggested that teams with high trait EI tend to perform better in terms of goal-setting and work process than teams with low trait EI.

Nevertheless, the psychometric utility of WEIP as an EI measure is not established as there is not enough empirical evidence whatsoever that links WEIP to work-related variables. Additionally, WEIP is designed exclusively to assess working within a team, whereas my study also considers behaviour leading a team and operating individually in the workplace, meaning that it is too narrow for my purposes.

The Work-place Swiburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (Work-place SUEIT; Palmer, Donaldson & Stough, 2002) is a measure that comprises five trait EI factors: emotional recognition and expression, understanding emotions, emotions' direct cognition, emotional management and emotional control. According to Palmer et al. (2002) this self-report test was developed to correspond with the ability construct. However, a study showed that there were significant correlations between the five dimensions of SUEIT and the five personality traits, ranging from $r = .22$ to $r = .49$ and low to moderate correlations between the dimensions of SUEIT and general intelligence, ranging from $r = .04$ to $r = .22$ (Gannon & Ranzijn, 2005). In conclusion, this test failed to verify its theoretical framework, which referred to the statement that for people to respond emotionally they need mental awareness, appraisal and processing of emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Regarding the incremental validity of SUEIT, the findings showed that EI as assessed by SUEIT accounted for a small amount of unique variance in Life Satisfaction (LS) beyond personality traits, and general intelligence did not relate to LS. It is not clear to me that this test is sufficiently valid, or that it genuinely measures trait EI (as opposed to ability EI); for those reasons it has been chosen not to use it in the present study.

The Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden & Dornheim, 1998) is an instrument which has been designed to assess several different variables in academic, organizational and clinical areas. In general, the SREIT was conceived as a unidimensional self-report questionnaire and its factor structure has been examined by several researchers. According to Petrides and Furnham (2000), Schutte et al. (1998) have overestimated the number of factors and the replication of their findings may be difficult. Similarly, Saklofske, Austin and Minski (2003) performed a four-factor analysis and again not all of the items loaded on the same factors. Regarding these discrepancies between the factor structure, Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) used the SREIT to assess only the global score of trait EI. The findings of this study revealed that SREIT is strongly correlated with the five personality traits and not with general intelligence. With regard to the demographic group differences, such as gender, age and ethnicity, the results showed that women scored slightly higher than men and that trait EI tends to increase with age.

The lack of conceptual clarity which is such a constant feature of most measures of trait EI leads to us to conclude that the TEIQue measurement is the most validated and reliable trait EI assessment that can capture the emotion-related aspects of personality with a clear theoretical framework. Relying on EQ-i, ECI and/ or on SREIT to assess the role trait EI plays in the workplace can be considered a risky option. It is not sufficient to meet academic standards as these widely used self-report measurements EI do not share a large amount of trait EI's core principles, such as capturing emotion-related personality traits. Previous studies on EQ-i and our studies in Chapter 2 pondered the question of what EQ-i is meant to measure: is it well-being which it was initially designed to assess,

emotion-related personality traits or intelligence such as problem solving? Our belief is that emotions are not the principal core of this assessment. However, the SREIT provides a global trait EI score only. Due to this, SREIT can be described as the most suitable method for obtaining the most accurate and detailed results for someone's emotion-related behavioural tendencies.

Considering TEIQue's utility, it encompasses several emotional-related behavioural tendencies and personality traits which appear to be sufficient to assess and predict many emotionally and socially related behavioural tendencies when compared to cognitive tests and standardized personality questionnaires, since these instruments are too narrowly-focused, and have not been designed to assess emotional and social behavioural aspects (e.g. adaptability, self-esteem, etc).

1.13. The Incremental and Content validity of Trait EI

Petrides, Perez-Gonzalez and Furnham, (2007) claimed that the incremental validity of trait EI should be examined only in relation to criteria that are sufficiently affect laden and personality traits in order to establish its theoretical framework as an emotional perception and personality factor.

Petrides, Perez-Gonzalez and Furnham (2007) confirmed their claim by examining the extent to which trait EI is associated with clinical variables and the incremental validity of trait EI over the big five personality traits. They found that trait EI was correlated with life satisfaction, rumination, depression, dysfunctional attitudes and coping styles. Most correlations remained statistically significant when dividing out the big five personality traits. In addition, the results showed that trait EI was a significant negative predictor of depression, coping styles (emotional, avoidance and rational) and a

reliable negative predictor of dysfunctional attitudes even when the big five personality traits were divided out.

Similarly, Mikolaczak, Luminet and Menil (2006) showed that trait EI as assessed by TEIQue was strongly and negatively correlated with mental disorders. Mental disorders were assessed by using the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI, Derogatis & Melisaratos, 1983) which is a self-report assessment and encompasses the following factors: Anxiety, depression, obsessive-compulsive, somatisation, disorder, phobias, hostility, vulnerability, paranoia and psychotic symptoms. In particular, TEIQue was highly, negatively and significantly correlated with vulnerability, paranoia, anxiety and psychotic symptoms and it was moderately but significantly correlated with depression, phobias and obsessive-compulsive behaviours. This study clearly indicated that trait EI as assessed by TEIQue explained a large amount of variance in emotion-related disorders. In other words, this study provides support to trait EI's theoretical framework, and it is clear that trait EI refers to people's behavioural dispositions and it can be captured as a personality trait. These findings also replicated the findings of a previous study (Hemmati, Mills & Kroner, 2004) and indicated that trait EI as assessed by using self-report assessments described a set of emotion-related facets of personality that indicate the ways in which a person copes with emotional demands and mental disorders.

More specifically, Hemmati, et al., (2004) explored the incremental validity of EQ-i in terms of psychopathology, measured by the Basic Personality Inventory (BPI) which comprised 12 scales (hypochondriasis, depression, anxiety, interpersonal problems, alienation, impulse expression, persecutory ideation, thinking disorder, self-depreciation, social introversion, denial and deviation) and Depression Hopelessness and

Suicide Screening Form (DHS). In this study, a strong negative relationship between EQ-i, all scales of BPI and hopelessness and depression of DHS was found. On the other hand, EQ-i positively correlated with self-deception, enhancement and impression management as measured by the Balance Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR). All of these studies showed that, trait EI's measurements provide incremental predictive validity over standardised personality traits for emotionally and socially relevant outcomes.

The following section presents a summary of key studies that compare trait EI and ability EI models. The results of the following studies confirmed our assumption that these two models are different. These two models were developed to assess two different constructs. Mayer and his colleagues linked ability EI with MI and this linkage was correct. However, their assessment failed to prove it empirically as the associations between ability EI and intelligence were weak. On the other hand, trait EI theoretical framework was wrongly traced back to SI and MI. Trait EI approach has nothing to do with people's skills and capabilities; rather, this model represents emotionality and people's emotional perception. Trait EI cannot be used to assess people's capabilities but only to explore people's emotional self-perceptions, emotion-related personality and emotion-related behaviour.

1.14. Trait EI vs Ability EI

The distinction between trait EI and ability EI was firstly examined by Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004) who aimed to identify the psychological variables that underlie EI. This study was conducted by using both constructs of EI: the trait and ability EI tests. The trait EI was assessed with Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS; Salovey; Mayer, Goldman,

Turvey & Palfai, 1995), which was designed to assess people's beliefs about their propensity to attend with clarity to their own mood states and to engage in mood repair. Ability EI was assessed with the task-based instrument, MSCEIT (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002, see section 1.8). The other measures that were used in order to identify the underlying variables of EI were: personality, affiliation, abstract reasoning ability, and emotional knowledge. The results of this study revealed that trait EI negatively correlated with emotional knowledge (difficulty identifying feelings $r = -.49$; and difficulty expressing feelings, $r = -.61$) and with neuroticism ($r = -.27$), and positively correlated with the four personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience. Results also showed that trait EI was not related to abstract reasoning abilities.

The association of trait EI with emotional knowledge and personality traits indicate that both of these variables are theoretically acceptable for the formal definition of trait EI. By contrast, ability EI, as assessed by MSCEIT, was not significantly associated with abstract reasoning ability, but it was positively correlated with agreeableness ($r = .30$) and negatively correlated with emotional knowledge (difficulty identifying feelings $r = -.33$; and difficulty expressing feelings, $r = -.28$). This nonexistent association of MSCEIT with abstract reasoning ability indicates that MSCEIT fails to empirically map onto ability EI theory as this measure has little to do with the formal definition of ability EI and mental abilities. Furthermore, Warwick and Nettelbeck, (2004) showed that the association of the MSCEIT to TMMS was rather low ($r = .19$), indicating that these two measurements of EI represent two different constructs and they

supported the proposal for two distinct types of EI: trait EI and ability EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Similarly, Brackett and Mayer (2003) showed that MSCEIT was weakly associated with the Self-Report EI Test, ($r = .18$) (SREIT, Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden & Dornheim, 1998), thus supporting the proposal for two distinct types of EI: trait EI and ability EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Brackett and Mayer (2003) also noted that trait EI tests were based on a very different definition of EI from the one that has been employed for ability EI tests. Particularly, the findings revealed that MSCEIT was moderately correlated with the self-report test of EQ-i ($r = .21$) but not with the SREIT ($r = .18$). Zeidner, Shani-Zinovich, Matthews and Roberts (2005) found significant modest correlations between SREIT and MSCEIT that were again too low to indicate satisfactory evidence for validity.

Mayer, et al. (2000) suggested that the distinction between self-report tests of EI and performance test of EI stemmed from the different definitions of EI that have been employed by the researchers (Bar-on, 1997; Schutte, et al., 1998). In particular, the EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997) self-report test began as a measure of other psychological constructs, such as emotional well-being, and still retained many scales related to the concept of well-being. SREIT (Schutte et al., 1998) was designed to assess Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original model of emotional intelligence, suggesting that EI is a subset of social intelligence, which involves the ability to monitor dealings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use them to guide one's action.

Another study (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004) was conducted in order to look at the correlation between ability EI, using MSCEIT, and trait EI using the self-report

measurement of EQ-i (Bar-On's Inventory of EI). The results showed that these two measures were not significantly correlated with one another, despite the fact that these two measures were supposed to represent and serve a common theoretical framework. Furthermore, the results revealed that MSCEIT was strongly correlated with verbal intelligence but, by contrast, EQ-i was strongly correlated with personality traits and weakly correlated with general intelligence. All the above-mentioned empirical evidence indicates that ability EI measures and trait EI measures do not appear to be measuring very similar constructs, although a few theoretical elements appear to resemble. For example, MSCEIT was designed to assess mental abilities and EQ-i was designed to assess abilities that influence an individual's ability to succeed in life and the individual's psychological well-being, according to the formal definitions of these two measurements. While both measures were designed to assess abilities, they are not highly related to each other.

1.15. Emotions at Work

In the workplace, as in all other environments, emotions serve to motivate, direct and more importantly to activate social behaviours. Broadly speaking, both positive and negative emotional states have the capacity to interfere with or enhance work-related behaviours. For example, the emotional need for achievement (or self-motivation) and self-esteem motivates employees to achieve further success. Anxiety and stress or even sadness may encourage change and risk-taking behaviour. Significant anxiety and unmanageable stress may severely interfere with work and social functioning (Stanley & Burrows, 2001).

On the other hand, a negative or unmanageable emotion may cause disruption by distracting the employee from the task; it may disorganise employees' behaviour and cognitive functioning. Moreover, these 'misbehaving' emotions precipitate other consequences such as addictive behaviours, misuse of alcohol and drugs. Emotions are communicated directly via verbal and behavioural cues such as facial expressions, smiling for example. Risk-taking behaviours are direct or indirect expressions of unhappiness. Counterproductive work behaviour such as alcohol or drug abuse, aggressiveness and absenteeism are consequences of stress, anxiety and depression.

Personality and IQ have been extensively examined in previous years. Regarding the role of IQ in the workplace, IQ remains a significant predictor of employees' performance. Yet it is not the element which is most important determinant of employee performance. This is due to the fact that objective IQ assessments are not amenable to examination in relation with other very important work-related factors, such as employees' satisfaction, commitment and leadership effectiveness. On the other hand, personality was also examined in relation to work performance but not as extensively as IQ. Recently, attention has been given to the impact of emotions on people's behaviour, as emotions seem to be an important determinant of people's behaviour. The experience of work is saturated with emotions, and this is illustrated by the role they play in motivation, leadership, and group dynamics (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

It was claimed (Vallacher, Nowak, & Zochowski, 2005) that people's personality is shaped by their interaction with the environment which is determined by how they express, and react to emotions. Emotion is a genetically-driven response to a stimulus. In particular, when a stimuli occurs, a region of the brain, known as amygdala, generates an

emotion (e.g. happiness) that is spread through the body via the nervous system causing the reaction (behaviour). In fact, emotion appears to be a key determinant in human behaviour and personality. In other words, emotion is a 'product' of the amygdala, the lymphatic or unconscious brain - rather than being a function of the brain's frontal lobe (reasoning part of our brain) that maintains and processes information. In other words, emotionality has been seen as the antithesis of rationality and cognitive abilities (Damasio, 1995; Lazarus, 1991).

It is worth mentioning that human behaviour arises as a consequence of emotional reactions (Damasio, 1995). Consequently, emotions play a critical role in individuals' work-related life and work-related decisions. Positive or negative emotions are contagious within an organized work environment, (Mann, Varey & Button, 2000). Westbrook (1980) claimed that positive emotions communicated by employees are likely to increase feelings of well-being in employees and also create a positive experience related to their job, while negative emotions greatly reduce effectiveness in organization. In addition, stress is an emotion which - if spread out within an organization - can adversely affect employee's performance.

Other factors that undermine employees' performance, satisfaction and commitment are the bad attitudes of managers toward employees and their poor relationship and communication skills (Freundlinckson, Staw, Sutton & Pellod, 1994). In a general sense, when the basic psychological motivational needs of employees such as their psychological ego needs are not satisfied, then their behaviour is affected negatively with decreased levels of motivation and reduced job satisfaction. Armed with the belief that emotions play a primary role in employees' performance, it could be assumed that

job satisfaction, organizational commitment and leadership effectiveness depend on an individual's emotional well being.

1.16. Trait EI at Work

Brown, George-Curran and Smith (2003) examined the predictive validity of trait EI components of empathy, utilization of feelings, handling relationships and self-control, in career decision-making self-efficacy, vocational exploration and organizational commitment. Trait EI was assessed with Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EEI, Tapia & Marsh, 2006) which is a 41-item self-report questionnaire. The results revealed that that all four components of trait EI are predicted by career decision-making and self-efficacy. However, only utilization of feelings and self-control components appeared as statistically significant predictors of vocational exploration and organizational commitment.

More recently, Petrides and Furnham (2006) conducted a study to examine the extent to which trait EI as assessed by TEIQue, might relate to job related variables, including perceived job control, job stress, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They found that perceived job control had a negative effect on stress and a positive effect on job satisfaction. Further stress had a negative effect on job satisfaction. Trait EI was also highly correlated with job satisfaction, occupational achievement stress and perceived job control. However, trait EI was not significantly correlated with organisational commitment (OC).

This study also examined the relationship between trait EI and stress among both men and women. For men, the findings revealed that all of the trait EI factors were negatively related to stress. For women, only the factor of emotional control was

positively related to stress. Furthermore, they focused on the effects of trait EI on workplace settings. The results revealed that trait EI was not correlated with OC directly but via perceived job control. In general, trait EI models have been used in the selection framework for predicting an individual's behaviour under stressful work conditions and demands (Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2004).

Adeyemo (2008) investigated EI in the workplace in various Nigerian organizations, using WEIP. EI was shown to positively correlate with experience, and females displayed higher EI in a workplace context. There was no significant relationship between age, salary grade, marital status, educational qualification and EI. The lack of relationship between educational qualification and EI is particularly interesting as it supports the notion that trait EI is not related to intelligence.

Also using WEIP, Kellett, Humphrey & Sleeth (2006) also found that there was no relationship between emotional abilities and cognitive abilities. They did find a positive relationship between empathy and both task leadership and relations leadership.

A longitudinal study was conducted on trait EI of nurses who worked with patients with highly frequent and extremely severe behaviour problems (Gerits, Derksen, Vebruggen & Katzko, 2005). The main aim of this study was to identify the trait EI competencies of those nurses who reported the fewest symptoms of burnout and the least absenteeism due to illness. Trait EI was measured using EQ-i; burnout was measured by using Utrecht Burnout Scale (UBOS; Schaufeli & Dierendonck, 2000), which contains three scales encompassing Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization, (DP) and Personal Accomplishment (PA). Absence was measured separately for both years and both absences' indices (absence frequency and absence duration) were considered. The

results of this study revealed that female nurses with high trait EI experience manifested less burnout than others. In the case of male nurses, the results showed that problem-solving and stress tolerance dimensions of EQ-i were significant predictors of male personal accomplishment.

Another study, however, (Petrides, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004) showed that trait EI as assessed by TEIQue was a significant negative predictor of unauthorized absences from schools, even after it was controlled for three Eysenckian dimensions. This finding is a significant addition to the literature of trait EI because TEIQue was related to absenteeism as the absences of each person was a behavioural measure, based as it was on actual, reported, school absences.

Looking more generally at the role of personality traits in the workplace, fruitful and consistent results have been yielded. In particular, in the area of job performance, Hough, Dunnette, McCloy, Eaton and Kamp (1990) conducted a meta-analytical study and they showed that conscientiousness and emotional stability were the predictors of job efficiency. In line with these findings, Barrick and Mount (1991) reviewed 117 studies utilizing 162 samples with 23,994 participants. They found that conscientiousness showed consistent relations with all performance criteria such as job proficiency for all occupational groups. Extraversion was a valid predictor for occupations involving social interaction. Barrick and Mount (1991) and Salgado (2003) further demonstrated that openness was a strong predictor of training proficiency. Low neuroticism measurements were found to be significant predictors across occupational criteria such as income and job performance in other two studies (De Fruyt & Mervielde, 1999; Sinclair & Barrow, 1992). More specifically, Sinclair and Barrow (1992) found several significant

correlations with job performance across 3 of the big five personality traits. These correlations ranged from .21 - .33 and were noted across 3 personality traits: extraversion, low neuroticism and openness to experience. Agreeableness was found to be a significant performance predictor only in the meta-analysis of Tett et al. (1991) and to be related to training proficiency in Salgado's research. De Fruyt and Mervielde (1999) found that neuroticism was negatively correlated with income and extraversion and conscientiousness were positively correlated with income. They also showed that a high occupational status (higher executives, proprietors of large concerns and major professionals) was positively correlated with Openness and Conscientiousness and negatively correlated with Neuroticism.

1.17. What Does the Term 'Emotional Intelligence' Signify?

Having given reasons for investigating trait EI in the workplace, now intends to be clarified the sense in which the term 'emotions' is used and the context in which trait EI is viewed. It has been shown that although trait EI and ability EI are most easily differentiated by their method of measurement, this difference is representative of a deeper difference in concept. It has also been started to show that EI is not really anything to do with intelligence as a lay-person would use the term. Indeed, some would understand the terms 'emotions' and 'intelligence' to be almost oxymoronic, describing two completely different functions of the brain. EI is not linked to general intelligence. It can be assumed that the term 'emotional intelligence' has come to be used as a) it encapsulates the idea that a high level of emotional awareness is desirable and will lead to high functioning outcomes (making it similar in that sense to general intelligence) and b) the inherent desirability and positive connotations of 'intelligence' mean that the adoption

of the term 'emotional intelligence' has made the concept easier to popularise and 'sell', particularly in popular psychology. However, it is important that emotional intelligence should not be confused with general intelligence.

In order to examine the role of EI in the workplace, it should be vital to take a closer look at the term of EI and more specifically at the roots of those two terms (Emotion and Intelligence).

In fact, the initial motivation of the author was to examine the influence of emotions on humans' behaviour, and on their everyday work-related life; and the rationale of choosing EI to identify employees' behaviour is due to the fact that EI refers directly to humans' emotions. However, the definition of EI in the present thesis is rather different, as it is linked to the biology of emotions (see section 1.18). So far, EI was presented as a learned skill or as a set of competencies and skills (Bar-On, 1997, Goleman, 1998, Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999). Such terms are key ingredients in promoting sales of such psychometric measurements because these terms are commonly associated with high-performance in jobs or in schools (Fineman, 2000). However, the main point is that these views stripped the emotions from EI.

As it has been already mentioned, the definition of EI in the present thesis is different because its interpretation has been inspired by established neuropsychological theories where emotions, dispositions and feelings are presented as biological brain functions and linked directly to human's behaviour, personality and decisions. It can be argued that the term of intelligence in the 'EI' title is used metaphorically because it represents something completely different from intelligence. In particular, intelligence is associated with the reasoning part of our brain (cortex), which is directly linked to

memories and experiences (see Figure 1.2). As can be seen in Figure 1.2, the route is quicker when the stimulus goes via the emotional part of our brain (amygdala and hypothalamus) than via the route of reasoning (cortex). As can be seen in Figure 1.2, there is a direct link between stimulus and emotional response (behaviour). In other words, we feel and then we act and finally we think. According to Mainstream Science of Intelligence (1994), intelligence is an umbrella term which describes a very general mental capability that involves the ability to reason, plan, solve problems, think, comprehend complex ideas and learn. According to this definition, it is clear that the term of 'intelligence' in Emotional Intelligence was used by Emotional Intelligence practitioners such as Bar-On and Goleman because it sells, in particular it sells in business since intelligence is associated high-performance and productivity in business.

In particular, the term of intelligence in EI is an umbrella term that was used metaphorically to describe a property of the mind (hypothalamus, amygdala) or a function of the human brain which emotionally responds such as empathy, optimism, self-motivation and self-control.

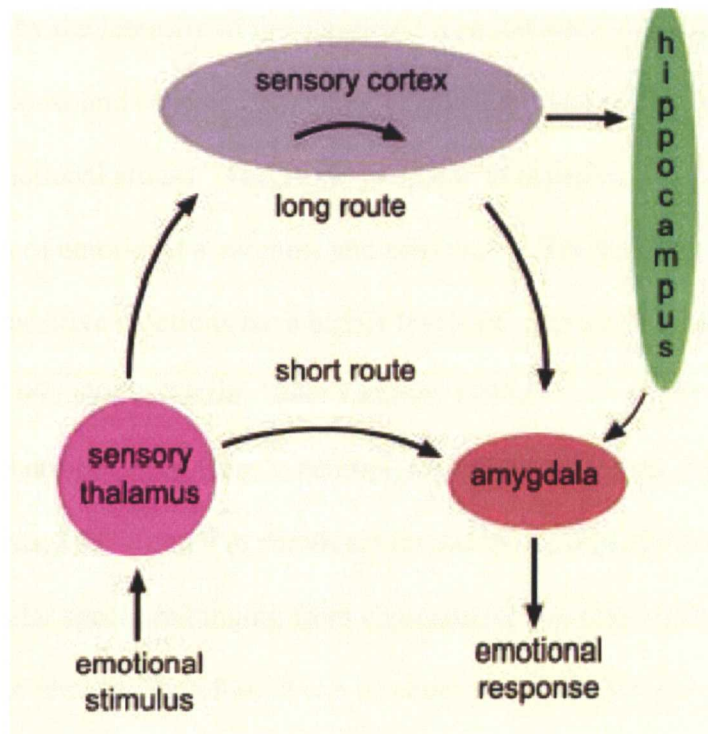


Figure 1.2. The Two Pathways of Reaction

1.18. The Biology of Emotions

It is perhaps because of EI's long tradition and development from SI and MI that theorists do not often consider the biology and more importantly the nature of emotions. Emotions can be categorised by physiological and muscular patterns, by the level of arousal and more importantly and relatively to the interest of this thesis by positive and negative emotions. Positive emotions tend to produce approach behaviours, while negative emotions tend to lead to withdrawal behaviours (Kissin, 1986). Of these three categories, the emotional popularity (positive vs. negative) is the most important approach since it defines the direction of human behaviour such as approach or avoidance. Positive emotionality is initiated through stimulation of the brain by rewards such as joy happiness, pleasure while negative emotionality is aroused through activation of the pain, anxiety, anger etc. However, the intensity of both and the human response are

determined by the intensity of the emotional reaction and more specifically by the level of the awareness and control. In general, negative emotions are associated with higher levels of emotional arousal. Therefore, people who experience negative emotions have lower levels of emotional awareness and self-control. On the other hand, people who experience positive emotions have higher levels of emotional awareness and self-control (Damasio, 1995, 2000; Kissin, 1986; Lazarus, 1991).

Furthermore, according to neurophysiologists (Damasio, 1995, 2000; Kissin, 1986; Lazarus, 1991), positive emotional responses run a gamut from mild to extreme in a rather regular spectrum ranging from contentment to a sense of happiness, pleasure, or to sexual excitement. Therefore, it can be concluded that different emotions are associated with different patterns of responses. However, each of these emotional responses stems from a specific and different neural complex in the hypothalamus or amygdala and is characterised by a different pattern of physiological reactions. It is important at this point to highlight the link between the biology of emotions with trait EI's factors. As it has been postulated in the biology of emotions, the energy that drives directly human's behaviour, self-awareness, self-control and well-being derives from positive emotions such as happiness, and therefore, it seems obvious that individual predispositions or mood influence self-perceptions and personal characteristics and this takes place at a more fundamental precognitive level. For example, a happy person automatically starts thinking more positively and has an optimistic attitude, high self-esteem and experiences less anxiety or stress. The precognitive level is the level at which cognition is not centrally involved, because the emotional response (e.g. high self-esteem and optimism) cannot be explained on the basis of learnt cognitions.

At this point, it is also important to link the above mentioned emotion-related theoretical framework with trait EI. In fact, it is clear that the definition and the theoretical framework of emotions accords well with the theoretical framework and definition of trait EI as proposed and supported by Petrides and Furnham (2000). Theoretical approaches to emotions and trait EI clearly describe how best to define self-perceptions and personality with reference to emotion. Nevertheless, emotions are widely recognised as an important aspect of personality and behaviour. According to the biology of emotions, the definition of EI is very straightforward and EI's factors such as awareness, self-control and well-being emerged with clarity. For the purpose of the present thesis, EI is a 'natural kind' and nature is what determines people's personalities. In a way, the way we feel the emotions and act upon them is a genetic gift; consequently EI give us certain personality traits or behavioural characteristics (see Figure 1.2). In particular, when particular feelings, happiness or anxiety for instance, are very common in a person's life they can be conceived of as traits, (Payne & Cooper, 2001). For example, well-being refers to happiness. According to Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith (1999), "the happy person is blessed with a positive temperament, tends to look on the bright side of things and has social confidants and possesses adequate resources for making progress towards valued goals" (p. 295). This definition describes the well-being and/ or the happiness as a characteristic of the person and not only as an emotional state.

In conclusion, it is not easy to separate emotions from moods or enduring emotional states/ traits arising from temperament such as anxiety or happiness. Therefore, the latter are accompanied by changes in behaviour associated with the emotions or temperaments. The biology of emotions and their roles in people's behaviour and

personality are suggested by the need to have an accurate, epistemological definition for EI. As can be seen in this Chapter, the definitions of EI proposed by Salovey and Mayer, (1990), Bar-On, (1997) and Goleman, (1998) have not been focused on the epistemological and theoretical approach of emotions.

The rationale behind the decision of choosing the biology of emotions in order to define EI is due to the nature of the emotions and the way emotions drive human beings' behaviour and determine their personality. If these aspects of any working psychological construct are not clear, then we are not able to know which method is the most appropriate to assess it. In the literature review of EI, it is noticeable that EI's method of assessment is the biggest issue and this is due to the fact that there is no clear theoretical approach for any model of EI (trait EI or ability EI).

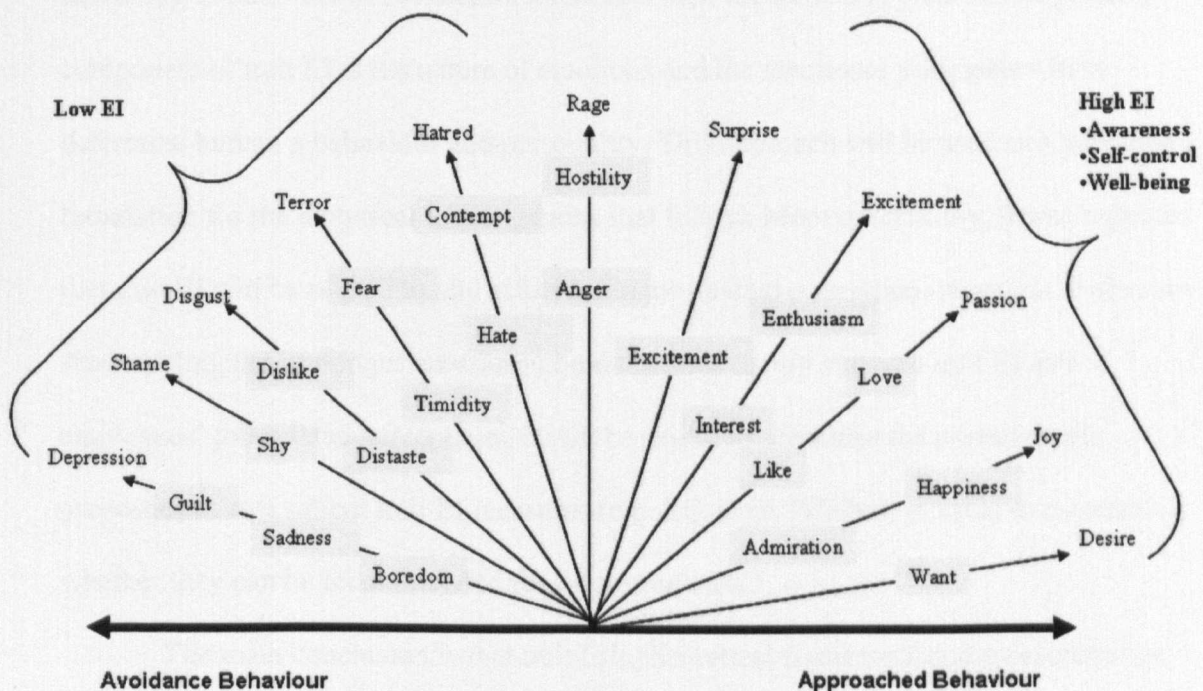


Figure 1.3. Positive and Negative Affective Reactions

Chapter 2: Aims and Research Questions

2.1. Summary and Look Ahead

In literature review (Chapter 1), the theoretical framework for trait EI has been clarified with regard to its differences from ability EI and to the potential importance of biological effects on EI. In fact, EI's theoretical framework lies in emotion nature theory and can be analysed with self-assessed measurements in order to understand people's emotional self-perceptions, emotion-related personal characteristics and more importantly their emotion-related behaviours. Based on EI literature, the EI model that was developed to assess people's non-intellectual capabilities and emotion-related behaviour is the trait EI model.

In Chapter 1, we proposed a differentiation between the two types of EI, according to their method of measurement and their theoretical approach. The primary component of trait EI is the nature of emotions and the emotional principles which determine human's behaviour and personality. This approach will be used as a theoretical foundation for the empirical investigations that follow. More specifically, it was expected that trait EI will be related to any affect laden job-related perception. However, before we start tackling the important questions about the relationship between trait EI and employees' job-related perceptions, it will be useful to scrutinise the psychometric properties of two salient trait EI measures (e.g. EQ-i and TEIQue) in order to ascertain whether they can be recommended for future research.

The main conclusion is that trait EI's theoretical framework and measurements appear to be the most appropriate way to examine the extent to which human behaviour and emotion-related perception is related to emotion-related job aspects such as:

leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, job commitment, etc. Theoretically and practically, the trait EI approach refers to human perception and behaviour as those are influenced by emotions. The ultimate aim of this thesis is to broaden scientific horizons for trait EI in organizational psychology. Broadly speaking, this entails investigating valuable and scientifically developed trait EI measures in relation to critical Human Resource Practices. Currently, Opinion Surveys in business are focused on these Human Resource Practices, Job Satisfaction, Leadership Effectiveness Organisational Commitment and are designed to capture employees' work related perceptions. Opinion Surveys are designed to assess employees' feelings, self-perceptions, personality in order to capture employee behavioural data. Similarly, Trait EI was designed to assess people's feelings, self-perception, emotion-related personality traits and emotion-related behaviour Decision Making might not be a part of Human Resource Practices but it is another key area of organisational behaviour which is directly linked to emotions.

The relationship between the **trait EI** with employees' work-related perceptions will be examined because it was clear from the literature review that the trait EI construct was the only EI construct that was designed to assess emotion-related perceptions and could capture personality characteristics. On the other hand, ability EI appeared to be weakly associated with affect laden variables and more importantly, it was not designed to assess perceptions and to capture individual characteristics. The summary of our literature review suggests that the appeal of EI has been such that many measurements have been developed but only few trait EI measurements assess what they had defined. For example, Bar-On (1997) stated that EQ-i is measuring people's abilities such as problem solving and people's personal characteristics such as assertiveness - however,

previous studies showed that EQ-i was highly correlated with personality traits but not with people's abilities. In other words, EQ-i is not the most appropriate method to assess people's abilities and to identify their ability for problem solving.

The aim of this thesis will be met through 5 inter-related studies. The main subject of this thesis is to examine the role of trait EI in the workplace. However, all of the studies that will be included in this thesis will have their own aims and purposes. Many critical work-related variables will be considered in this thesis, such as Job Satisfaction (JS) and its scales, Organisational Commitment (OC) and its scales, leadership effectiveness, Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Financial Decision-Making, Job-Related Motivational Needs and Job-Related Personality Traits.

In particular, two studies will be included in Chapter 3 (Study 1 and Study 2). This chapter will concentrate on trait EI as assessed by EQ-i and its relationship with 'derailment' leadership traits and leadership effectiveness. Due to the psychometric limitations of EQ-i (e.g. factorial structure), Chapter 4 (Study 3 and Study 4) will examine the relationship between trait EI and the two factors of job satisfaction (e.g. extrinsic and intrinsic) and organisational commitment, comprising three factors and work counterproductivity. Chapter 5 (Study 5) will examine the extent to which trait EI is correlated with employees' motivational needs, organisational citizenship and with job-related personality traits. Chapter 6 (Study 6) will be concerned with the role of trait EI in financial risk-seeking decision-making. In particular, we will attempt to examine the extent to which trait EI is related to risk-seeking finance decision-making behaviour.

This thesis aims to provide one concrete and universal framework, which will help organizational / occupational psychologists and consultants to gauge employees'

effectiveness through their trait EI by being aware of and regulating their emotions. In addition, the framework that will be developed will facilitate the development of organizational/ occupational plans, which will contribute to the enhancement of employees' satisfaction and commitment.

2.2. Analytic and Methodological Approach

The scope of this thesis necessitates the use of quantitative research. In particular, self-administering questionnaires are the most efficient method of assessing individuals' trait EI, job satisfaction and its predictors and organizational commitment and its factors, in a large number of participants, According to Cresswell (1994), a quantitative study is consistent with the quantitative paradigm which is "an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold true" (1994, p.2). As one can see, the quantitative approach is more concerned with collecting data and analysing the data to prove or disprove a theory.

This methodological approach will help build an objective and generic understanding of the effectiveness of trait EI in the workplace by using advanced statistical analysis. More specifically, correlation analysis will be performed in order to examine whether trait EI and its factors can predict JS, OC, leadership effectiveness and counterproductive behaviour. In addition to this, further analyses will be performed in order to examine the inter-relations between the trait EI and the work-related variables. Finally, statistical comparisons will be performed in order to examine group differences in terms of trait EI, and all the other work-related variables.

As many sensitive work-related issues have been assessed, self-administering questionnaires were the most appropriate method to allow participants to ensure anonymity and therefore to express themselves honestly. The participants' protection has been considered in all studies. Firstly, the design of all surveys has been approved by the Ethics Committee of the Institute of Education, University of London. Secondly, all participants were assured complete confidentiality, so as to encourage them to express their views with total confidence and honesty. Only participants who requested personal feedback of their trait EI were asked to supply any personal identifying information. All personal information was used only for debriefing purposes.

Chapter 3: Trait EI and Leadership Effectiveness (and Ineffectiveness – the Dark Side)

3 – Central Purpose

For the present chapter, two studies were conducted in order to examine the relationship between trait EI and leadership. In Study 1, the validity of EQ-i will be examined by relating the EQ-i with other personality trait measurement, general intelligence and dysfunctional leadership traits. In Study 2, it will be considered whether there is a relationship between trait EI and leadership effectiveness (behavioural leadership tendencies).

3.1. Trait EI and Leadership

Trait EI can be help with an understanding of the positive and negative aspects of leadership. Based on leadership theoretical framework, trait EI can be considered as a key component of leadership effectiveness or ineffectiveness. In particular, researchers in social and organisational psychology have come to accept leadership as a set of role behaviours which are attributed solely to personality characteristics. The behaviourist leadership approach described leadership as “a set of actions such as setting group goals, improving the quality of interactions among members, building cohesiveness of the group, and making resources available to the group” (Cartwright & Zander, 1968, p. 304). The personality and trait EI theoretical approaches of leadership follow from this behavioural description of leadership. The trait leadership approach suggests that certain individuals have inborn characteristics or qualities that make leaders and it is these qualities that differentiate them from non-leaders (Northhouse, 2001). This theoretical framework restricts leadership to those who are believed to have special, usually inborn

characteristics or talents. The process to locate trait EI in trait framework would lead one to think that trait EI theoretical framework lines with the definition of trait leadership. In other words, locating trait EI in leadership trait framework suggests that trait EI encompasses inborn leadership traits such as influence over others, social power, needs to achieve group objectives and ensuring followers' satisfaction.

Regarding the relationship between trait EI and leadership effectiveness, there has been relatively little empirical research that has examined it. Studies by Barling, Slater, Kelloway (2000), Kobe, Reiter-Palmon, and Rickers, (2001) and Mandell and Pherwani (2003) examined the relationship between trait EI as assessed by EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997) and the four dimensions of transformational leadership effectiveness. Barling et al. (2000) concluded that trait EI is significantly correlated with the three dimensions of transformational leadership (Idealised Influence, Individualised consideration and Inspirational motivation). In this study, only 49 managers were tested. However, these positive significant correlations supported other theorists' assumptions (Caruso, et al., 2001, Coleman, 1999, George, 2000), suggesting that trait EI and its emotion-related factors can be significant predictors of leadership effectiveness. Similar to Barling et al.'s (2000) study, Madell and Pherwani (2003) provided empirical justification for the strong relationship between trait EI as assessed by EQ-i and transformational leadership effectiveness; however, they tested a small number of managers (32 managers) and they correlated only the total scores for transformational leadership and trait EI.

A slightly different approach to measuring leadership and to examining the relationship between trait EI and leadership experience was used by Kobe et al., (2001). One hundred and ninety-two university students completed the EQ-i and a self-report

measure of leadership experiences. Leadership experience was measured with biodata items, such as work experiences (Mumford, O'Connor, Clifton, Connelly & Zaccaro, 1993). Kobe et al., (2001) found that individuals who scored high on EQ-i reported more participation in leadership experiences than individuals who scored low on EQ-i.

In line with previous studies, a positive correlation between trait EI as measured by the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT; Palmer & Stough, 2001) and transformational leadership as assessed by MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2000) was found by Gardner and Stough (2002) and Palmer et al. (2003a). The MLQ known as the Management Leadership Questionnaire is a multi-rater assessment (or 360° feedback: where others rate leaders' performance) questionnaire and it was developed to assess four factors of transformational leadership. Bass and Avolio (2000) claimed that transformational leadership comprises four factors, which are: Idealised Influence; Inspirational Motivation; Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration.

The SUEIT is a self-report measure specifically developed to assess an individual's perceptions of the way he/she feels thinks and acts with emotions at work. With regards to the distinctiveness of SUEIT from the personality domain, Palmer, Gardner and Stough (2003b) rightly said that it is more important to examine whether the trait EI construct can predict real life aspects and if it can be used as a decision-making tool than to examine its distinctiveness from the personality domain. My point of view is that some overlap between trait EI and personality is reasonable as the emotionally intelligent person should be low in neuroticism (since high scorers in neuroticism are less emotionally stable and less reactive to stress). On the other hand, a high scorer in trait EI

can be expected to score higher in Extraversion (sociable person), Openness (openness to feelings) and Conscientiousness (Tender-mindedness).

In order to investigate whether SUEIT predicts leadership over and above personality, Palmer, Gardner and Stough, (2003a) examined whether there is a positive correlation between scores on the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2000) and scores on the SUEIT and whether the SUEIT accounted for variance in transformational leadership over and above the factors of personality as measured by the Big Five personality traits, in a sample of 231 senior managers. The correlation analysis indicated that all dimensions of SUEIT (Emotional Recognition and Expression; Emotions direct Cognition; Understanding of Emotions; Emotional Management and Emotional Control) were strongly and positively related to transformational leadership. Therefore, the stepwise regression analysis indicated that all dimensions of SUEIT accounted for variance in transformational leadership over and above personality traits.

More recently, Bailie and Ekermans (2006) showed that SUEIT accounts for variance in leadership competencies over and above personality as assessed by occupational personality questionnaires. Leadership competencies were identified through job analysis of middle managerial level and they were as follows: Analysis, Building Working Relationships, Continuous Learning, Customer Focus, Gaining Commitment, Initiating Action, Developing Others, Planning and Organising and Stress Tolerance. One hundred eleven middle managers were tested, and their scores obtained at assessment centres. The correlation analysis indicated that Customer Focus, Building Working Relationships, Developing Others, Gaining Commitment, Problem Solving and Stress Tolerance were significantly correlated with various factors of SUEIT.

3A.1. Study 1 – Trait EI and Leadership Personality.

In order to examine the validity of EQ-i, a principal factor analysis will be conducted in order to see whether EQ-i belongs within standardised personality trait measures. Establishing the location of EQ-i within the big five personality traits may provide sufficient support for the validity of EQ-i's as trait EI construct. Second, a Pearson coefficient correlation analysis will be performed in order to examine the association between EQ-i and personality traits. EQ-i will then be analysed with reference to a big five personality questionnaire (NEO PI-R), for the following reasons. First, Big Five Personality traits can provide a more comprehensive picture of the construct of trait EI than any other personality measure such as MBTI. MBTI indeed comprises only four types of personality traits. Moreover, MBTI has been infrequently used for clinical, non-clinical and personality purposes. On the other hand, big five personality traits measurement has been described as the most widely used clinical and non-clinical measure of personality, and it has been accepted by most researchers as a universal personality model in the area of individual differences. Finally, big five personality measurement consists of thirty facets and five personality traits which are likely to lead to greater complexity, since some of them are conceptually similar to EQ-i's factors such as assertiveness (see Table 3.1 and 3.3).

Another aim of Study 1 is to examine the relationship between EQ-i with leadership personality measurement. The final aim of this study is to examine the degree of difference between high and low trait EI executives in terms of dysfunctional leadership traits.

In order to replicate the previous findings on EQ-i discussed in chapter 1 and locate EQ-i in trait EI, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: Trait EI as assessed by EQ-i will emerge as a distinct factor within the big five personality scale.

H2: EQ-i score will be correlated more highly with the big five personality traits than with general intelligence.

This study will also focus on the negative personal leadership characteristics of charismatic leaders. According to Conger and Kanungo (1998), charismatic leaders can be prone to extreme narcissism and authoritarian style that lead them to promote highly self-servicing and grandiose aims. As a result, the leader's behaviour can become exaggerated and harm the followers and organisation. House and Howell (1992) speculated that there was a unique set of personality characteristics and behaviours that distinguished these positive and negative forms of charismatic leadership. Those forms can be distinguished by the extent to which the leader's goals and activities are self-serving as opposed to altruistic. In other words, this distinction can be made by comparing socialised leadership traits with personalised leadership traits. In particular, House and Howell (1992) described the socialised charismatic leader as the one who has a high need for power, which is counterbalanced by high activity inhibition, low authoritarianism, an internal locus of control and high self-esteem. These socialised characteristics shape the socialised leader's behaviour so that it emphasizes the collective interests of followers. The leader's socialised behaviour establishes channels of authority in order to address his/her followers' needs and approach motivation through empowerment. On the other hand, personalised leadership behaviour has a high need of

power that is coupled with low activity inhibition, high authoritarianism, an external locus of control, low self-esteem and high narcissism. These personalised leadership characteristics promote a leadership behaviour that advocates goals which largely benefit themselves and use punishments and rewards to motivate others. Trait EI position in this typology is that trait EI will be correlated with the socialised leadership traits, since it has been conceptualised as a set of positive leadership traits.

Hogan and Hogan (1997) developed the Dark Side personality Inventory in order to assess the personalised leadership traits. In particular, the Dark Side Inventory (DSI) was developed to assess the personalised leadership traits of employed adults, in order to improve interpersonal relations in the context of work life, (Hogan & Hogan, 2001).

Central to the purpose of the Dark Side's Inventory is the concept of the identification of the personality characteristics that underlie career 'derailment'. The Dark Side inventory contains 11 scales of personalised leadership traits which are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: The 11 Dark Side Leadership Traits.

Enthusiastic - Volatile	Concerns seeming moody and hard to please, being enthusiastic about new people or projects and then becoming disappointed with them.
Shrewd - Mistrustful	Concerns seeming cynical, mistrustful, and doubting the true intentions of others.
Careful - Cautious	Concerns seeming reluctant to change and being too concerned about making mistakes.
Independent - Detached	Concerns seeming aloof or uncommunicative and lacking interest in or awareness of the feelings of others.
Focused - Passive (covertly) Aggressive	Concerns seeming independent, refusing to be hurried, ignoring other people's requests, and becoming irritable if they persist.
Confident - Arrogant	Concerns seeming unusually self-confident, having strong feelings of entitlement, being unwilling to admit mistakes, listen to

	advice, or attend to feedback.
Charming - Manipulative	Concerns seeming to enjoy taking risks and testing the limits, easily bored, and seeking excitement.
Vivacious - Dramatic	Concerns seeming lively, expressive, dramatic, and wanting to be noticed.
Imaginative - Eccentric	Concerns seeming to act and think in unusual and sometimes creative ways.
Diligent - Perfectionist	Concerns seeming meticulous, precise, and critical of the performance of others.
Dutiful - Dependent	Concerns seeming eager to please and reluctant to take independent action.

This model refers to extreme patterns of attitudes which are independent of each other. According to the definitions of managerial attitudes, two of those, namely Vivacious – Dramatic, Diligent – Perfectionist represent a tendency towards social behaviour and outstanding performance. In this regard, trait EI is expected to be positively related to these two socialised leadership traits. In other words, individuals high in trait EI are expected to have high scores in these two positive leadership traits. In particular, Vivacious – Dramatic type of managerial attitude refers to expressive and lively behaviour. Assertiveness, which is a scale of EQ-i, points to this tendency (e.g. express feelings, beliefs and thoughts) too. In addition, Diligent – Perfectionist is associated with responsibility and determination. Problem-solving and reality testing scales of EQ-i are referred to this tendency as well.

With respect to the remaining negative or personalised types of leadership traits, they are expected to be negatively related to trait EI. Previous studies have examined the negative relationship between trait EI and dysfunctional attitudes, coping styles and maladaptive behavioural styles.

For example, Hemmati, Mills and Kroner, (2004) found trait EI negatively relates to psychopathological tendencies, hopelessness and depression. Hemmati et al. (2004) have used the Basic Personality Inventory (BPI) to measure psychopathological tendencies, through measuring twelve different psychopathological factors (hypochondriasis, depression, anxiety, interpersonal problems, alienation, impulse expression, persecutory ideation, thinking disorder, self-depreciation, social introversion, denial and deviation) they have developed the Depression Hopelessness and Suicide Screening Form (DHS). By contrast, EQ-i positively correlated with the self-deception enhancement and impression management as measured by the Balance Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR). In addition, Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham and Frederikson (2006) suggested that trait EI as assessed by TEIQue –Adolescent Form was positively related to two pro-social behavioural dimensions (co-operation and leadership) and negatively related to anti-social behavioural dimensions, namely, disruption, aggression and dependence. Thus, three more hypotheses are added:

H3: Trait EI as it will be assessed with EQ-i, will be correlated positively with the socialised leadership traits (Vivacious – Dramatic and Diligent – Perfectionist).

H4: Trait EI will be correlated negatively with the personalised leadership traits.

H5: Both trait EI and personality traits will predict personalised leadership traits and trait EI will remain a significant predictor of the emotion-related personalised leadership traits even in the presence of Big Five personality traits.

3A.2. Method

3A.2.1. Participants

A total of 158 managers from law firms and financial services, located in the United Kingdom, completed the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I; Bar-On, 1997); the Hogan Development Survey (HDS; Hogan & Hogan, 1997); the personality inventory of NEO PI-R (NEO PI-R, Costa & McCrae, 1992) and the cognitive ability test of Graduate Managerial Assessment GMA. Women constituted 15% (24) of the sample and men 80% (126). The age range of the sample was from 40 to 60 with a mean age of 42.45 (SD= 8.40).

3A.2.2. Measures

Trait Emotional Intelligence

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I; Bar-On, 1997). EQ-i is used to assess trait EI. The EQ-i consists of 133 self-report items. Individuals respond to statements on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Very seldom or Not true of me” to “Very often true of me” or “True of me”. However, only the overall score of trait EI was assessed because EQ-i was postulated to be unifactorial.

Personality

NEO PI-R Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R; Costa & McCrae, 1992). The NEO PI-R contains 240 items, obtaining data for the Big Five personality traits (Extraversion, Introversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Openness to Experience) and six facets for each trait. Individuals respond to five-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: The five domains of personality and the 6 facets that define each domain.

Conscientiousness	Openness	Agreeableness
1. Competence	1. Fantasy	1. Trust
2. Order	2. Aesthetics	2. Straightforwardness
3. Dutifulness	3. Feelings	3. Altruism
4. Achievement Striving	4. Action	4. Compliance
5. Self-discipline	5. Ideas	5. Modesty
6. Deliberation	6. Values	6. Tender-mindedness
Neuroticism	Extraversion	
1. Anxiety	1. Warmth	
2. Angry Hostility	2. Gregariousness	
3. Depression	3. Assertiveness	
4. Self-Consciousness	4. Activity	
5. Impulsiveness	5. Excitement-seeking	
6. Vulnerability	6. Positive Emotions	

Personalised and Socialised leadership Traits

Personality disorders are assessed by using The Dark Side Behavioural Scale of the Hogan Development Survey (HDS; Hogan & Hogan, 1997). The HDS contains 154 items and identifies the following eleven factors of derailment managerial behaviour: Enthusiastic-Volatile; Shrewd- Mistrustful; Careful- Cautious; Independent- Detached; Focused – Passive (aggressive); Confident- Arrogant; Charming-Manipulative; Vivacious- Dramatic; Imaginative- Eccentric; Diligent- Perfectionist; Dutiful- Dependent (see also Table 3.2). Individuals respond to statements on a five-point likert-type scale ranging from “agree” to “disagree”. The HDS is a psychometric test for examining The Dark Side of human behaviour, in particular, and extreme behaviour in reaction to certain situations.

General Intelligence

Graduate Managerial Assessment (GMA; Blinkhorn, 1985). The GMA battery is used to assess the advanced level of reasoning ability, critical thinking and flexibility of

thought of experienced graduates or employees in senior managerial positions. The completion time was 30 minutes.

The three assessments in the GMA are:

- Verbal

In the verbal assessment, participants are asked to decide whether the statements are 'true', 'false', or whether they 'cannot tell' from the information provided. This assessment forces the participants to detach themselves from their own beliefs and prejudices and to concentrate solely on the information provided.

- Numerical

In this assessment, a short scenario with three questions is presented to the participants. The participants are then asked to choose an answer from a set of 16 possible responses. The emphasis is on problem-solving strategies rather than on computational skills.

- Abstract

This assessment is used for recruiting staff for higher-level positions with a substantial design or strategic content, since these positions frequently require the capacity to perceive new and changing patterns, devise new methods and operates at different levels of analysis. The assessment is designed to emphasize the stages of thinking leading up to insight into the nature of a solution.

3A.2.3. Procedure

The data were collected through an HR consulting assessment centre, which specialises in psychological psychometrics assessing participants' abilities and development potential within their organisations. The exercises lasted between 4 and 6

hours. The exercises were delivered by HR personnel within the employee's companies. Participants were also interviewed and assessed for other exercises unrelated to this study (including presentation skills). At the beginning of the assessment, participants received an initial briefing about the timetable of tests. Prior to each individual test they were given instructions describing the exercise, their role and any necessary equipment. They were not told in detail about the individual indicators to be measured. Participants received feedback on their results at a later date.

3A.3. Results

3A.3.1. Factor Analyses.

A factor analysis with the 30 big five personality scales and the 15 scales of EQ-i was conducted to investigate the discriminant validity of trait EI (as assessed by EQ-i) and its location in big-five personality traits. Six factors accounting for 59.41% of the total variance were extracted through principal factor analysis. The factors were rotated via the PROMAX method. The eigenvalues for the six factors were as follows: the first factor accounted for 11.91, the second factor accounted for 4.27, the third factor accounted for 3.61, the fourth factor accounted for 2.39, the fifth factor accounted for 1.44 and the sixth factor accounted for 1.23. Table 2.4 presents the rotated Factor Pattern Matrix, which contains the loadings used to express the facets of NEO PI-R and EQ-i scales in terms of the factors. As can be seen in this table, trait EI has emerged as a distinctive factor from the five personality scales with remarkable clarity.

Regarding EQ-i scales, assertiveness and independence loaded more strongly on stability than on EQ-i, as these two scales shared reverse variance with the other six facets of stability. This analysis indicated that EQ-i is a trait EI measure and trait EI is a

distinct psychological construct that lies at the lower levels of personality hierarchies.

The first Hypothesis (H1) was confirmed since EQ-i emerged as a distinct factor within the big personality scale.

Table 3.4. Factor Pattern Matrix for the NEO PI-R and EQ-i scales.

Scales	(Low) Stability (Neuroticism)	Trait EI	Extraversion	Conscientiousness	Agreeableness	Openness
n3 (Depression)	-0.95					
n1 (Anxiety)	-0.92					
n6 (Vulnerability)	-0.79					
n4 (Self-consciousness)	-0.79					
EQI Stress Tolerance	0.69	0.31				
EQI Self regard	0.65					
n2 (Angry Hostility)	-0.64				-0.55	
EQI Independence	0.61					
EQI Optimism	0.59					
EQI Happiness	0.58	0.37	0.31			
NEO_e3 (Assertiveness)	0.52		0.47			
EQI Assertiveness	0.52					
EQI Flexibility	0.47	0.32				
o3 (Feelings)	-0.42	0.41	0.38			0.35
EQI Empathy		0.75				
EQI_Social Responsibility		0.71			0.31	
EQI Interpersonal relations.		0.64	0.38			
EQI Emotion Self Awareness		0.59				
EQI Reality Testing	0.40	0.57				-0.32
EQI Problem Solving		0.54				
EQI Self Actualisation	0.37	0.53				
e1 (Warmth)			0.72		0.34	
e6 (Positive Emotions)			0.68			
e2 (Gregariousness)	0.34		0.67			
a1 (Trust)			0.54		0.50	
n5 (Impulsiveness)	-0.31		0.54	-0.35		
EQI Impulse Control		0.38	-0.53		0.31	
e4 (Activity)	0.39		0.50			
e5 (Excitement- seeking)			0.38			
c3 (Dutifulness)				0.70		
c4 (Achievement Striving)				0.65		
c2 (order)				0.63		
c1 (Competence)	0.41			0.60		
c6 (Deliberation)			-0.52	0.58		
c5(Self-discipline)	0.38			0.58		
o6 (Values)	0.36			-0.51		
a4 (Compliance)					0.67	
a6 (Tender- mindedness)					0.64	
a3 (Altruism)		0.33	0.38		0.61	
a2 (Straightforwardness)					0.60	
a5 (Modesty)					0.47	
o2 (Aesthetics)						0.78
o5 (Ideas)						0.76
o4 (Action)						0.63
o1 (Fantasy)						0.62

The factor inter-correlation matrix is presented in Table 3.5, where it can be seen that trait EI positively correlated with all personality traits. Trait EI was strongly correlated with Stability (.45), Conscientiousness (.27) Agreeableness (.19). Furthermore, trait EI was weakly associated with Extraversion, and Openness (.16 and .12 respectively).

Table 3.5. Factor Inter-correlations between the EQ-i and personality traits

Factors	1	2	3	4	5
1. Stability (low)	-				
2. Trait EI	.45	-			
3. Extraversion	.04	.16	-		
4. Conscientiousness	.35	.27	.15	-	
5. Agreeableness	.02	.19	-.16	.02	-
6. Openness	.19	.12	.17	-.03	.08

In the following factor analysis, the eleven factors of derailment leadership traits were factored. Based on the Scree Plot 2.1, three factors were extracted, accounting for 52.59% of the total variance and the factors were rotated via the Promax method. The eigenvalues of these factors are as follow: 2.99, 1.67 and 1.12. The rotated factor pattern matrix is presented in Table 2.6, where it can be seen that the three factors.

The first factor describes an **Arrogant – Selfish** trait of managerial behaviour with scales such as Vivacious – Dramatic, Confident – Arrogant, Imaginative – Eccentric and Charming – Manipulative. This factor describes an attention-seeking leader who is unwilling to admit mistakes, listen to advice. This type of leadership is related to a personalised leadership approach, because it is concerned with the satisfaction of personal needs only.

The second factor describes an **Authoritarian** managerial trait with scales such as Careful – Cautious, Enthusiastic – Volatile, Focused - Passive (covertly) Aggressive,

Independent - Detached and Dutiful – Dependent. This factor represents a person who is ignoring other people's requests, becoming irritable if they persist and he/ she lacks interest in or awareness of the feelings of others. This leader is not aware of other people's emotions and needs. This is another personalised leadership trait.

The third factor describes a **Scholastic** leader with scales such as Diligent - Perfectionist and Shrewd – Mistrustful. Both of these leadership traits are positively correlated with trait EI (see Table 8). A scholastic leader is the person who is smart and perfectionism. A smart and perfectionist leader demonstrates a socialised behaviour because a perfectionist is not willing to disappoint his/ her team and focuses on quality.

These factors are somewhat consistent with the original findings of the HDS, particularly the link between dysfunctional behaviours and ineffective leadership.

Scree Plot 3.1. Scree plot for the Dark-Side 11 Factors

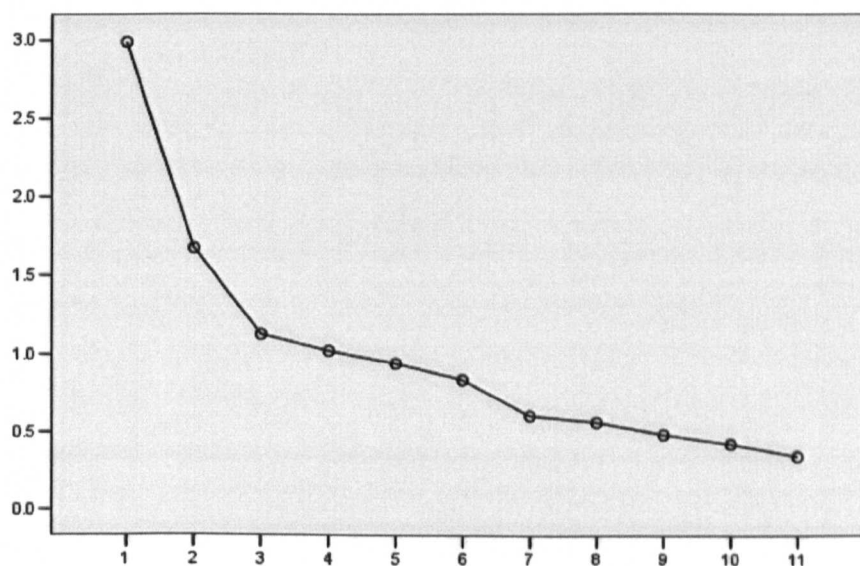


Table 3.6. Factor Pattern Matrix for the 11 factors of derailment managerial behaviour.

	Arrogant/ Selfish	Authoritarian	Scholastic
Vivacious - Dramatic	0.82	-0.39	
Confident - Arrogant	0.77		
Imaginative - Eccentric	0.69		
Charming - Manipulative	0.68		
Careful - Cautious	-0.47	0.76	
Enthusiastic - Volatile		0.68	
Focused - Passive (covertly)		0.58	
Aggressive			
Independent - Detached	-0.49	0.57	
Dutiful - Dependent		0.52	
Diligent - Perfectionist			0.75
Shrewd - Mistrustful		0.30	0.74

3A.3.2 Correlation Analysis

Bivariate correlations among the global score of trait EI, Big-five personality factors, the eleven Dark-side factors and general intelligence are presented in Table 3.7. In support of the second hypothesis (H2), the results revealed that there were very strong correlations between EQ-i and the four personality traits of NEO PI-R (Stability (low) - Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness and Conscientiousness). These associations are in broad agreement with studies in the area (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). The strong correlations between EQ-i with the higher-order personality traits and the weak negative relationship between trait EI and general intelligence are in support of H2.

The results are also strongly and clearly in support of H3, and H4. H3 proposed that EQ-i, would be correlated positively with the socialised leadership traits (Vivacious – Dramatic and Diligent – Perfectionist). In support of H3, the results revealed that EQ-i

was positively correlated with Vivacious – Dramatic and Diligent – Perfectionist and in support of H4; EQ-i was negatively associated with five out of the nine personalised leadership traits.

The correlation analysis indicates that leadership traits can be studied in terms of trait theory, which essentially proposed that people's behaviour could be attributed solely to their personality. In line with this, the 'charismatic' leadership theory argues that the success of a leader could be attributed to his or her personality. These findings support the theoretical framework of trait EI, which promotes trait EI as a set of positive personality traits and behavioural tendencies, and brings further activity within behavioural and leadership research.

Table 3.7. Bivariate correlations between EQ-i, Big-five personality factors, personalised and socialised leadership traits and general intelligence.

Measures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. EQ-i	-																
2. N	-.64**	-															
3. E	.51**	.40**	-														
4. A	.22**	-.09	.10	-													
5. O	-.17*	-.15	.33**	.17*	-												
6. C	.58**	-.53**	.30**	.06	-.01	-											
7. Hog_EV	-.35**	.62**	-.21**	.22**	.05	-.31**	-										
8. Hoh_SM	-.08	.18*	-.05	.37**	-.18*	.03	.21**	-									
9. Hog_CC	-.44**	.65**	-.50**	.09	-.15	-.31**	.42**	.18*	-								
10. Hog_ID	-.32**	.26**	-.58**	.21**	-.26**	-.14	.24**	.15	.44**	-							
11. Hog_FP	-.19*	.19*	-.31**	.04	-.11	-.19*	.09	.11	.30**	.24**	-						
12. Hog_CA	.10	-.18*	.34**	.26**	.17*	.22**	-.11	.03	-.28**	.26**	-.02	-					
13. Hog_CM	.10	-.16*	.31**	-.19*	.32**	.03	-.02	.15	-.20*	-.18*	.10	.39**	-				
14. Hog_VD	.23*	.23**	.59**	-.19*	.22**	.08	-.13	.00	-.44**	.39**	-.11	.39**	.40**	-			
15. Hog_IE	.10	-.04	.32**	-.12	.41**	.00	.02	-.08	-.20*	.25**	.00	.58**	.29**	.43**	-		
16. Hog_DP	.19*	-.07	.04	-.01	-.16*	.51**	-.06	.18*	.25**	-.01	.00	.40**	-.01	-.01	.04	-	
17. Hog_DD	-.20*	.34**	-.14	.21**	-.24**	-.17*	.27**	-.01	-.49**	.07	.22**	.15	-.03	-.19*	-.14	.08	-
18. IQ	-.16	.23**	-.11	-.06	-.02	-.25**	.18*	-.17	.18*	.03	-.11	-.05	.01	-.09	-.11	-.05	-.00

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

3A.3.3. Hierarchical Regressions Analysis

In order to examine Hypothesis 5, hierarchical regressions were performed by sequentially using the three derailment leadership traits as they were extracted from the factor analysis (see Table 3.6). The three leadership traits were used as dependent variables (DV). EQ-i was entered in the first step, followed by the five personality traits in order to examine the incremental validity of EQ-i over personality traits. In the first hierarchical regression, trait EI was a significant negative predictor at Step 1 of the Arrogant – Selfish factor ($\beta = .18$, $t = 2.27$, $p < .05$, $F(1,153) = 4.64$, $p < .05$). At Step 2, trait EI remained a negative predictor of the Arrogant – Selfish factor ($\beta = -.17$, $t = 2.17$, $p < .05$, $F(1,153) = 21.23$, $p < .01$). Based on this finding, it can be assumed that the personalised leader with high arrogance has low-esteem and that this promotes a behaviour largely based on negative emotionality. Arrogance and selfish behaviour derive from negative emotionality and uncontrollable emotions. This means that trait EI remain a significant negative predictor of Arrogant – Selfish factor even in the presence of the five factors of personality traits.

In the second hierarchical regression, EQ-i was a significant negative predictor of the personalised Authoritarian leadership trait ($\beta = -.46$, $t = 6.44$, $p < .01$, $F(1,153) = 41.45$, $p < .01$). However, at Step 2, with the big five personality traits added in the equations, EQ-i did not reach significance levels.

In the third hierarchical regression, EQ-i was not a significant predictor in the regression of Scholastic leadership trait. However, EQ-i remained a non-significant predictor even after the addition of the five personality traits. After Step2, the personality traits added in the regression, $R^2 = .30$, $F(1, 153) = 10.70$, $p < .01$. These results partially

support the H5. In particular, EQ-i predicted only the Arrogant – Selfish and Authoritarian personalised leadership traits.

As shown in the present study, EQ-i was a significant predictor of two personalised leadership traits (Arrogant and Authoritarian), but it does not account for unique validity in prediction of Authoritarian personalised leadership trait. According to this finding, it can be assumed that Authoritarian personalised trait is not an emotion-related trait but is concerned with personal characteristics. Another explanation could be EQ-i's poor design, since it was designed to assess emotion and social-related traits and cognitive skills without a clear factorial structure, and very suitable items. However, EQ-i emerged as a distinct trait factor, and the results indicated that EQ-i is a trait that plays an important role in predicting leadership socialised leadership traits. The results of three hierarchical regressions are presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8. Hierarchical Regressions with the Global Trait EI entered at Step 1 and the Big Five Personality Traits entered at Step 2.

	Arrogant/ Selfish		Authoritarian		Scholastic	
S_1	F(1,153)=4.64*, R ² =.03		F(1,153)=41.45**, R ² =.21		F(1,153)=1.19, R ² =.01	
S_2	F(1,153)=21.03**, R ² =.46		F(1,153)=27.00**, R ² =.52		F(1,153)=10.70**, R ² =.30	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
S_1 EQ-i	0.18	2.27*	-0.46	-6.44**	0.09	1.09
S_2 EQ-i	-0.21	-2.18*	0.10	1.14	0.03	0.31
N	-0.08	-0.91	0.54	7.01**	0.32	3.44**
E	0.50	6.64**	-0.37	-5.37**	0.01	0.16
O	0.32	4.62**	-0.07	-1.06	-0.13	-1.75
A	-0.35	-5.49**	0.06	1.03	-0.20	-2.87**
C	0.06	0.77	-0.02	-0.24	0.54	6.07

3A.4. Discussion

In this section of Chapter 3, five hypotheses have therefore been tested. Among those, H1, H2, H3 and H4 were fully supported, while H5 was found to be partially supported. The findings of this study showed that the global score of EQ-i assesses trait EI. More specifically, the factor analysis allowed us to conclude that EQ-i could be seen as a personality trait factor. Our results also provide further support for Petrides and Furnham's (2001) theoretical conceptualisation of trait EI which states that "trait EI is a distinguishable, lower-order, composite, personality construct" (Petrides & Furnham, 2001, p. 442). However, Petrides and Furnham (2001) conducted a similar analysis using the same assessments as those that we have chosen in the present study but they reported slightly different results. Their results revealed that half of EQ-i scales shifted under the five personality factors. By contrast, in our analysis, only four scales of EQ-i shifted under the personality traits. One possible explanation for this inconsistency is the conceptual ambiguity of EQ-i model. EQ-i is a trait EI assessment and belongs to the domain of personality; however, the factors and the scales of EQ-i are not completely appropriate to this domain, since it includes scales such as problem solving and reality testing and there it relies on a problematic factorial structure. It can be argued that the inclusion of such scales indicates that EQ-i is in part a measure of ability EI, not trait EI. It does not fully appreciate the distinction between the two constructs: trait EI is an internal quality that can by its nature only be measured by self-report. Measuring problem solving ability is a measure of ability EI, and this distinction could be the cause of the inconsistencies displayed.

However, the differences may also be attributable to the differences between the studies. Petrides and Furnham's sample was 55% male, whereas my sample was almost 80% male. One might expect that males may be more confident in their abilities and thus assess themselves differently from females, which could be accentuated in a workplace context. This possibility would benefit from further investigation.

Also, Petrides and Furnham studied 227 employees "from a large transport company"; they did not specifically study managers. Additionally, the present subjects were from the fields of law and finance: sectors that traditionally attract highly intelligent and high-achieving employees at management level. This distinction may also have caused a difference in the way employees self-report, with law and finance employees believing themselves to be more successful, capable and adaptable. It is also possible that there should be some difference their actual capabilities – for any given field there will be qualities which are more likely to lead to success. As the people in my sample have reached management level it would be reasonable to assume that they have some particular qualities necessary for this (perhaps a reasonable level of confidence, diligence and charm, but probably not excessive, dysfunctional levels of these traits), which non-managerial employees in a transport company may not display. This assumption holds whether we assume that personality traits are innate (therefore those who happen to have the right traits will succeed and be promoted) or that they can be developed (therefore those who work through the ranks to management level have the opportunity to develop an advantageous personality). This possible difference in the types of people/personality in each study may have in turn affected the correlations between the two types of measurement.

More generally, my study would also have benefitted from repeating the questionnaires after some time, to ensure that the results gave a true picture of each participant and decrease the likelihood of their being affected by unrelated external factors or particular recent workplace incidents that may affect the participants self-perception. In particular, financial markets have been extremely volatile over the past two years; ideally the study would be repeated in, say, 1 year and again in 3 years to try to allow for any effects of this (additionally, it would be interesting to compare results across those time periods to analyse the difference that market performance may have on managers' perceptions of themselves).

The validity of EQ-i as trait EI construct was also supported by the correlations analysis. The correlations analysis showed that EQ-i was highly correlated with all five personality traits, and moderately correlated with general intelligence. The correlations between EQ-i and personality traits, for instance, ranged from $r = -.17$ (Openness) to $r = -.64$ (Neuroticism). The correlation between EQ-i and general intelligence was rather weak $r = -.16$.

Futhermore, the results that have been obtained add evidence to the conclusions reached by Dawda and Hart (2000) who reported a negative correlation between EQ-i and Openness. By contrast, Petrides and Furnham, (2001) reported that EQ-i was positively correlated with Openness and negatively correlated with Agreeableness. However, there is a possibility that these inconsistencies might result from the psychometric limitations of EQ-i (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Palmer, et al. 2003).

As far as the relationship between trait EI and leadership traits are concerned, the present results provided evidence in support of the fact that trait EI was positively

correlated with the socialised leadership traits: subjects reported lively, expressive behaviour and meticulous, precise and critical behaviour which was measured by both scales. Similarly, the results of the hierarchical regression indicated that trait EI was a significant negative predictor of Arrogant and Authoritarian personalised leadership traits. Given that EQ-i is a trait EI measurement, it can be inferred that managers with high trait EI scores are more vivacious and perfectionists but less arrogant and authoritarian than their low trait EI counterparts.

Furthermore, EQ-i achieved significant levels of prediction for the emotion-related personalised leadership traits of Selfish/ Arrogance (creative and expressive, but sometimes over-confident and arrogant) but it did not achieve significant levels of prediction for the Authoritarian (demanding, goal driven, but cautious and not innovative) personalised leadership trait. This fact can be explained by its extensive overlap with the big five personality traits. In fact, EQ-i's factors are included in the standardised trait taxonomies such as positive emotions (happiness) assertiveness, impulsiveness. Furthermore, the personalised leadership traits (Authoritarian and Scholastic) might not be heavily emotion-related factors. In addition, as it has been discussed previously, EQ-i is not the most comprehensive trait EI measurement.

Regarding the general pattern of correlations, one can assume that trait EI questionnaires can be used to predict and point out who the ineffective leaders will be in a given structure. In particular, trait EI was negatively associated with reports of enthusiastic emotions that can quickly change to disappointment and general mood volatility. This could lead one to conclude that a high trait emotional intelligent person tends to be less moody and finds it difficult to please others and to be enthusiastic with

new people or projects without being disappointed with them. Further, trait EI was negatively correlated with reports of resistance to change and concern about making mistakes, which can indicate that high trait emotionally intelligent people seem to be less averse to change and very concerned about their mistakes. Trait EI was also negatively correlated with Independent - Detached extreme type of dysfunctional trait, a result which can be interpreted as implying that people with high EI tend to be less communicative and less aware of the feelings of others.

Furthermore, the negative association between focussed personalities, sometimes to the extreme of ignoring requests and asserting inappropriate independence and lack of sympathy in the workplace and trait EI strongly suggests that the high trait emotional intelligent person does not ignore other people's feelings or requests and is not prone to becoming irritable when confronted with people who start to act in a persistent manner. The positive relationship between trait EI with lively, attention-seeking, dramatic behaviour with meticulousness, precision and critical tendencies means that a high trait emotional intelligent person tends to be very lively and expressive and is driven by the need to produce high-quality work. Finally, trait EI was negatively correlated with an eagerness to please and reluctance to take independent action (sometimes to dysfunctional extremes) which means that a low trait emotional intelligent person does not tend to show eagerness and is reluctant to take independent action. Thus, our last three hypotheses are also supported by our data.

As far as the most important practical implication of this study is concerned, it has been investigated the role of trait EI in recruiting and selecting the right managers. Indeed, it can be argued that trait EI can help detect who the managers with undesirable

and problematic behaviour will be. However, there is a need for further research to be conducted in order to test this argument - not only from trait EI's perspective but also from dark side behaviour's perspective, since only one published study has been conducted using the Dark Side Behavioural Scale (Hogan & Hogan, 1997) so far.

The next step will be to investigate the role of trait EI in leadership effectiveness. The following section will therefore focus on the impact of trait EI on leadership effectiveness. For assessing leadership effectiveness, a multi-rater assessment will be used and for assessing trait EI only the global score of EQ-i can be used.

3.B: The Role of Trait EI in the Leadership Effectiveness

Study 2. Trait EI and Leadership effectiveness

Based upon some of the theoretical links discussed earlier it is possible to make a hypothesis relating the emotion-related dimensions of leadership effectiveness to trait EI. This hypothesis is uncertain because we do not know what leadership dimensions will emerge from the factor analysis. In particular, it is hypothesised that if the new leadership dimensions tap aspects of trait EI components such as communicating with others effectively, emotional awareness they would be more likely to correlate positively with trait EI than with personality traits and general intelligence. The purpose of this hypothesis is to contribute to the leadership research area by examining the relationship between trait EI and leadership effectiveness.

Thus Hypothesis 6 (H6): Emotion or/and social leadership effectiveness factors will be correlated more strongly with trait EI than with the Big Five personality traits and general intelligence.

In Study 2, the findings of Study 1 will be extended by examining the role of trait EI in the leadership effectiveness. In particular, trait EI as having a significant impact on top executives' managerial behaviour and performance as they were evaluated by their subordinates, colleagues and senior managers will be examined and supported.

3B.2. Method

3B.2. 1. Participants

The participants of this study were 131 managers of whom were Senior Managers representing 70 percent of the sample, 24 percent were Middle Managers/ Supervisors and 6 percent did not indicate their managerial level. The sample's previous job experience ranged from 1 to 20 years, the mean of previous number of jobs was 8.52 (SD = 3.14). The gender split in the total sample was 14 (11%) women and 111 (85%) men. The participants were drawn from a wide range of industry sectors, such as telecommunications, financial services, engineering, legal industry and manufacturing. The total sample was 90% British, with the remaining 10% comprising a wide range of different ethnic groups (e.g. Asian Pacific, Afro-Caribbean and Indian).

3B.2.2 - Measures

Participants were asked to complete a battery of 3 psychometric tests of personality, cognitive ability (IQ test) and trait EI (EQ-i). For assessing the 'Effective Management' skills for each participant, a 360 degree feedback assessment (or multi-rater assessment) was used, comprising 12 respondents including 4 superiors, 4 peers and 4 subordinates.

Trait EI

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I; Bar-On, 1997). A 133-item questionnaire was used to assess trait EI, in the present study. This questionnaire is described in Study 1.

Personality

NEO PI-R (Costa & McGrae, 1992) a 240-item personality questionnaire based on the big five personality factors of personality was used. The big five factors assessed were Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness.

General Intelligence

Graduate Managerial Assessment (GMA; Blinkhorn, 1985) is a task-based instrument, was described 1, and was used to assess the advanced level of reasoning ability, critical thinking and flexibility of thought.

Leadership Effectiveness

The 360 Degree Feedback Assessment was developed and used by a business consulting company in its Development Centre. The reliability coefficient of this instrument was very high, (Cronbach's $\alpha = .96$). The survey comprises 42 items specifically designed to obtain behavioural feedback on personal characteristics for superior performance amongst managers. Respondents used a 10-point Likert-scale and they rated the target individual on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. Each manager was rated on 360 degree feedback by 4 superiors, 4 peers and 4 subordinates. The scoring mechanism that was used for the 360-degree feedback was as follows: first, the scores of all participants were added up for each item and then averaged

to provide a mean score for each item. Finally, a factor analysis was carried out to produce leadership effectiveness factors.

3B.2.3. - Procedure

The data were collected through an HR consulting assessment centre (the same firm that collected the data for study 1). Data were collected using online questionnaires; the entire process was managed online, so participants did not generally come in to contact with each other (although those who happened to work for the same organisation were not prevented from discussing the tests afterwards). The process was completely confidential and secure and all responses were gathered anonymously. Managers were provided with personalised feedback reports to enable them to understand their strengths and weaknesses and aid their career development. They were also informed that their information would be used in this study, that no individual information would be identified and their details would remain confidential.

3B.3. Results

3B.3.1 Factor Analysis

A factor analysis was performed for the 360 degree feedback assessment, producing three factors, the eigenvalues of which are as follow: 17.82, 8.04 and 3.17 (see Scree Plot 1). The three factors accounted for 77.28% of the total variance and the factors were rotated via the Promax method. The three factors are represented in Table 2.9 by several positive high loading items each.

The first factor describes **Interpersonal** managerial skills with items such as *Anticipating how different situations will make people feel, Understanding what matters to people, Setting a positive example in the way I treat people; Coaching and praising*

people to improve their performance. This factor describes the managerial ability to communicate effectively with subordinates and make them feel better suited to their occupational environment.

The second factor is about **Performance and Business Oriented** managerial skills, with items such as *Continually raising performance expectations; Cascading business priorities through our company, Using key performance indicators to track what's going on, Employing and developing people with the potential to go further.* This factor describes the managerial ability to maintain good individual and business performance.

The third factor describes a **Customer Oriented** leader with items such as *Identifying the needs of different types of customers for our products and services, Building and maintaining a network of useful contacts within and outside our company, Identifying innovative ways to reach customers.* This factor is about the managerial ability to understand customer needs and the ability to prioritize service quality to customers.

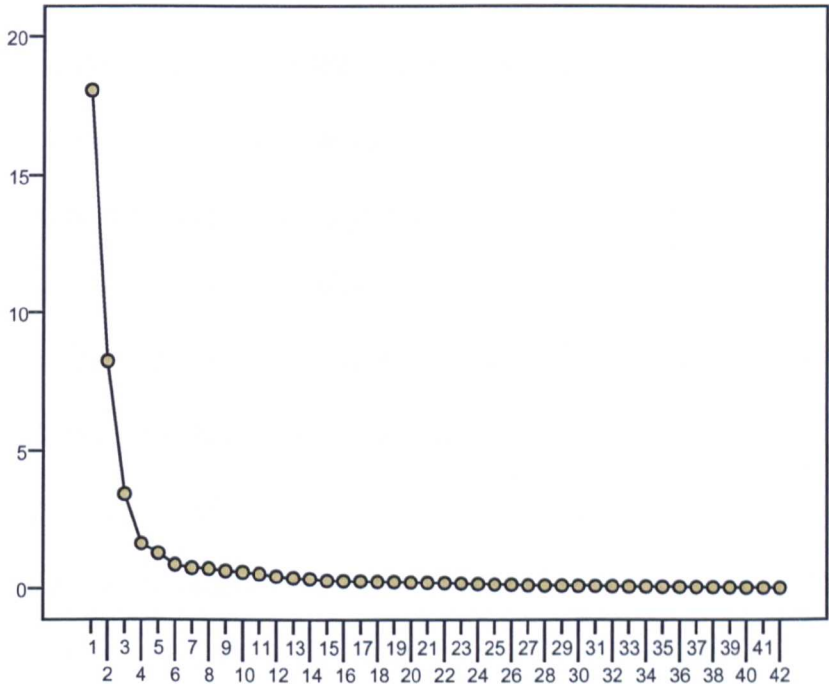
Table 3.9. Factor Loadings of promax-rotated factors from the 360 degree
feedback questionnaire of leadership effectiveness

ITEMS	Interpersonal skills	Perf/ Buss. Oriented	Customer focused
Anticipating how different situations will make people feel	.989		
Understanding what matters to people	.976		
Setting a positive example in the way I treat people	.975		
Showing that I have understood what is important to people	.952		
Changing the way I communicate in response to how people are feeling	.945		
Making people feel I have listened to their point of view	.928		
Picking up on what people will find motivating	.908		
Coaching and praising people to improve their performance	.857	.352	
Demonstrating self-awareness	.848		
Making people feel empowered to act	.840		
Managing my emotional reactions so they don't negatively affect others	.836		
Getting people to respond positively to change	.814		
Working cooperatively across our company	.741		
Inspiring people to follow my lead	.656	.498	
Seeing all the angles in situations	.566		
Employing and developing people with the potential to go further	.557	.472	
Getting key individuals to support views and initiatives	.531		.327
Being persistent in pursuing objectives		.967	
Driving others to do better		.914	
Continually raising performance expectations		.910	
Taking decisive action		.881	
Challenging anything that isn't right		.829	
Expressing opinions forcefully	-.432	.788	
Having robust debates about disagreements		.738	
Cascading business priorities through our company	.308	.729	
Using key performance indicators to track what's going on		.725	
Taking appropriate risks in introducing changes		.701	
Being clear about success criteria /		.661	
Creating a picture for people about how things need to be	.414	.581	
Getting to the heart of issues quickly		.552	
Looking for ways to do things differently		.468	.385
Identifying how an area can make the greatest contribution to profit		.463	
Getting value for money from resources		.565	
Identifying the needs of different types of customers for our products and services			.957
Identifying innovative ways to reach customers			.937
Identifying the trends in the market that will affect our company			.868
Building and maintaining a network of useful contacts within and outside our company			.845
Differentiating our company from the competition			.836
Identifying what will be needed in future to keep service ahead of customer expectations			.809
Seizing new opportunities		.337	.606
Ensuring that customer service standards are maintained at a high level			.528
Being able to generate creative alternatives quickly when necessary			.442

Table 3.10. Factor Inter-correlations between the leadership effectiveness factors

Factors	1	2
1. Intrapersonal Skills	-	
2. Perf/ Business Oriented	.29	-
3. Customer Focused	.38	.50

Scree Plot 3.2. Scree plot for the 360° Feedback- Leadership Effectiveness items



3B.3.2. Correlations Among the Major Study Variables

Table 2.11 presents the correlations between the three leadership effectiveness factors (including the total score of leadership effectiveness), trait EI, the Big Five personality traits, general intelligence (g), and the total number of participants' previous jobs. Trait EI was positively associated with the two factors of leadership effectiveness, (intra/ interpersonal ($r = .25, p < .01$), customer focused ($r = .19, p < .05$) and with the total score of leadership effectiveness ($r = .25, p < .01$). Consistently with what was found in Study 1, the EQ-i was weakly and negatively correlated with general

intelligence (g) ($r = -.19, p < .05$). Inconsistently with Study 1, trait EI was strongly correlated only with the three personality traits: Extraversion, Neuroticism and Conscientiousness. There was a weak positive correlation with Openness and Agreeableness. However, comparing the correlation between EQ-i and general intelligence (g), it was not as strong as that between EQ-i and the Big Five personality traits. It is worth mentioning that general intelligence (g) did not correlate with leadership effectiveness and its three factors. H6 was confirmed by the current results and leadership effectiveness was more strongly correlated with trait EI than with the Big Five personality traits and general intelligence (g).

As regards the association between leadership effectiveness and the big five personality factors, only two out of the five factors of personality were associated with leadership effectiveness. In particular, neuroticism ($r = -.17, p < .05$) and agreeableness ($r = -.17, p < .05$) were negatively correlated with leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, the leaders' previous work experience was not associated with any variable such as leadership effectiveness, personality, trait EI and general intelligence.

Table 3.11. Bivariate correlations between EQ-i, Big-five personality factors, Leadership factors and the global score of leadership, number of previous jobs and general intelligence (g).

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	13
1. EQ-i	-										
2. N	-.68**	-									
3. E	.54**	-.38**	-								
4. O	.22*	-.17*	.33**	-							
5. A	.14	-.11	.00	.19*	-						
6. C	.57**	-.45**	.28**	-.01	.06	-					
7. g	-.19*	.08	-.07	-.13	-.04	-.20*	-				
8. Leading_1	.25**	-.13	-.04	.12	-.01	-.12	-.07	-			
9. Leading_2	.13	-.13	.10	-.01	-.16*	.26**	-.06	.58**	-		
10. Leading_3	.19*	-.13	.18*	.25**	-.22*	.07	-.08	.43**	.39**	-	
11. Leadership	.25**	-.17*	.10	.11	-.17*	.12	-.07	.80**	.84**	.69**	-
12. No of jobs	.04	.15	.07	.14	-.03	.11	-.06	.15	.07	.15	.11

Note: Abbreviations: Leading_1 = Interpersonal skills; Leading_2= Performance Business Oriented; Leading_3= Customer focused.

3B.4. Discussion

The present findings provided evidence in support of the hypothesis formulated in H6 which stated that trait EI would be more related to emotion-social-related factors of leadership effectiveness than Big Five personality traits or general intelligence. More interestingly, these results supported the fact that trait EI was a personality trait which is related to affect-laden criteria. One can also note that the emotion-related self perception is the basic characteristic of trait EI and makes it profoundly different from standardised personality assessments. In particular there was no relationship between general intelligence (g) and personality traits with leadership effectiveness. Trait EI was consistently related to social /emotion-related factors of leadership effectiveness and to leadership effectiveness. Similarly, Palmer, et al. (2003b) and Gardner and Stough (2002) have empirically demonstrated that trait EI, as was measured by SUEIT, accounted for variance in leadership effectiveness over and above personality traits.

Trait EI was relatively weakly correlated with the most emotion-related dimensions of leadership effectiveness: intra/ interpersonal leadership factor and customer focused factor. The fact that there was some correlation is hopeful for the overall purposes of this thesis, although a stronger correlation would have given more weight to future results. This is one of the reasons that it was decided not to use EQ-i going forward; based on previous research, it can be assumed that TEIQue is a better measurement of trait EI which will more accurately reflect the emotional aspects of leadership. As mentioned at the beginning of this thesis, its main purpose is to examine the relationship between social/emotion-related self-perceptions and key job-related

criteria. And as we can see, both of these leadership factors refer to behavioural tendencies to have fulfilling personal relationships.

In addition, the correlations between the two factors of leadership effectiveness and trait EI replicated the results found by Bailie and Ekermans (2006) in that positive correlation was indicated between the Understanding Emotions factor of trait EI with customer focused ($r = .24$) and Building Working Relationships factor of leadership effectiveness ($r = .31$).

As one can note, general intelligence had a non-significant correlation with leadership effectiveness and its factors. Our findings provided some preliminary support for researchers who suggested that EI played a more important role in effective leadership than general intelligence (Atwater & Yammarino, 1993; George, 2000; Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002).

Generally, thorough scientific investigation into the concept of trait EI and its relationship with achieving and predicting leadership effectiveness would be very useful, as preliminary research and anecdotal evidence in non-scientific literature often demonstrates the power of emotions over leaders' behaviour, such as managing stress, motivating others, expressing themselves and in terms of reinforcing leadership competencies. The role of a leader is indubitably very important and thus organizations should be aware of the possibility that seeking out and nurturing trait EI competencies among leaders may lead to increased leadership effectiveness and subordinate performance.

However, it should be noted that my study had some limitations. The sample was primarily constituted of men, with women making up less than 20% of the total. This

broadly reflects the distribution of males and females in management roles within the fields, which it was investigated: managers tend to be men. The reasons for this and possible consequences of it pose some interesting questions. Are men inherently more effective managers than women? Is this why managers tend to be men? Or, if there are other factors at work in causing men to become managers (traditional workplace behaviour that does not reflect contemporary equality legislation, or women's self-imposed career breaks through maternity leave and other caring commitments, to name two possible causes) does this mean that the qualities presented by this male-dominated sample may not necessarily be those most effective in leadership? As we have seen that trait EI does correlate strongly with some aspects of effective leadership, perhaps we would expect women (who generally exhibit more emotional awareness and concern for emotions than men) to be more effective leaders. All these considerations are open to further investigation and the data used in this study could form a starting point for that.

The previous job experience of my sample ranged from 1 – 20 years. Age of participants was not recorded, but the range of experience could lead us to assume that there was also a wide age range. Both age and experience would certainly be expected to affect leadership effectiveness, but my current study does not take this into account. Some studies have argued that trait EI is an inherent quality that cannot be learned – if this were true then we (assuming that leadership does improve with experience) would expect to see less correlation between leadership and trait EI. The correlation in my results indicates that trait EI may also increase with age or experience, thus maintaining its link with effective leadership. I would need to take age and experience into account to

make my current results more objective, but the issue of whether trait EI can change over time would also benefit from further investigation.

3B.5. Summary and Look Ahead

Both studies contribute to the literature studying the role of trait EI in the workplace. As this area is relatively new there are many areas for improvement and for further research such as job satisfaction, job commitment, work deviant behaviour and financial decisions. However, the main scope of the following studies will be to examine how employees' emotion-related self-perceptions can be related with such important job-related factors, behaviours and traits. This study was based on this idea, and successfully showed that trait EI plays a role in leadership effectiveness. In other words, there is evidence to support the fact that trait EI can predict some emotion-related and social-related leadership competencies.

One of the purposes of this study was to establish that EQ-i is a trait EI assessment. However, this measurement comes with some noteworthy limitations, such as an unclear theoretical framework and a formless factorial structure, confusing it in places with elements of ability EI. However, the most important limitation of EQ-i measure is that it does not allow the examination of leadership effectiveness in relation to trait EI factors such as sociability, well-being and emotional perception; as a consequence, it is impossible to examine deeply and further other aspects of trait EI.

In line with other researchers (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Dawda & Hart, 2002), it can be argued that EQ-i appeared to be a problematic psychometric measure in terms of its discriminant validity and factors' comprehensiveness. The use of EQ-i measurement

to obtain scores on the factors of trait EI is not the right choice, and it certainly is not the right measurement for the present thesis. As discussed in the introductory chapter, through the rest of the thesis the TEIQue questionnaire (Long and Short versions) are used, which were developed to assess trait EI and has a very clear theoretical framework.

Chapter 4. Study 3: The Relationship Between Trait EI and Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

4A.1. Purpose

The aim of this chapter is to examine the extent to which trait EI is related to individuals' perceptions of their job satisfaction (JS) and their organizational commitment (OC) to their jobs. Data was gathered from a sample of participants coming from three different industries (e.g. business, health and education), whose approaches to JS and OC are likely to vary, because the work-related needs and requirements for each industry are different. Furthermore, gender differences will be examined in terms of employees' JS and OC. Industry and gender differences will be examined in order to be able to have a clear picture for the impact of trait EI on employees' JS and OC by examining each industry differently and by isolating gender and industry effects.

JS and OC have been found to both be inversely related to such withdrawal behaviours as absenteeism and turnover (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989, Monday, Porter & Steers, 1982, Yousef, 2000). Moreover, they have also been linked to increased productivity and organisational effectiveness (Barrick & Mount, 1991, Buitendach & de Witte, 2005). This is furthermore postulated to have an influence on whether employees will have a propensity to remain with the organisation and to perform at higher levels. For this reason, it is important to study the determinants of JS and OC in different industries. In this chapter, the impact of trait EI and its four factors as was conceptualised and assessed with TEIQue on two factors of JS (intrinsic and extrinsic) and on three components of OC (affective, continuance and normative) will be examined.

It is nevertheless interesting, and potentially instructive, to identify emotion-related behavioural patterns of differences among three different industries (Health, Education and Financial) in relation to indications of JS and OC with their jobs. The main purpose of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive theoretical framework that may explain the role of emotion-related personality traits in the context of JS and OC. The effect of individuals' emotion-related behaviour and personality differences on JS is based on the theoretical and practical structure and nature of JS. For example, in the earliest treatments of JS in relation to emotion-related behaviour and personality traits, researchers argued that JS was strongly correlated with workers' emotion-related behaviour, and moderately correlated with personality traits (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Fisher & Hanna, 1931; Furnham, Petrides, Jackson & Cotter, 2002; Hoppock, 1935; Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002).

4A.1.1. Job Satisfaction (JS)

Some theorists view JS as being the positive emotional reactions and feelings an employee has towards his / her job and work environment. JS has been defined as a feeling of well-being. Locke (cited in Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt, 2002, p. 23), in particular, defines job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience". Job satisfaction can be viewed as an employee's observation of how well their work presents those things which are important to them; simply put, "job satisfaction is an attitude people have about their jobs" (Chelladurai, 1999, p. 230). Balzer, Kihm, Smith, Irwin, Bachiochi, Robie, Sinar, and Parra (2000, p. 7) define job satisfaction as "... the feelings a worker has about his or her

job or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives.”

Definitions have also included components of belief, intentions and feelings (Isen and Baron, 1991); needs and values (Camp, 1994); and reward vs perceived entitlement (Robbins, 1998). Others have viewed it as a bi-dimensional construct consisting of ‘intrinsic’ and ‘extrinsic’ factors (Herzberg, Mauser & Snyderman, 1959; Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967). In particular, Herzberg, et al. (1959) postulated that, on the one hand, the extrinsic factor refers to pain avoidance needs (safety and technical administration) that can cause dissatisfaction but does not contribute to satisfaction. On the other hand, the intrinsic factor refers to the human’s psychological needs (e.g. social aspects of work, autonomy, perceived importance of work), which can increase satisfaction but do not cause dissatisfaction if they are not present. Based on Herzberg et al.’s ‘Dual-factor theory’, Weiss et al (1967) developed what is, to this date, the most widely acceptable and widely- used inventory for measuring overall JS in terms of both its intrinsic and extrinsic factors: it is known as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The most important point to take note of is that both of these factors are self-perceived; for example, the respondent is the one who considers if his / her job is well-paid or not.

The fact that JS is a self-perceived construct and describes an individual’s psychological needs and emotion-related attitudes towards work indicates that trait EI can be theoretically associated with JS. In particular, there is sufficient scientific evidence that JS is associated with variables such as personality traits (Huffcutt, Roth, & McDaniel, 1996; Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002), life satisfaction (Tait, Padgett &

Baldwin, 1989), stress, anxiety, depression and well-being (Newbury-Birch & Kamali, 2001). Similarly, these variables have been linked to trait EI (Dawda & Hart, 2000, Martinez-Pons, 1997, Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Trait EI factors such as well-being and emotionality may be linked to an increased likelihood of obtaining positive feelings of personal accomplishment as this is the main characteristic of intrinsic JS.

In an attempt to investigate the degree to which trait EI and its factors are related to general JS and to intrinsic and extrinsic JS, it will be hypothesised that the four factors (e.g. well-being, sociability, emotionality and self-control) of trait EI and global trait EI will be strongly related to intrinsic satisfaction and to total JS and weakly related to extrinsic satisfaction.

With regard to the relationship between trait EI and intrinsic and extrinsic JS, Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger (1998) demonstrated that employees with positive self-evaluations were more likely to assess their job satisfaction at higher levels than employees with less positive self-evaluations. Positive self-evaluations were considered to include four dispositional personality traits (self-esteem, positive emotionality, locus of control and low neuroticism). Their evidence indicated that positive self-evaluations (individuals with high scores on these traits) correlated positively and significantly with intrinsic JS but were not significantly related to extrinsic JS.

Magnus, Diener, Fujita and Pavot (1993) pointed out that an employee who views himself or herself with respect has a more positive interaction with his/her work-environment, which could indicate higher JS. Furthermore, Larsen and Katelaar (1991) noted that individuals who were prone to experiencing positive emotions responded favourably to situations designed to induce a positive effect. On the basis of trait EI

research, it has been empirically shown that trait EI explains over 50 percent of the total variance in happiness (Furnham & Petrides, 2003). In other words, individuals who score high on trait EI are more likely to be positively disposed. The emotion-related self-perception, which is the proximal idea of trait EI along with the JS, has been examined by Judge and Bono (2001). In particular, they found that core self-evaluations (e.g. self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, internal locus of control and emotional stability) had a direct relationship with JS and with job performance. With respect to JS, the correlations were .26 for self-esteem, .45 for positive emotionality, .32 for internal locus of control, and .24 for emotional stability.

With regard to the relationship between JS and personality traits, there were weak to moderate correlations between personality traits and JS (Judge, et al, 2002; Furnham, et al. 2002). In a meta-analytic study, Judge, et al., (2002) found that JS is related to the big five-factor personality traits. The results of this meta-analytic study were as follows: Neuroticism, $\rho = -.31$ (negative significant correlation); extraversion, $\rho = .25$ (positive significant correlation); Openness to Experience, $\rho = .02$ (non-significant correlation); Agreeableness, $\rho = .19$ (non-significant correlation) and Conscientiousness, $\rho = .28$ (positive significant correlation). However, Furnham et al. (2002) examined the intrinsic and extrinsic JS in relation to the big five personality traits and the correlations were not consistent with those found in Judge, et al.'s study, especially in respect to extraversion, introversion and openness to experience. In particular, Furnham, et al. (2002) found that extraversion and introversion were not associated with either of these two factors of JS; by contrast, openness to experience and conscientiousness were associated with both factors of JS (extrinsic / intrinsic). Similarly, trait EI had a stronger correlation with JS

than that obtained in research on the personality and JS. In particular, Petrides and Furnham (2006) found that trait EI is significantly correlated with JS ($r = .38, p < 0.01$).

4A.1.2. Organisational Commitment (OC)

The current definition of Organisational Commitment was developed in response to various models in the literature which captured aspects of the concept, but did not represent a unified view. Meyer and Allen (1984, 1989 and 1991) developed a three-component model to integrate the work of their predecessors, especially of those who perceived OC as a uni-dimensional concept (see Figure 4.1). They initially proposed the distinction between affective and continuance commitment and later (Meyer & Allen, 1991) added a third component: normative commitment. Cohen (1996) found that these three components of OC were highly correlated but they demonstrated sufficiently different correlations with other external variables to justify their definition as separate components.

Continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs the employee associates with leaving the organisation (commitment being due to the high cost of leaving). Potential antecedents of continuance commitment include age, tenure, career satisfaction and intent to leave. Age and tenure can function as predictors of continuance commitment, primarily because of their roles as surrogate measures of investment in the organization.

Normative commitment refers to an employee's feeling of obligation to remain with the organization (based on the employee having internalised the values and goals of the organisation). The potential antecedents for normative commitment include co-

worker commitment (including affective and normative dimensions, as well as commitment behaviours), organisational dependability and participatory management.

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in, the organisation (based on positive feelings, or emotions, toward the organization). The antecedents of affective commitment include perceived job characteristics (task autonomy, task significance, task identity, skills variety and supervisory feedback), organisational dependability (extent to which employees feel the organisation can be counted on to look after their interests) and perceived participatory management (extent to which employees feel they can influence decisions on the work environment and other issues of concern to them).

In all cases, the sign of the correlation involving continuance OC was opposite to that for affective and normative OC. According to the theoretical conceptualisation of the three-component model, Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that the three components related negatively to turnover, and they were related differently to measures of other work-related variables such as attendance and work performance. On the one hand, the affective OC component was expected to be the stronger positive predictor of desirable work-related behaviours than the normative OC component. On the other hand, the continuance OC component was expected to be the stronger negative predictor of desirable work-related behaviours. The following figure depicts the three-component organisational commitment model they suggested:

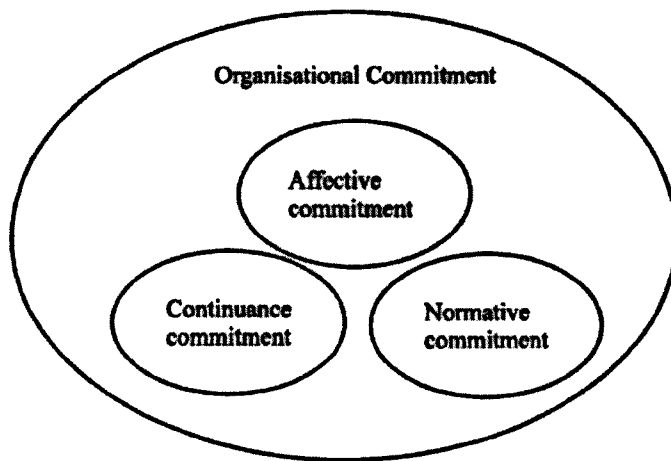


Figure 4.1. Meyer and Allen's three-component Organisational Commitment model.

Results from meta-analysis (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002) showed that the correlations between affective commitment and overall JS, job involvement and general OC are very strong, and considerably stronger than continuance and normative commitment. Further, positive significant correlations involving affective commitment were with intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. However, there were no significant correlations between normative and continuance OC with JS and its two factors.

As far as I am aware there are no previous studies investigating the link between OC and personality traits and emotion-related behaviour. The conceptualisation of Allen and Meyer (1990) OC factors, generally is based on the idea of explaining turnover, work performance and general organisational behaviour by accounting for employees' psychological attachment to the organisation. Allen and Meyer have not conducted a study regarding the relation between OC factors and personality traits and emotion-

related behaviour. My study will investigate whether such a link exists, which may be expected due to the potential emotional roots of attachment to an organisation.

According to the literature on trait EI and its role in the workplace, Petrides and Furnham (2006) found that there was no direct relationship between trait EI and OC, but that it was mediated via perceived job control. However, based on the theoretical conceptualisation of affective OC and its direct link with JS and intrinsic JS, it can be hypothesised that trait EI will be positively correlated with affective OC and negatively correlated with continuance OC. Thus, our hypothesis, which synthesises all these previous studies and the theoretical framework of trait EI, is that trait EI will be statistically and positively correlated with the emotion-related OC' s factors which is the affective OC factor.

4A.1.3. Demographic Differences (e.g. industries, gender).

The literature concerned with the relationships between gender and JS and OC is inconsistent. Some studies report that women have higher job satisfaction, whereas other studies find that men are more satisfied, and yet other studies find no significant difference between the genders (Mortimer, Finch & Maruyama, 1988). Another study, Souza-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2003) found that women's job satisfaction had declined substantially in the past decade, whereas men's job satisfaction had remained fairly constant. According to Coward, Hogan, Duncan, Horne, Hiker and Felsen (1995, cited in Jinnett & Alexander, 1999), female employees demonstrate higher levels of JS than their male counterparts across most work settings.

On the other hand, research (Al-Mashaan, 2003) indicates that male employees in comparison with female employees report higher levels of JS. Similarly, Zawacki,

Shahan and Carey (1995) reported that male nurses tended to be somewhat more satisfied with their supervisors than female nurses; moreover, male nurses rated the characteristics of their work as being more meaningful than female nurses did.

Miller and Wheeler (1992) found that women were inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs because they tended to hold positions at lower levels in the organisational hierarchy where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive. Numerous studies across a variety of occupational settings have, however, found no significant gender differences in job satisfaction, despite the fact that women, on average, have inferior jobs in terms of pay, status, level of authority, and opportunities for promotion (Hull, 1999, Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Rout, 1999).

Women have been found to place greater emphasis on relations with co-workers; women are also more inclined to assign a priority to work that provides them with a sense of accomplishment (Tolbert & Moen, 1998). Furthermore, women may compare themselves only with other women or with women who stay at home, rather than with all other employees (Hull, 1999).

Similar inconsistencies were apparent in OC literature review. In fact, only a small number of previous studies have showed that women as a group tend to be more committed to their employing organisation than their male counterparts are (Cramer, 1993; Harrison & Hubbard, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Loscocco (1990) found that women were more likely to report that they are proud to work for their organisation, that their values and the company's values are similar, and that they would accept almost any job offered to them in order to remain with their current employer.

Several explanations have been offered to account for the greater commitment of female employees. Mowday et al. (1982) maintain that women generally have to overcome more barriers to attain their positions within the organisation. They concur that the effort required to enter the organisation translates into higher commitment from female employees. Similarly, Harrison and Hubbard (1998) found that women displayed greater commitment because they encountered fewer options for employment. Numerous researchers have, however, failed to find support for a relationship between gender and organisational commitment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Ngo & Tsang, 1998).

A previous study (Petrides & Furnham, 2006) showed that there were no significant differences between males and females in terms of trait EI. Furthermore, Clark (1997) used a British sample to examine the extent to which males and females differ in JS and well-being and he evaluated the proposition that males and females differ in identical jobs. The results revealed that neither the nature of the job that men and women do, nor their different work values, accounted for the gender differences in JS. The only significant difference between males and females was in terms of their careers. He showed that women had lower career expectations than men. However, even this gender expectation differential disappeared in the presence of age and education (i.e. women had lower career expectations because they were less educated and generally older than men in the same role).

In a more recent study, Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) found that people who work in the financial industry are not different in terms of JS from those who work in the sales and retail industry, while people who work in the education and health industry are less satisfied with their pay (extrinsic JS) but more satisfied with the sense of achievement

(intrinsic JS). Furthermore, there are no significant differences between those who work in the education industry and those who work in the health industry in terms of OC (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). However, Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) found that OC was positively correlated with gender and years of experience in the organisation. JS amongst low-wage jobs such as teachers and nurses is a multifaceted construct that is critical to employees' retention and has been shown to be a significant determinant of their commitment and, in turn, a contributor to organisational effectiveness. Evans (1998b) mentions that factors such as teachers' and nurses' low wages and low status, and changes in their sector system have all contributed as causes of what has been interpreted as an endemic dissatisfaction within their profession. On the one hand, in the research undertaken by Richford and Fortune (1984) and Mercer and Evans (1991), there is a worldwide tendency towards job dissatisfaction in education. On the other hand, the financial industry ranks high on the success list of jobs with high JS scores. In conjunction with this, OC and JS have been identified as important notions to the understanding of the work behaviour of employees in business organisations, because such jobs are very stressful and very competitive.

4A.1.4. Purposes and Hypotheses of Study 3

This study will investigate the relationship between trait EI with JS and OC factors. With respect to JS, we will take into consideration the strong correlations between emotion-related behaviour and JS (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951, Fisher & Hanna, 1931; Hoppock, 1935, Judge, et al., 1998) and the moderate correlations of JS with personality traits (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002), thus we will be obtain stronger correlations between trait EI factors and intrinsic JS than those obtained in prior research

between JS and personality, as trait EI taps into people's emotions and emotion-related behaviour.

However, the moderate correlations between JS and personality might be due to the fact that one first attempted to assess JS not as a feeling but as a set of rational aspects such as generous benefits. More particularly, Hackman and Oldham (1975) proposed that a high level of JS is experienced when there is good task identity, task independency, variety and generous benefits. As one can see, this theory is based on people's judgements and not on people's feelings about their jobs. For example, according to the well-being definition, people with high levels of well-being tend to see things differently and positively. Therefore, it can be hypothesised that people with high levels of emotional well-being (trait EI) will report higher levels of job satisfaction than their colleagues with lower levels of emotional well-being, who received the same rates of benefits and share the same work-environment. Consequently, task identity, task independency, variety and generous benefits refer to extrinsic JS.

In other words, we can form the hypothesis that trait EI and its factors will not be correlated with extrinsic JS because this form of JS does not tap into employees emotions but it is concerned with employees' perceptions regarding external job-related factors such as pay and benefits. By contrast, the intrinsic factor of JS will be strongly correlated with all trait EI factors, since this JS factor is concerned with employees' well-being, motivation and feelings about their jobs, which are directly related to trait EI factors.

H1: Trait EI and all its factors will be strongly correlated with intrinsic JS, and with JS.

With regard to the limited empirical literature on the association of OC factors with personality traits and emotion-related behaviour, it is expected that moderate to weak correlations between trait EI factors and OC components, with the exception of affective OC, will be found. According to the affective OC definition, people rely on their emotional – psychological attachment to determine how to commit to their organisation. In other, words, affective OC is a job-related feeling and will be directly related to trait EI factors. Thus,

H2: Trait EI and its factors will be significantly correlated only with affective OC.

Another aim of this study is to examine the effects of cross-industry heterogeneity on the relationship between the trait EI and intrinsic JS, JS and affective OC. Thereafter, the differences between gender and among industries, in terms of trait EI factors, JS factors and OC factors will be examined. Participants completed the short version of JS questionnaire (MSQ), which obtains scores for the two main factors of JS (intrinsic and extrinsic). The short version of MSQ is a 20-item self-report questionnaire. Moreover, we will attempt to determine whether external factors such as gender and industries explain a variance in JS, OC and trait EI. In particular, the three different groups of industry (e.g. health, education and financial) will be set up with male and female as dependent variables (DV) followed by trait EI (including its four factors), JS (including its two factors) and OC (including its three components), as independent variables (IV). Thus, no significant differences between male and female and among industries in terms of OC, JS and trait EI were expected. Trait EI, JS and OC are not expected to show any significant differences between gender and among industries.

4A.2. Method

4A.2. 1. Participants

Participants in this study were adults working full-time, aged 21-64, (Mean = 37.11, SD = 9.99). In total, 162 full-time employees participated in this study, of whom 97 were women and 56 were men. Participants worked in a variety of industries including education (29%), health care (40%) and financial services (31%). Participants had an average of 10.07 (SD = 8.52) years of work experience and had been employed at their current organisations for an average of 6.41 years (SD = 6.54). 64 participants had a university bachelor's degree, 49 had a post-graduate degree (MSc, MA, Med) and 15 had a PhD. 96 were native English speakers and 59 were non-native English speakers, and all worked in British and Irish organisations. Demographic characteristics for each group are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Demographic characteristics for each group

	Education Industry N = 47 (29%)	Health Industry N = 65 (40%)	Financial Industry N = 50 (31%)
Male	10 (21%)	11 (17%)	35 (70%)
Female	36 (77%)	48 (74%)	13 (26%)
Native English	37 (79%)	49 (75%)	10 (20%)
Non-English	9 (19%)	12 (19%)	38 (76%)
BSc	18 (38%)	31 (48%)	15 (30%)
MSc	13 (28%)	11 (17%)	18 (36%)
PhD	7 (15%)	-	8 (16%)
Med / MBA	5 (11%)	-	2 (4%)

4A.2. 2. Measures (Appendix 1)

Job Satisfaction.(JS)

The short version of MSQ consists of 20 items from the long-form MSQ that best represent each of the 20 scales of job satisfaction. MSQ (short-form) obtains scores for two factors - intrinsic (achievement and ability utilization) and extrinsic (environmental factors) satisfaction and for the global satisfaction score. Responses to each item are made on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 'Very dissatisfied' to 5 'Very satisfied'. The reliability score for the global JS was $\alpha = .70$, for intrinsic satisfaction was $\alpha = .76$ and for extrinsic satisfaction was $\alpha = .79$ (see Table 4.2).

Organisational Commitment (OC)

OC was measured using the original version of Allen and Meyer's (1990a) Affective (ACS), Continuance (CCS), and Normative (NCS) Organizational Commitment components. Responses to each item are made on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 'Disagree completely' to 7 'Agree completely'. The three original components of OC comprise 8 items each. The three components of OC generate a global OC score. For Allen and Meyer's questionnaire, the reliability score for the global OC was $\alpha = .75$, for the affective scale was $\alpha = .76$, for the continuance the reliability score that was obtained was .71 and for the normative was .67 (see Table 4.4).

Trait EI

Trait EI was assessed by the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire long form (TEIQue v.1.50; Petrides, Pérez, & Furnham, 2003). This questionnaire comprises 153 items designed to cover the sampling domain of trait EI. Participants respond on a 7-point

Likert scale ranging from 'Strongly disagree' to 'Strongly agree'. This form of TEIQue obtains scores on 15 scales, 4 factors, and global trait EI.

4A.2. 3. Procedure

Participants were recruited in different ways. All carers and nurses working at the Geriatric Hospital located in Dublin were invited to participate in this study.

Questionnaires were distributed to Unit Directors who then gave each employee a paper copy of the survey. Approximately, 300 employees were asked to complete the questionnaires. A total of 70 participants from the Geriatric hospital returned questionnaires, and only 5 questionnaires were returned blank: a response rate of 22% for carers and nurses. Further, the administrative office of the Primary Education Department from the University of Dublin generated the email list and sent the surveys to all employees by email. Two weeks after the questionnaires had been distributed to all employees of the University of Dublin, the administrative office of the University reminded the staff, via e-mail, to complete and return the questionnaires. A total of 26 employees returned the questionnaire. Another 20 questionnaires were collected from part-time post-graduate students from the University of London. All of them worked as full-time teachers in British primary and secondary schools. Only people who worked in education were debriefed with personal trait EI feedback, of course these people lost their anonymity but they were ensured confidentiality. People who worked in hospital and financial organisations declined to provide personal information (name and home address) in order to keep their anonymity as requested by their employers. Finally, over 100 questionnaires were distributed through personal contacts of people who had agreed to distribute the questionnaires to individuals in their workplace. Of these questionnaires

that were distributed in financial services, 50 were completed and returned: a response rate of 50% for financial services.

4A.3 Results

4A.3.1 Factor Analysis

A principal component factor analysis with the 20 MSQ short-form items was performed to explore the factorial structure of the MSQ short-form. Based on the theoretical factorial structure of MSQ short-form and the Scree plot 4.1, two factors accounting for 50% of the total variance, were extracted. The eigenvalues for the two factors were 7.44 (Intrinsic) and 5.51 (Extrinsic). On the one hand, the intrinsic factor contains thirteen items on topics including achievement, recognition, and other job-related features associated with the work itself. On the other hand, the extrinsic factor involves working conditions, supervision and other features of the environmental contexts. The factors were rotated via the Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. Table 4.2 presents the factor pattern matrix for MSQ short form. The factor inter-correlation matrix is presented in Table 4.3. One can see that the two factors of JS were positively correlated. Scores for each participant's responses to the 2 factors of the MSQ short-form corresponds to the scoring system as proposed by Weiss et al. (1967).

Scree Plot 4.1. Scree plot for the MSQ short-form items.

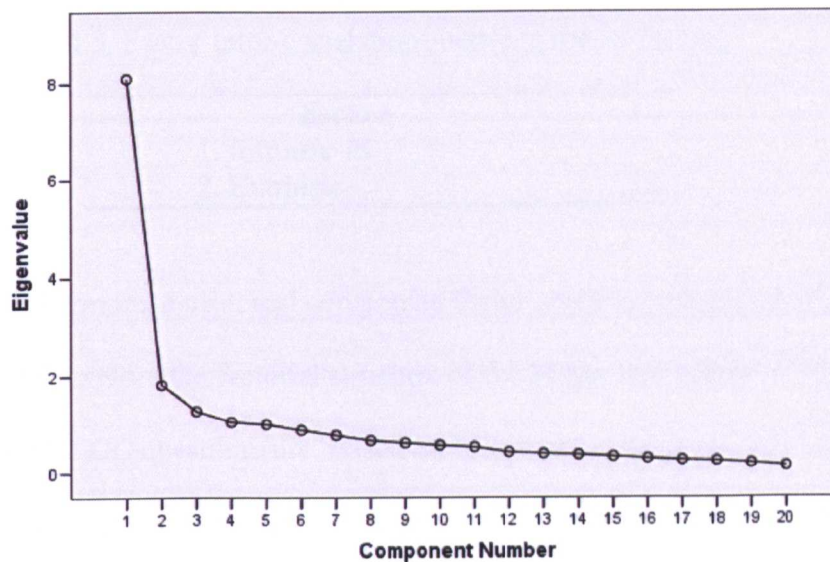


Table 4.2. Factor Pattern Matrix for the MSQ short-form items.

ITEM	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS
10. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	.877	
8. The chance to do things for other people.	.836	
15. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	.830	
3. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.	.785	
19. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	.695	
20. Being able to keep busy all the time.	.654	
1. The chance to work alone on the job.	.652	
9. The chance to tell people what to do.	.607	
2. The chance to do different things from time to time.	.599	
7. The way my job provides for steady employment.	.584	
14. The freedom to use my own judgment.	.544	
6. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	.490	
18. The praise I get for doing a good job.	.410	.381
4. The way my boss handles his/her employees.		.872
5. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.		.833
11. The way company policies are put into practice.		.770
13. The chances for advancement on this job.		.668

12. My pay and the amount of work I do.	.439
17. The way my co-workers get along with each other.	.423
16. The working conditions.	.375

Table 4.3. Factor Inter-correlations between the JS factors.

Factors	1
1. Intrinsic JS	-
2. Extrinsic	.52

Furthermore, a principal component factor analysis with the 24 OC items was performed to explore the factorial structure of the Meyer and Allens' (1999a) 3-components of OC questionnaire. Based on Meyer and Allen's OC key scoring and on the theoretical factorial structure of OC questionnaire, three factors accounting for 38% of the total variance, were extracted. The eigenvalues for the three factors of OC were 3.53 (Affective), 3.10 (Continuance) and 2.81 (Normative). The factors were rotated via the Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. Table 4.4 presents the factor pattern matrix for Meyer and Allens' OC factors, where it can be seen that the three factors emerged in the same way as proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). However, item twenty did not load on the affective factor as expected and this item was not included in scoring because it did not operationally define the factor for which it was originally created. In addition, item nine loaded on both affective and continuance factors, but it was allocated as continuance since it was designed to represent this factor. The 3 factors of OC were computed as they emerged from this factor analysis. The factor inter-correlation matrix is presented in Table 4.5. One can see that continuance OC was not correlated with affective OC and normative OC. Affective OC was moderately correlated with normative OC. It should be

noted here that the factor correlations for OC components were not consistent with those reported in Cohen’s study (1996).

Scree Plot 4.2: Scree plot for Meyer and Allens’ OC questionnaire.

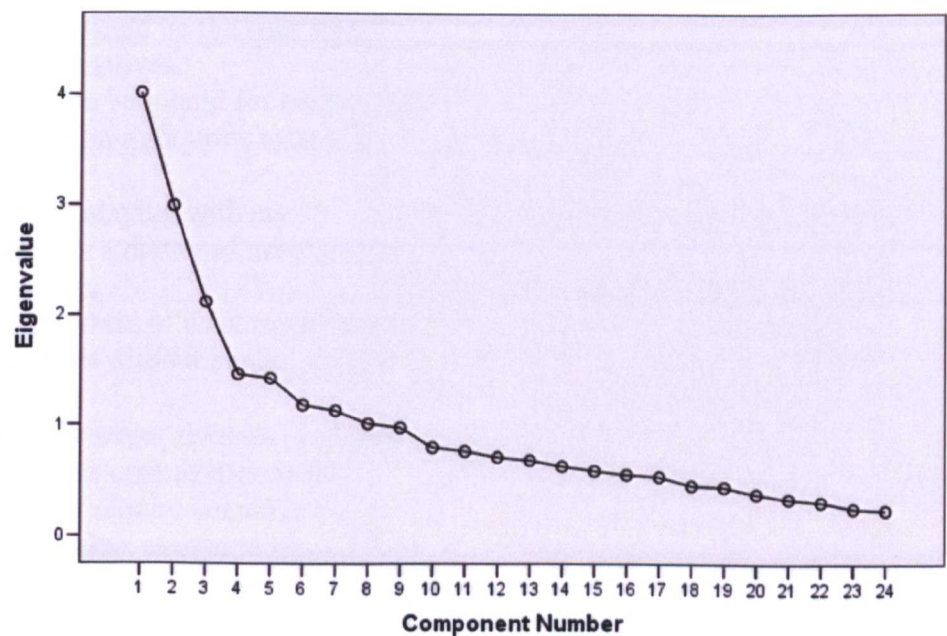


Table 4.4. Factor Pattern Matrix for the Meyer and Allens’ OC questionnaire.

ITEM	Affective OC	Continuance OC	Normative OC.
12. I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organization.	.772		
22. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	.716		
8. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it	.628		
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.617		
7. I do not feel like ‘part of the family’ at my organization.	.576		
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	.519		
9. It wouldn’t be very costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.	.489	.305	
4. I do not think that wanting to be a	.398		

'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore.		
23. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.	.714	
11. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	.703	
16. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	.696	
21. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	.683	
2. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	.482	
19. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	.422	
14. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	.387	.300
24. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.		.696
10. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.		.656
17. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.		.603
13. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.		.478
15. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me.		.439
18. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.		.438
3. I think that people these days move		.429

from company to company too often.		
5. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	.342	.389
20. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own		

Table 4.5. Factor Inter-correlations between the OC components

Components	1	2
1. Affective	-	
2. Continuance	.06	-
3. Normative	.16	.06

4A.3.2 Reliability Analysis

The internal reliabilities of the three OC components were clearly satisfactory, with only one below .70, which was the 'Normative' factor. Moreover, the internal reliabilities of 2 JS factors were very high, both above .80. Similarly, the internal reliabilities of the TEIQue factors were clearly satisfactory, all were above .80. The results are presented in Table 4.6.

4A.3.3 Pearson's Correlations

The following set of results considers the correlations of TEIQue factors with JS factors, OC components, age, and years with current employer and years in work-life. Table 4.7 shows the Pearson correlation Coefficients and identifies associations at the .01 and .05 level of significance. The purpose of the correlation analysis was to test Hypothesis 1 (H1) and Hypothesis 2 (H2). Hypotheses 1 and 2 proposed that global trait EI would be strongly correlated with general JS and its factor of intrinsic JS and with affective OC component. Results support Hypothesis 1 somewhat support and 2. As can be seen in Table 4.7, all correlations between trait EI (including its 4 factors) and

emotion-related factors of JS (intrinsic) and OC (affective) were significantly positive. However, they were not nearly as strong as the correlations between the factors of trait EI.

Table 4.6. Descriptive and Cronbach's a for all factors.

Measures	All Groups			
	Mean	SD	a	No. items
Affective	4.50	1.10	.76	7
Continuance	3.88	1.11	.71	8
Normative	3.46	0.95	.67	8
Org. Commitment	3.94	0.70	.75	23
Intrinsic Satisfaction	3.74	0.76	.91	13
Extrinsic Satisfaction	3.34	0.79	.80	7
Job Satisfaction	3.60	0.70	.92	20
Well-being	5.38	0.82	.84	3 scales
Self-control	4.61	0.76	.81	3 scales
Emotionality	5.06	0.71	.80	4 scales
Sociability	4.83	0.76	.84	3 scales
Global Trait EI	4.96	0.61	.92	15 scales

N = 162

Furthermore, general JS was positively correlated with global trait EI and its factors (well-being, self-control and emotionality), and with affective OC component. As expected, trait EI and two of its factors (well-being and self-control) were correlated negatively with continuance OC. Moreover, trait EI and its factors were not correlated with normative and general OC and extrinsic JS. The OC was positively correlated with years with the present employer and years in work-life.

Table 4.7. Correlations among the variables

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Well Being	-								
2. Self-Control	.58**	-							
3. Emotionality	.70**	.49**	-						
4. Sociability	.60**	.42**	.69**	-					
5. Global Trait EI	.87**	.75**	.88**	.79**	-				
6. Affective	.25**	.13*	.25**	.18*	.26**	-			
7. Continuance	-.23**	-.19*	-.14	-.12	-.20*	.01	-		
8. Normative	.02	.08	-.10	-.19*	.05	.27**	.17*	-	
9. OC	.02	.01	.01	-.05	.01	.68**	.64**	.68**	-
10. Intrinsic	.31**	.21**	.30**	.20**	.30**	.50**	-.12	.04	.22**
11. Extrinsic	.08	.14	.03	.02	.07	.38**	-.17*	.05	.14*
12. JS	.24**	.20**	.22**	.15	.24**	.50**	-.15*	.05	.21**
13. Age	-.02	-.06	-.03	-.02	-.05	.28**	.18*	.15	.31
14. Time Present Job	-.03	-.04	-.07	-.01	-.04	.23**	.16*	.24**	.31**
15. Time Work-life	-.03	-.08	-.06	-.11	-.06	.21**	.02	.12	.17*

Table 4.7. Correlations among the variables (Continued)

Measure	10	11	12	13	14
11. Extrinsic	.62**	-			
12. JS	.95**	.83**	-		
13. Age	.26**	.15*	.25**	-	
14. Time Present Job	.06	-.05	.02	.62**	-
15. Time Work-life	.16*	.04	.13	.68**	.59**

** Significant at the 0.01 level; * Significant at the 0.05 level

4A.3.4 Partial Correlation

Partial correlation was used to describe the relationship between the trait EI factors and affective work-related aspects (e.g. intrinsic JS, JS and affective OC) whilst removing the effects of cross-industry heterogeneity on this relationship (see Table 4.8).

The examination of the partial correlation controlling for source reveals a pattern of findings similar to those produced by the Pearson correlations in Table 4.7. The analyses suggest that the relationship between the four factors of trait EI with affective work-related aspects is not affected by the heterogeneity of the industry. In other words, the JS, intrinsic JS and affective OC depend on the emotion-related personality traits, regardless of the type of industry. These findings further support our Hypotheses 1 and 2.

Table 4.8. Partial Correlations between the four trait EI factors and the three affective work –related aspects controlling for the industry.

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Global Trait EI							
2. Well Being	.88**						
3. Self-Control	.75**	.58**					
4. Emotionality	.89**	.72**	.49**				
5. Sociability	.79**	.59**	.42**	.70**			
6. Affective	.28**	.29**	.15	.25**	.22**		
7. Intrinsic	.31**	.28**	.22**	.30**	.23**	.49**	
8. JS	.25**	.23**	.21**	.22**	.17*	.50**	.95**

** Significant at the 0.01 level; * Significant at the 0.05 level

4A.3.5 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The last sets of analyses consider the differences between the industries and gender in terms of their trait EI, general JS, intrinsic JS and affective OC. In order to examine the differences between the three industries (education, health and finance) and gender across our main variables, trait EI factors, OC factors and JS factors, a two-way ANOVA was performed. The advantage of this design is that multiple

variables can be tested at the same time; as my data are from a single questionnaire it is appropriate to use this test. Also, this method enables us to determine whether one variable affects the other variable. ANOVA is more appropriate for finding statistical evidence of inconsistency or difference across the means of groups. The results of two-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc tests are presented in Table 4.9.

The post-hoc test data showed that there are significant differences between male and female in terms of the global OC ($F(2, 147) = 2.78$, $t = 6.61$, $p < 0.01$). As we can see in Figure 4.2 and Table 4.9, those who worked in the health industry scored higher on general OC than those who worked in the financial and education industries. Moreover, men who worked in the financial industry had significantly lower scores on global OC. In contrast, women who worked in the financial sector scored higher on general OC than their male counterparts.

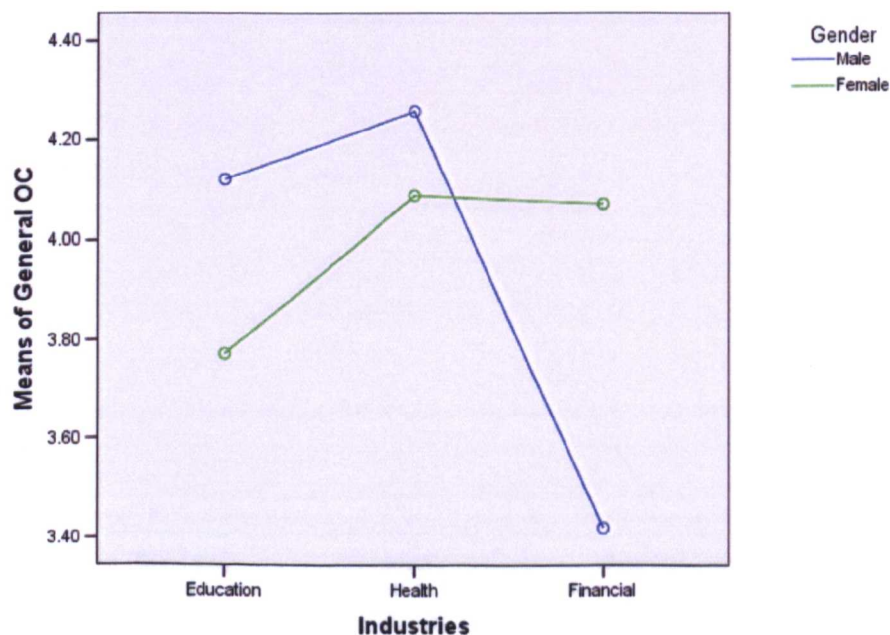


Figure 4.2. Organisational commitment across industries and gender

Furthermore, there are significant differences between gender with respect to their work industry in terms of their affective OC and OC ($F(2, 147) = 7.04, t = 6.33, p < 0.01$; $F(2, 147) = 2.78, t = 6.61, p < .01$, respectively). In particular, men (Mean = 4.55, SD = .88) who worked in education scored significantly higher in affective OC than women (Mean = 4.13, SD = 1.04) from the same industry and higher than men (Mean = 4.30, SD = .96) who worked in the health industry, who scored higher than those who worked in the financial industry (Mean = 3.61, SD = 1.06). On the other hand, women (Mean = 4.65, SD = .50) who worked in the financial industry scored significantly higher in affective OC than the women who worked in the health (Mean = 4.31, SD = .91) and education industries (Mean = 4.13, SD = 1.04).

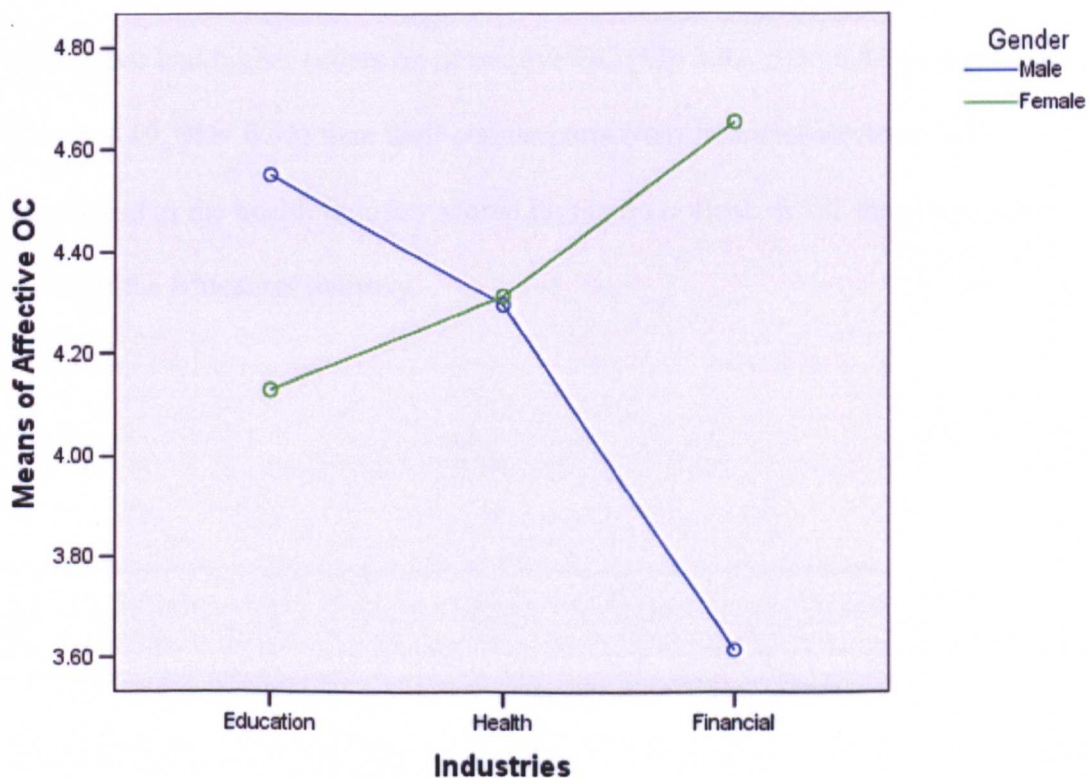


Figure 4.3. Effective commitment across industries and gender

As can be seen in Table 4.9, there was a significant difference among industries in terms of the well-being factor of trait EI ($F(2, 161) = 3.20, p < 0.05$) and sociability ($F(2, 161) = 8.78, p < 0.01$). In particular, there were considerable differences between the health industry ($M = 4.58, SD = 0.72$) and the financial industry ($M = 5.14, SD = 0.68$) in terms of well-being and sociability. Moreover, there were statistical differences between men and women in terms of self-control ($F(1, 161) = 14.87, p < 0.01$): men scored higher on self-control than women did. In general, the inconsistent gender ratios across industries do not seem to affect dramatically the results.

Furthermore, there were significant differences between industries in terms of normative and general OC scores ($F(2, 161) = 8.27, t = 10.82, p < 0.01$ and $F(2, 161) = 1.82, t = 4.32, p < 0.05$, respectively). Particularly, people who worked in the health sector had higher scores on normative OC ($M = 3.93, SD = 0.84$) and general OC ($M = 4.19, SD = 0.73$) than their counterparts from financial services. Also, people who worked in the health industry scored higher on normative OC than those who worked in the education industry.

Table 4.9. Descriptive and post-hoc results

	I	G	a) Education Industry				b) Health Industry				c) Financial Industry			
			1) Male		2) Female		1) Male		2) Female		1) Male		2) Female	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Well-being	1)c>a>b 2)c>b>a		5.37	0.76	5.25	1.10	5.19	0.71	5.31	0.71	5.53	0.69	5.36	0.90
Self-control		1>2	5.19	0.78	4.35	0.72	4.87	0.71	4.58	0.75	4.83	0.67	4.31	0.79
Emotionality			5.09	0.61	5.26	0.77	4.92	0.58	4.90	0.68	5.07	0.74	5.39	0.49
Sociability	1)c>a>b 2)c>a>b		5.00	0.72	4.81	0.84	4.69	0.62	4.55	0.73	5.14	0.69	5.27	0.53
Trait EI			5.14	0.62	4.92	0.72	4.90	0.60	4.84	0.57	5.08	0.58	5.18	0.46
Affective OC			5.13	1.16	4.52	1.13	4.42	1.07	4.65	0.98	3.84	1.18	5.04	0.45
Continuance OC			3.86	1.04	3.91	1.11	4.34	0.91	3.96	0.99	3.51	1.02	4.17	1.71
Normative OC	1) b>a>c 2) b>a>c		3.66	1.14	3.09	1.00	4.15	0.56	3.86	0.92	2.97	0.64	3.17	0.85
OC	1) b>a>c 2) b>c>a		4.22	0.75	3.84	0.73	4.30	0.55	4.16	0.57	3.44	0.69	4.13	0.56
Intrinsic JS			4.00	0.61	3.94	0.74	3.66	0.67	3.65	0.88	3.77	0.52	3.47	0.97
Extrinsic JS			3.76	0.40	3.21	0.66	3.15	0.91	3.42	0.91	3.32	0.81	3.05	0.87
JS			3.92	0.47	3.68	0.66	3.48	0.73	3.57	0.85	3.61	0.54	3.32	0.81

4A. 4 Discussion

The present study has shown the primary importance of trait EI for the development and enhancement of JS, intrinsic JS, affective and continuance OC. The results of this study provided some evidential support for Hypotheses 1 and 2. Hypothesis 1 predicted that trait EI would be related to JS. One can see in Tables 4.7 and 4.8 that all correlations between trait EI (including its 4 factors) and emotion-related factors of JS (intrinsic) were significantly positive. However, the correlations were not nearly as high as those between the concepts that are clearly directly related (the components of trait EI and JS). Of the trait EI factors, global trait EI and wellbeing were the most strongly correlated with JS at .24 each. Sociability was the least strongly correlated at .15. This fits with my earlier discussion which linked general happiness and positive attitudes with high JS. Sociability is the factor of trait EI that it would be argued is least associated with general happiness and positive outlook; people could be sociable and outgoing for various reasons not necessarily linked to a healthy emotional background. Additionally, the qualities required for being sociable may not be those required for success and subsequent contentment in a particular field (diligence, focus and commitment, for example, could be expected of those with high JS but not necessarily of those with high sociability).

The present findings generally are in accordance with previous studies which showed that emotion-related behavioural tendencies and personality traits were related to JS (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951, Fisher & Hanna, 1931, Hoppock, 1935, Judge, et al., 1998, Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002), consistent with the notion that a person's affective OC to his/her organisation was determined by their emotional and psychological attachment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

These findings confirm the predictions of Hypotheses 1 that trait EI would be strongly associated with JS and its emotion-related factors (e.g. intrinsic JS). As expected, the correlation obtained in Study 3 was not in line with those reported by Judge et al. (2002), regarding the moderate correlations between personality and JS. However, our findings were consistent with those reported in Petrides and Furnham (2006), especially in terms of the relationship of trait EI and JS. Those results can also be interpreted in the context of the emotional aspects of human behaviour and positive self-evaluations and their relationship with JS.

According to Judge et al. (2000), individuals who are predisposed to experience positive emotions for a certain situation are less likely to experience negative emotions when confronted with such situations. Furthermore, our results appear to support Judge et al.'s (1998 and 2001), Larsen and Katelaar (1991) and Magnus et al.'s (1993) findings. Those researchers unanimously found that positive emotion-related, self-evaluations and emotion-related perceptions were strongly correlated with JS. The confirmation of our Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 shows that trait EI, which is an emotion-related personality factor, appears to be a strong predictor of intrinsic JS and affective OC. The strong correlations of trait EI factors with JS and its intrinsic factor can therefore be considered as strong evidence that trait EI is consistently related to employees' JS in different industries.

Hypothesis 2 stated that trait EI and its factors would be significantly correlated only with affective OC. My results showed a relatively weak positive correlation between trait EI and its factors and affective OC, so in this sense the hypothesis was supported. However, they also showed a negative correlation of a similar level with continuance OC, so the hypothesis was not entirely correct. The

correlation with normative OC was generally not significant, although there was a weakly significant negative correlation with sociability.

In view of the definition of affective OC which describes it as based on employees' emotional attachment to their organisation and/ or to their occupation (Meyer & Allen, 1991), it would ensue that trait EI's factors would be associated with affective OC consistently in all domains. Furthermore, trait EI and its factors were not correlated with general OC and this finding was consistent with Petrides and Furnham's study (2006). This is owed to the fact that trait EI shares common variance with measures of emotion-related variables. It is worth noting that employers in any industry should have to rely on their employees' emotional personality traits as primary determinants of the employee's satisfaction and affective commitment level.

Having considered these results, it can be proposed that trait EI should perhaps not be expected to be an indicator of all components of OC, as trait EI measures the state of the individual, whereas OC measures an individual's relationship with an organisation. We would expect those with high trait EI to be aware of their emotional needs and good at dealing with difficult situations and progressing at work. But as part of this, we would also expect them to be in control of their happiness and not be indiscriminately loyal to any organisation. It would be suggested that if there were a strong correlation between trait EI and aspects of OC, it would not prove anything about the relationship between the measurements, but rather that the particular fields or organisations studied were in some ways particularly good or bad fields. We would expect those with high trait EI to be committed to good organisations; accordingly, if the sample had high trait EI and the correlations with aspects of OC were strongly negative, this could indicate that there was something undesirable about the field or organisation.

The weak correlations found in my study may therefore either be due to the range of trait EI levels in my sample (therefore some are better than others at judging good organisations) and/or to the fact that it has been sampled three different industries and four organisations (indicating that some of these are good and some are bad industries or organisations to work in). To test these ideas it would be needed to isolate the respondents with high EI and ensure they were separated by organisation, and analyse their results in this respect. For this to be robust a larger sample size would be useful.

The last part of our study investigated the differences among industries and between genders in terms of trait EI and its factors, global JS and its emotional-related factors and global OC and its factors. The two-way ANOVA showed that there were significant differences among industries and between genders, although only in terms of normative OC and not in terms of affective work-related variables. The final conclusion will be focused on a central theme that can be found in this chapter. More particularly, the four factors of trait EI as assessed by TEIQue appear to be an important concept for psychologists who seek to explain and predict job-related attitudes and behaviours that can be assessed with self-report measurements.

A concern with the present study's sample is that there is no balanced distribution of men and women across these three industries. This can be considered as a limitation. However, this sample can be representative of these three industries. As it has been mentioned above, this study was carried out in sectors that can be categorised as female-dominant (e.g. Education and Health) and male-dominant (e.g. Finance). In fact, most of Geriatric Hospital's employees were female and most of lecturers and teachers that were asked to participate were women. In particular, only few men worked in Primary Education Department of the University of Dublin and in

Geriatric Hospital. On the other hand, more men were found and contacted to participate in the present study from the financial sector. However, this unbalanced distribution was controlled by using ANOVA, which is appropriate analysis for finding statistical evidence of inconsistency or difference across the means of groups.

Study 4: The Relationship Between Trait EI and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

4B. 1. Purpose and Hypotheses of Study 4

The purpose of Study 4 is to explore the relationships between counterproductive (deviant) work behaviour and trait EI factors. The purpose of this study relies on Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) general theory of counterproductive work behaviour, proposing that a lack of self-control or personal restraint to resist negative situational conditions can cause inappropriate behaviour with negative consequences for oneself. In the present study, the counterproductive work behaviour will be assessed using Marcus, Schuler, Quell and Humpfner's (2002) self-report questionnaire. This self-report measurement was designed to assess the well-researched factors of counterproductive work behaviour, which are: absenteeism, substance use, workplace aggression and employee theft and the two types of counterproductive work behaviour: interpersonal and organisational deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Moreover, the conceptual distinction of counterproductive work behaviour as was proposed by Robinson and Bennett (1995) is concerned with the targets of interpersonal counterproductive work behaviour such as when the target is a person/ colleague (interpersonal), with and the organisational

counterproductive work behaviour when the target is their company or their organisation.

Previous studies (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt & Barrick, 2004, Judge, Le Pine & Rich, 2006, Miles, Borman, Spector & Fox, 2002, Salgado, 2002) generally focused on the relationship between counterproductive work behaviour and personal characteristics (personality) and did not focus on the relationship between counterproductive work behaviour and individuals' perceptions of situations. As Colbert et al. (2004) noted, "employees are likely to demonstrate counterproductive work behaviour in response to negative perceptions of the work situation only if such behaviours are consistent with their personality traits" (p.599).

Previous meta-analytic research (Salgado, 2002) on big five personality traits and counterproductive work behaviours at work including measures of deviant behaviour, absenteeism, and turnover and accident rates behaviour, showed that none of the big five personality traits were significant predictors of absenteeism.

Furthermore, Salgado's (2002) meta-analytic study showed that counterproductive work behaviour was a valid predictor of conscientiousness and agreeableness with operational validity .26 and .20, respectively. Using the two distinct factors of counterproductive work behaviour (organisational and personal) developed by Bennett and Robinson, (1995), Judge et al. (2006) examined the relationship between big five personality traits and organisational and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviour. Their results revealed that interpersonal counterproductive work behaviour was negatively related to openness experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness, whereas none of the big five personality traits were related to organisational counterproductive work behaviour. Similarly, Colbert et al. (2004) proposed that organisational counterproductive work behaviour is stronger

for employees with low conscientiousness and emotional stability, and that interpersonal counterproductive work behaviour is stronger for employees with low agreeableness.

To date, there is no scientific evidence to convincingly show that trait EI is related to counterproductive work behaviours. However, there is enough evidence from research that has examined the relationship between counterproductive work behaviour with the big five personality traits and self-control, given also the strong positive correlations between big five personality traits and trait EI (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2001) and Colbert et al.'s (2004) argument. Further to this, trait EI includes many positive self-evaluations aspects that have a significantly positive role in many important aspects of human functioning such as: empathy for others and one's own emotions, emotional self-concept, coping with stress, maintaining positive mood, and happiness. Previous studies have showed that, on the one hand, trait EI is negatively related to aspects of dysfunctional attitudes such as exclusions from school and truancy, and negative coping styles. On the other hand, trait EI is positively related to positive life outcomes such as life satisfaction and happiness (Furnham & Petrides, 2003, Palmer, Donaldson, & Stough, 2002, Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004, Petrides, Pérez-González, & Furnham, 2007). Thus, one formulates the following hypothesis:

H3: Trait EI and its factors will be negatively correlated with interpersonal and organisational counterproductive work behaviour.

4B. 2. Method

4B. 2.1. Participants

Participants were 47 full-time teachers/ lecturers who were employed in British and Irish schools and universities. Of the participants, 10 were men and 36

were women. 79 percent of the respondents were native English speakers. The average age of the participants was 39.78 (SD = 10.64), ranging from 21 to 62.

4B. 2.2. Materials (Appendix 2)

Counterproductive Behaviour

The Counterproductive work Behaviour (see Appendix 2) was assessed by using the Questionnaire of workplace counterproductive (Marcus, Schuler, Quell & Humpfner, 2002). This is a comprehensive self-report questionnaire of workplace counterproductive. This questionnaire obtains scores for different targets of counterproductive behaviour (organisational and interpersonal deviance) and for different forms of manifestation (absenteeism, substance use, aggression, and theft). Scales points are ranged from 0 = 'Never' to 5 = 'Every time'.

Trait EI

Trait EI was assessed by the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Long – Form (TEIQue v.1.50; Petrides, Pérez, & Furnham, 2003). See Study 1.

4B. 2.3. Procedure

The procedure of the current study was the same as that in Study 1 for the academic population (teachers). The same sample was used.

4B. 3. Results

Correlations of the TEIQue factors with counterproductive work behaviour including organisational and interpersonal counterproductive and absenteeism, substance use, theft and aggression were examined, using Pearson's correlation coefficients to identify associations at the .01 and .05 level of significance. The purpose of correlation analysis was to test Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 predicted that global trait EI and its factors would be negatively correlated with interpersonal and organisational counterproductive work behaviour.

As can be seen in Table 4.11, trait EI was negatively and strongly correlated with all counterproductive work behaviours. Regarding trait EI factors, well-being and emotionality were negatively and strongly correlated with all counterproductive work behaviours. However, both of these seem to be clearly in the negative direction, but they do not come out as significant because of the sample size. Self-control was negatively and significantly correlated with counterproductive work behaviour, organisational counterproductive absenteeism and theft. Sociability was also negatively correlated with all counterproductive work behaviour except with absenteeism. Our Hypothesis 3 (H3) was fully confirmed.

Descriptives for all factors were as follows in Table 4.10:

Table 4.10 Descriptives for all factors.

Measures	All Groups	
	Mean	SD
Counterproductive	0.56	0.67
Organisational Deviance	0.81	0.73
Interpersonal Deviance	0.30	0.68
Absenteeism	1.05	0.93
Substance Use	0.50	0.82
Aggression	0.37	0.70
Theft	0.65	0.79
Well-being	5.37	0.80
Self-control	4.62	0.69
Emotionality	5.23	0.69
Sociability	4.93	0.66
Global Trait EI	5.00	0.60

Table 4.11. Correlations between trait EI factors and counterproductive work behaviours.

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Trait EI	-										
2. Well-Being	.92**	-									
3. Self Control	.74**	.59**	-								
4. Emotionality	.88**	.76**	.48**	-							
5. Sociability	.86**	.73**	.54**	.74**	-						
6. Counterproductive	-.45**	-.52**	-.32*	-.42**	-.32*	-					
7. Organisational Deviance	-.44**	-.49**	-.40**	-.35*	-.27*	.95**	-				
8. Interpersonal Deviance	-.40**	-.48**	-.19	-.43**	-.34*	.95**	.78**	-			
9. Absenteeism	-.32*	-.41**	-.43**	-.20*	-.18	.77**	.91**	.53**	-		
10. Substance Use	-.34*	-.34*	-.22	-.30*	-.25*	.75**	.68**	.75**	.44**	-	
11. Aggression	-.38**	-.48**	-.17	-.41**	-.32*	.93**	.79**	.97**	.54**	.71**	-
12. Theft	-.47**	-.47**	-.29*	-.41**	-.31*	.92**	.88**	.87**	.63**	.64**	.86**

** Significant at the 0.01 level; * Significant at the 0.05 level

4B. 4. Discussion

The statistics obtained in Study 4 examined the negative relationship between trait EI and its factors with counterproductive work behaviour. The aim of this study was to clarify whether one can affirm that trait EI is negatively associated with extreme negative work-related behavioural tendencies such as theft, aggressive behaviour, absenteeism and substance use. More specifically, we emitted the hypothesis that trait EI would be negatively correlated with interpersonal and organisational counterproductive work behaviour. Our hypothesis was fully confirmed. Trait EI was correlated negatively with all factors of counterproductive work behaviour such as absenteeism, substance use, theft, aggressiveness personal deviance and organisational deviance. These results are consistent with the study of Colbert et al. (2004) and they were inconsistent with Judge et al.'s (2006) findings, which showed that personality is correlated only with interpersonal counterproductive work behaviour.

The results of these studies also revealed that emotionality and well-being were strongly negatively correlated with counterproductive behaviour and its factors. Sociability and self-control were related to counterproductive work behaviour and to most of counterproductive work behaviour factors. Theoretically, these results were consistent with Marcus et al.'s (2002) study, which showed that self-control is strongly and negatively correlated with all counterproductive work behaviours. Moreover, it is consistent with the theoretical conceptualisation of self-control, according to which self-control is defined as a "tendency to avoid acts whose long-term costs exceed their momentary benefits" (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990, p.4).

One specific result of interest was correlations with self control. Self control's weakest negative correlation was with aggression – one might have expected a very

high negative correlation here, suggesting that those with low self control were likely to be unable to control their aggression and display it excessively. Instead it appears that the link is moderate – this is perhaps because the questionnaire was self-report, and respondents were underestimating their aggressive behaviour (where as something like absenteeism, which was more strongly negatively related to self control, can be assessed and self-reported in a more objective way.

This raises a more general issue with the study. In asking employees to self-report their counterproductive work behaviour, we are making several assumptions. Firstly, we assume that they are aware of the behaviour. These behaviours are by definition destructive to employees success in the workplace and it is likely that at least some employees displaying these behaviours would prefer not to display them, and that some of those do not even realise they are doing so. Indeed, ensuring that employees acknowledge counterproductive behaviour is a known challenge for managers in the workplace – so we perhaps cannot expect employees to have the self-awareness to report it accurately.

Additionally, we assume that if they are aware of their counterproductive behaviour, they will be willing to report it accurately. Despite assurances of confidentiality, many employees may not be comfortable reporting their counterproductive behaviour due to concerns over how the information will be used. We should also consider the possibility that certain questions are being reported less accurately than others. For example, most workplaces will have a policy on substance abuse that could quickly lead to dismissal, whereas the consequences for an incident of low-level aggression or absenteeism that could be accounted for with excuses are likely to be much less severe. Employees may see it as prudent to under-report on particular questions in this case.

Finally, it was interesting to see the consistently negative relationships of well-being and emotionality with all counterproductive work behaviours. Thus, one way that organisations can reduce deviance is to focus on individuals' well-being and emotionality, which is concerned with the subjective positive perception. This finding supports Colbert et al.'s (2004) assumption that employees can demonstrate deviant behaviour in response to negative perceptions of their work situation, and when they do not have the personality traits to constrain the deviant behaviour.

The study was carried out on teachers and lecturers. As public sector organisations, schools and universities tend to have very robust HR policies and support systems, which would affect the employees behaviour and perceptions. Additionally, by the nature of their job these employees are in a position of responsibility and authority and need to behave in a particular way to work effectively with students. We would expect this to affect the way they express emotions and moderate behaviour in the workplace. Furthermore, this study had a small sample size of 47. It could have been improved with a larger sample size. It would be interesting to repeat this study in different professions and larger sample to see whether the results varied in this regard and investigate whether these tentative assumptions merit further study.

An additional concern with teachers and lecturers is that their workload and tasks vary significantly over the course of an annual cycle. The results of a study carried out at a peak workload time such as exam marking or the start of a new term may be quite different from one carried out at a relatively quiet time of year. For this reason it would be particularly interesting in this industry to repeat the study throughout the year.

4. Summary and Look ahead

In general, these two studies in this chapter provide strong evidence of validity for trait EI. Trait EI appears as a critical predictor of important parameters of JS, OC and counterproductive work behaviour. The findings in this chapter are among the most promising in the entire trait EI literature because they are concerned with the real work-related perceptions. On a more specific level, the present findings suggest that trait EI seems to be a stronger predictor of JS and affective OC and counterproductive behaviour than big five personality traits. On the one hand, this assumption accords well with JS and individual differences literature review where it can be seen that the big five personality traits were moderately and weakly associated with JS. On the other hand, the strong correlation of trait EI and JS, OC and counterproductive work behaviour accords well with the theoretical foundation of trait EI and the impact of emotions on people's behaviour, as well as with Petrides and Furnham's study (2003). The following chapter will focus on trait EI, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction and on how they relate to each other (along with some other factors). The final chapter will look at how trait EI influences risk seeking behaviour and shape people's decisions, tendencies and personality.

Chapter 5. Study 5: The Relationship Between Trait EI with Job Satisfaction (JS), Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), Motivational Needs and with ‘High-Flying’ Personality Traits

5.1. Introduction

5.1.1. Purposes

This chapter will explore in detail the relationship trait EI has with job satisfaction (JS), organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), psychological motivational needs and with ‘high-flying’ personality traits. The origin of the various hypotheses, especially those concerning emotion-related behavioural aspects, is of particular interest. Indeed, the derivation of hypotheses for this study is an integral part of elucidating the role of trait EI in organisational settings.

Firstly, this study will investigate the relationship between trait EI and JS as manifested in Chapter 4 (Study 3). Then, we will determine whether there is a significant relationship between trait EI and psychological motivational needs. These individual motivational needs are based on various work-related factors which influence JS. The idea is that motivational needs interact with individuals’ emotional behaviour such as well-being, emotionality, sociability and self-control. Considering the parallels that exist between emotion-related motives and trait EI, it will be posited that an individual high in trait EI is likely to be more motivated and more satisfied with his/ her job.

The third purpose of this study is to determine if there is a significant relationship between the trait EI and the OCB. The behavioural variables of OCB and trait EI have not been studied together despite the apparent parallels that connect the two fields. For example, both of them are concerned with individual behaviour and personality traits and are driven by motivational factors.

The fourth purpose of this study is to determine whether trait EI factors are significantly related to key work-related personality traits. A measurement was developed for the purposes of this study in order to identify individuals who present a high-flying employee profile.

5.1.2. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

The conceptual framework of OCB was developed by Organ in 1988. He defined it as “individual work behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). Organ’s OCB model consists of five factors. The first factor is known as altruistic type behaviour, and refers to behaviour that helps organizational members. The second factor is sportsmanship, which refers to the type of behaviour of those who, when enduring an unpleasant situation, withhold complaints. The third factor of OCB is organisational conscientiousness and refers to the type of behaviour in which commitment and persistence are demonstrated. The fourth factor of OCB is labelled as courtesy, and refers to the behaviour that helps members of organisation prevent problems from occurring. The last factor of Organ’s (1988) OCB model is civic virtue, which refers to behaviour in which people engage in the political process of the organisation.

Later, Moorman and Blakely (1995) identified two major factors of OCB. The first factor they identified is altruism; the second factor is generalised compliance. They defined the general compliance factor as general workplace behaviour such as punctuality, sincerity towards work, honesty and work commitment. In general, OCB was defined as work-related behaviour which benefits the organisation and employees within the organisation. However, crucially, these behaviours are not part of any job

description, and these sorts of work-related behaviour are a product of distinct personality traits such as conscientiousness and agreeableness.

Previous studies found that OCB raises organisational effectiveness and enhances organisational performance by reducing friction and raising efficiency (Ball, Trevino & Sims, 1994; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) claimed that individual characteristics were very important antecedents of OCB. In particular, they argued that individual characteristics were a combination of personality traits and behaviour. A study (Organ & Ryan, 1995) on individual characteristics in determining OCB focused primarily on the morale factor, which is referred to as employee satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceptions of fairness and perceptions of leader supportiveness. Another study (Barrick & Mount, 1991) focused on the impact of personality traits, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, extraversion and neuroticism on OCB.

According to Costa and McCrae (1992), the personality trait of conscientiousness encompasses attributes such as neatness, dependability, perseverance and punctuality. This definition of conscientiousness was empirically confirmed by Konovsky and Organ (1996) who found that the conscientiousness personality trait is significantly related to both civic virtue and organisational conscientiousness. Similarly, Neuman and Kickul (1998) showed that conscientiousness was strongly correlated with altruism, courtesy and sportsmanship. Tilman (1998) also reported a strong relationship between conscientiousness and OCB.

Considering agreeableness as another distinctive personality trait, it has been proven that agreeableness correlates with courtesy and altruism (Organ, 1994). However, across the studies, agreeableness had the largest average correlation with

the altruism factor of OCB (Organ & Ryan, 1995). According to McCrae's (2002) definition, the agreeableness factor was designed to measure generosity, courteousness, selflessness, good-naturedness and so enhances working with others.

In general, there is extensive evidence that OCB relates to two basic personality traits (conscientiousness and agreeableness), both of which have much to do with trait EI. Although neither of them map directly onto a factor of trait EI, both are linked to constructs in its domain. In particular, agreeableness can be identified with trait happiness and trait optimism. Conscientiousness does not link so directly with any particular domain, but as it has been discussed above, it has been shown to be linked to high trait EI in general in that the type of traits required for conscientiousness are also the type of traits required for high EI and the outcomes associated with that. In other words, if personality traits do explain a large part of OCB, then it can be assumed that trait EI will explain a large part of OCB. Thus, the first hypothesis for this chapter will be written as:

H1: Trait EI is positively correlated with OCB.

The link between OCB and trait EI also indicates that we should expect a link between OCB and JS, and OCB and OC. OCB involves acting in ways which are beneficial to the organisation. Obviously those who are committed to an organisation are likely to act in such a way. The kind of personality traits that would encourage positive feeling and loyalty towards an organisation are also the kind of traits that would encourage citizenship. Similarly, those with high JS are likely to be generally happy and positive (with high EI), which is also the case for those with high OCB. The three constructs could be said to form a holistic picture of an emotionally balanced and effective, and hence committed and productive, employee. Together they represent a very desirable state for employers to encourage in their employees,

and therefore more research into their relationship and interdependence would be valuable.

5.1.3. High Flying Personality Traits

According to previous findings from Chapters, 2, 4 and 5, one can claim that trait EI and its factors are key determinants of people's work-related behaviour such as leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, job commitment, decision-making and counterproductive work behaviour. Previous chapters have illuminated the correlation between trait EI and many key work-related aspects. In view of the fact that trait EI is a personality trait, one can expect trait EI to be related to identifiable personality traits that characterise somebody's individual effectiveness at work.

For years psychologists turned to cognitive ability as a predictor of job performance. Smarter people were considered more likely to enjoy successful careers. Researchers now say that intelligence is only part of the story. Creativity, leadership, integrity, attendance and cooperation also play major roles in a person's job suitability and performance. In the light of these new insights, psychologists are trying to tease out personality's impact on overall job performance. Although they have not unravelled the details, most agreed that personality is as important as intelligence, and maybe more so for some aspects of work-related performance.

For the purpose of this study, a questionnaire will be developed in order to assess nine personality traits that have been empirically and theoretically associated with employees' work-related behaviour, such as teamwork, leadership and performance. As discussed above, conscientiousness is a personality trait that has attracted the attention of many scholars. For example, Barrick, Mount and Judge (2001) analyzed the results of 15 meta-analytic studies that had examined the relationship between personality and job performance. They concluded that

conscientiousness consistently predicted performance for all jobs, from managerial and sales positions to skilled and semiskilled work.

Conscientiousness was assessed because it is a good trait at predicting elements such as attendance, reliability and attention to detail. Conscientiousness is the only personality trait fundamental to all jobs and job-related criteria. De Fruyt and Salgado (2003) proposed a conceptual explanation of the relationship between conscientiousness and work place performance. In particular, they suggested that people with high scores on conscientiousness were more committed at work, resulting in higher productivity, enabling them to gain more job knowledge, put in extraordinary efforts, consciously set and implement goals and avoid counterproductive behaviour.

Neuroticism appeared as a valid predictor for only some criteria or occupations. For example, several studies have demonstrated that individuals who scored high in neuroticism (and low in emotional stability) typically perform more poorly on a variety of tasks compared with those low in neuroticism (Eysenck, 1983, Eysenck & Eysenck, 1983). However, a meta-analytic study suggested that conscientiousness was more strongly related to job performance than low neuroticism was (Barrick, et al., 2001).

Neuroticism reflects one's tendency to experience negative emotions such as fear, anger, and disgust (Costa & McCrae, 1992). According to Costa and McCrae, 1992), a higher level of neuroticism implies a higher level of psychological distress, emotional instability and maladjustment. Hence, people who score high on neuroticism are those who experience more negative emotions. Neuroticism is reflected in poor job attitudes and high levels of occupational stress, and it impacts on individuals' job performance. Tellegen (1985) suggested that neuroticism functions as

a warning system activated by perceptions of environmental uncertainty, and tends to interfere with one's ability to adapt. Thus, individuals high in neuroticism are thought to be less able to both control their impulses and cope effectively with stress.

Openness to experience is another personality trait that has been shown to predict some aspects of performance in some occupations (Barrick, et al., 2001). According to Costa and McCrae, 1992, openness is a good trait for predicting openness to new opinions, actions, options and ideas the ideas of others. More specifically, openness to experience has consistently been associated with training proficiency (Barrick & Mount, 1991, Salgado, 1997). They also showed that employees who are curious, creative and have broad interests are more likely to benefit from training. Employees with high scores on openness to experience are more willing to engage in learning experiences, due to their curiosity. This may explain why openness to experience was strongly related to training performance. However, the scope of training and skills development enables companies to increase productivity and performance. It is a well-known fact that companies spend large sums of money for training and skills development, so it is very important for them to employ people who are able to perform and learn effectively.

Type A personality is known as the Type A Behaviour; it encompasses a set of characteristics that include being impatient, excessively time-conscious, insecure about one's status, highly competitive, hostile and aggressive, and incapable of relaxing (Friedman & Rosenman, 1974). A type "A" employee tends to multitask, is deadline driven and is unhappy about the smallest of delays (Friedman & Rosenman, 1974). However, type A employees have numerous personal weaknesses because their workaholic behaviour causes irritation, exasperation, hostility, intrinsic insecurity and a low level of self-esteem (Bates, 2006; Friedman, 1996).

The tolerance of ambiguity trait was first introduced in authoritarian personality and it was defined as a tendency to be able to perceive or interpret information marked as vague, incomplete, fragmented, multiple, and to deal with unstructured, uncertain or unclear situations and be self-motivated (Norton, 1975). Jonassen and Grabowski (1993) claimed that tolerant individuals performed well in new and complex learning situations. By contrast, intolerant individuals tend to avoid, or give up when encountering ambiguous situations.

The need for power is useful trait for predicting the desire to have dominance and impact or influence, prestige or position over others. According to Schriesheim and Neider (2006), employees' behaviour may be predicted by their needs. Specifically, they concluded that "people who have a high need for power may choose influencing others in order to change the group environment because this satisfies their need to control, or attempt to control the behaviours of others" (p. 136). Employees who have a need for power are often concerned about controlling their image as it is portrayed to others. If the need for power can be combined with taking on responsibility, then "acceptable" displays in power can be experienced.

The need for achievement (N-Ach) is another key individual which may be a useful predictor of employee behaviour. The need for achievement is a key facet of conscientiousness and it refers to the desire to do things better, to do them well, and to overcome obstacles. According to McClelland's (1965) investigations N-Ach theory is particularly relevant to the emergence of leadership. In this connection, the need for achievement refers to an individual's preference for success in situations of competition. Employees who score high on the need for achievement tend to choose more difficult tasks than employees with low scores in the need for achievement,

because they want to find out more about their ability to achieve (Atkinson & Raynor, 1974, Geen, 1995).

The courage personality trait refers to the inside strength or motivation to solve difficulties in spite of fear. Hannah, Sweeney and Lester (2007) suggested that levels of courage were influenced by personality traits, particular states of mind and the values, beliefs and social forces acting on a person. The three personality traits that are thought important in courage are: openness to experience, conscientiousness and core self-evaluation.

In view of the fact that trait EI theory emphasises the various psychological, personal strengths, psychological needs and personality traits which are governed by emotions, it allows us to connect it to the majority of personality traits and psychological needs. Thus, the second hypothesis for this chapter will be written as:

H2: Trait EI is positively correlated with positive personality traits and negatively with negative personality traits such as neuroticism and Type A.

5.1.4. Work Motivational Needs

In order to understand the relationship between trait EI and emotion-related factors of JS, it is important to understand people's psychological motivational needs. Human motivation is a goal-directed behaviour which is initiated by a strong willingness to attain an appropriate goal and satisfy one's psychological needs in order to produce subjective satisfaction, well-being and relief (Joseph, Thomas & Roopa, 2005). Similar to human motivation's conceptual framework, trait EI consists of self-motivated behavioural tendencies, social motives, emotional motives and well-being.

Maslow (1943, cited in Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003) focused on employees' needs in relation to their job satisfaction. In particular, he supported the

proposal that a person who comes out of an environment which does not meet his/ her psychological needs, tends to experience psychological complaints later in life.

Applying this theory to the organizational setting, it can be argued that employees who do not meet their psychological needs at work will not be motivated. On the other hand, motivated behaviours help people to maintain an internal balance and harmony in the environment. Maslow's motivational theory is based on two disciplines; the first one is that people always seek more, and the second that they arrange their psychological needs in order of importance (cited in Smit & Cronje, 1992).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often depicted as a pyramid consisting of five motivational needs. These five motivational needs encompass principles such as well-being, love, self-actualisation and social motives which accord with the theoretical framework of trait EI and with the subjective nature of emotions.

The first motivational need in Maslow's hierarchy is the category of physiological needs. These are primary needs that play a significant role in motivational needs. The latter can be defined as biological needs such as food and water which, when they are met, no longer influence behaviour. Physiological needs can be translated as wages and benefits in organizational settings.

Once the physiological needs are met then the security or safety needs assume precedence. These needs consist of job security and safety and the need to feel comfortable and protected against emotional or physical harm. Once the second needs are satisfied, the third type of needs is activated. The third category of motivational need refers to social needs. In other words, people have a need for friendship, acceptance and understanding from others. In organisational settings, managers are

those who are responsible for encouraging employees to interact with one another and for making sure that their employees' social needs are met.

The fourth motivational need is the need for self-respect, confidence, achievement and recognition from others. In organizational settings, the manager is again the one who plays an active role in satisfying the employees' needs by recognizing their efforts to perform well. The highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which leads to the full development of a person's potential, is the category of self-actualisation needs. It is a very important need as it is the need which individuals have to reach their full potential.

Critics argue that there is no empirical research to support Malsow's hierarchy motivation theory (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003). However, Maslow's need theory has been widely recognized by practicing managers. Specifically, it has been observed in previous studies of this thesis and other studies (cited in: Schulz, Bagraim, Potgieter, Viedge & Werner, 2003) that employees who are satisfied at work attribute their satisfaction to emotion-related factors. Emotion-related factors that play a key role in contributing to the satisfaction are known as motivators. Based on theoretical conceptualizations of motivation theory and trait EI, both theories rely on the individual's emotional needs. As it could be expected, people with high trait EI scores are more motivated to master tasks, excel at their work and feel more satisfaction in doing so.

Thus, the third hypothesis for this chapter will be written as:

H3: Trait EI is positively correlated with motivational needs.

5.1.5. Job Satisfaction

In Chapter 4 (Study 3), it was showed that trait EI and its factors were strongly correlated with JS and with intrinsic JS. The intrinsic factor encompasses key

sensitive work-related aspects such as creativity, informal recognition and variety that have a direct impact on employees' satisfaction but not on employees' dissatisfaction. The extrinsic factor of JS encompasses environmental and physical work-related aspects such as equipment, work environment and salary that directly impact employees' dissatisfaction, but not their satisfaction. The intrinsic JS factor plays a major role in increasing employees' satisfaction and is primarily influenced by employees' psychological well-being. Psychological well-being influences people's feelings and evaluations and therefore people's satisfaction.

The purpose of this chapter is to replicate the previous study in Chapter 4 (Study3) and to confirm its findings. Thus, the fourth hypothesis for this chapter will be written as:

H4: Trait EI is positively correlated with JS.

However, in this chapter JS will be measured using INDSALES job satisfaction measurement (Comer, Machleit & Lagace, 1989). Different questionnaire of JS were used in order to show that trait EI is consistently correlated with the emotion-related factors of JS, in order to ensure that the strong relationship between JS and trait EI was not due to the nature of the sample or to the well-established Minnesota Questionnaire that was used in Chapter 4 (Study 3).

5.2. Method

5.2.1. Participants

181 full-time employees from different industries took part in this study. The age range of the respondents was 20-64 years old with a mean of 40.75 (SD = 8.40). The majority of them (53%, N=95) were men, while women comprised 46% (N=84) of respondents. The majority of the respondents were white British (86%); while a further 9% were white other ethnicity and 1% was black or Black African. Thirty-eight (38%) percent of the respondents had BSc/BA degrees, 20% held an MSc or MA, 13% had A level, 11% had MBA, 10% had GCSE and only 1% held a PhD. With respect to the employment category, most of the respondents (40%) were employed in the private sector (service companies) and 18% were employed in the manufacturing private sector. Thirteen percent (13%) of the respondents were teachers and 7% of the participants were employees of the public sector. Seven percent (7%) were self-employers and another (7%) of the respondents worked in 'Other' types of sectors. Six percent (6%) worked in health services.

5.2.2. Materials (Appendix 3)

Trait EI

Trait EI was assessed by the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire long form (TEIQue v.1.50; Petrides, Pérez, & Furnham, 2003). This questionnaire comprises 153 items designed to cover the sampling domain of trait EI. Participants respond on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 'Strongly disagree' to 'Strongly agree'. This form of TEIQue obtains scores on 15 scales, 4 factors, and global trait EI.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using the short form of the INDSALES questionnaire (Comer, Machleit & Lagace, 1989). This questionnaire was designed to assess salespersons' satisfaction and there were a few items which referred to sales managers. For this reason, those items were slightly modified in order to ensure suitability for individuals from different sectors. This form of the INDSALES questionnaire comprised 28 items. This questionnaire obtains scores for seven factors. These factors are as follows: satisfaction with: customers, promotion, pay, company policy, work, supervisor and co-workers. Participants' responses were given on a 1-7 point scale, where smaller numbers indicate less satisfaction.

High-Flyers Questionnaire

Numerous job-related personality traits were reviewed that were more frequently used to select employees in order to devise a proper questionnaire and address the high-flying job-related personality traits. A high-flyer questionnaire consists of 101 questions and all of these were designed to measure specific traits or behaviours that someone would exhibit in the workplace. Nine work-related personality traits (Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Openness, Tolerance of ambiguity, Competitiveness, Type A, Need for achievement and Courage) were assessed using this questionnaire. Participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 'Strongly disagree' to 7 'Strongly agree'.

Motivational needs

A motivational needs questionnaire was designed to measure the importance of certain factors in motivating employees. This questionnaire was developed to assess the importance of the following 37 work-related motivating factors: Balance, Benefits, Bonuses, Clarity, Comfort, Competition, Conditions, Contribution to

society, Effortlessness, Equipment, Flexibility, Independence, Insurance, Intellectuality, Location, Organizational image, Pay, Perks, Personal growth, Personal relevance, Power, Promotion, Recognition, Regularity, Responsibility, Safety, Security, Simplicity, Social interaction, Status, Stimulation, Supervision, Teaching, Teamwork, Tranquillity and Variety. Participants' satisfaction was measured on 1-5 point scales where smaller numbers indicates less satisfaction.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) was measured using a representative number of 16 items from Bateman and Organ's first OCB instrument. Bateman and Organ (1983) provided the first instrument to measure OCB. This measure includes a wide array of activities on the job. Participants were asked to indicate whether each statement was true or untrue. A 5 point-scale was used, ranging from 'Completely True – 5' to 'Completely Untrue – 1'. This instrument obtained scores for overall OCB.

5.2.3. Procedure

All participants were full-time employees and they were recruited from different companies. Participants were obtained through personal contacts and these people were asked to distribute at least two questionnaires to colleagues in their workplace. Participants had the opportunity to respond through a secured website or on paper. A cover letter was attached to paper surveys and a welcome page appeared on the survey's website. It explained the aims of the research, that participation was voluntary and what the results would be used for. Furthermore, participants were assured that all responses would be treated as confidential. Upon completion, participants were requested to return the questionnaire directly to the researcher via post. Online surveys were automatically saved on the website, and the researcher

extracted the data in SPSS format. All participants were debriefed with 10 paged trait EI personal feedback. The survey was live for a whole calendar year.

5.3. Results

5.3.1. Factor Analysis for the Motivational needs measurement.

A principal factor analysis (PFA) was applied to the 37 items of Motivational needs. A factor analysis was employed as part of the process of developing an instrument to measure the most critical motivational needs of employees. The motivational factors that were extracted in the present factor analysis were labeled according to Maslow's need-hierarchy theory. Based on Maslow's need-hierarchy theory and on the scree plot (see Screeplot 5.1 below), four factors were extracted and rotated to a simple structure via the Promax algorithm with the Kappa parameter set to 4 (see Table 5.1). The eigenvalues for the first four factors were 5.34, 4.59, 4.10 and 2.71. The four factors collectively explained 43% of the variance in the 36 items. One item (*29 – Social interaction: a job that provides many good opportunities for social interaction*) was omitted based on the factor analysis below. This item did not meet the threshold loading used in this study (any item with a value of less than .30 was suppressed).

The first motivational factor describes the need for **safety** with items such as job security, comfort, and environmental conditions. Clearly, this factor describes the employees' needs for safe and healthy work conditions and job security.

The second motivational factor describes the motivational need for **self-actualisation** with items such as personal relevance and growth. However, the need for **social connection** was encompassed in this factor with items such as teamwork and teaching. This factor in general refers to an individual's need to make the most of their abilities, to strive to fulfill their ambitions and completely realize their potential. In addition, this factor involves elements that describe human beings' need to feel a

sense of belonging and acceptance, whether it comes from a large or small social group.

The third factor consists of elements that are regarded as necessary for satisfying the **physiological needs** of employees, such as good wages, bonuses and perks. This factor refers to the individual’s needs to earn money in order to fulfill his/her survival needs and wants.

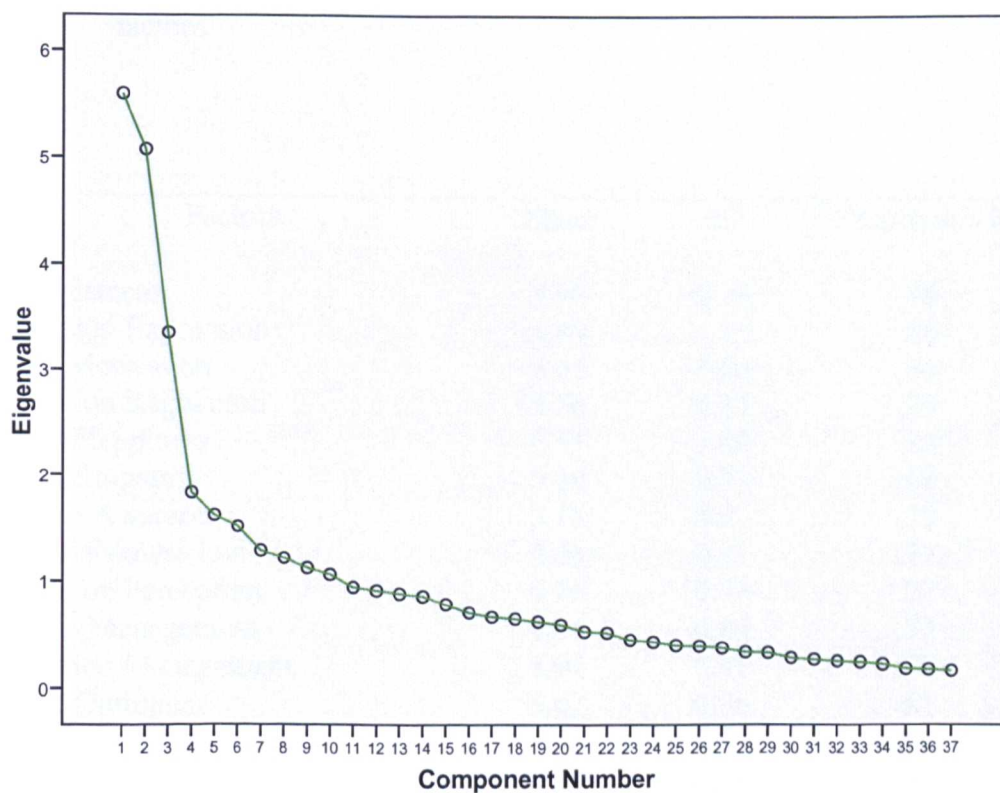
The last factor describes the need for **self-esteem**, with items such as recognition, visibility, status and organisational image. The item of promotion loads on both *Physiological* and *Esteem* needs but it was allocated it to the Esteem factor in order to broaden its content. Some people interpret promotion as a kind of recognition for the work they have done and some others receive promotion as higher salary. However, for the purpose of this study, promotion was allocated to the Esteem factor and was interpreted as a kind of recognition. The self-esteem factor refers to people’s inner need to engage themselves to gain recognition and have an activity which gives them a sense of contribution, to feel accepted and valued by others.

Table 5.1. Factor Pattern for the 37 Motivational Needs items

ITEMS	Safety factor	Self-actualizing factor	Physiological factor	Esteem factor
5. Comfort	0.732			
26. Safety	0.728			
7. Conditions	0.673			
24. Regularity	0.623			
27. Security	0.573			
35. Tranquillity	0.571			
4. Clarity	0.568			
15. Location	0.544			
1. Balance	0.499			
28. Simplicity	0.498	-0.393		
32. Supervision	0.480			
9. Effortlessness	0.478			
10. Equipment	0.460			
11. Flexibility	0.427			
8. Contribution to	0.425	0.376	-0.358	

society			
20. Personal relevance		0.765	
19. Personal growth		0.663	
33. Teaching		0.629	
36. Variety		0.616	
31. Stimulation		0.605	
34. Teamwork		0.581	
14. Intellectuality		0.567	
12. Independence		0.450	
21. Power	-0.371	0.383	
3. Bonuses			0.776
18. Perks			0.723
17. Pay			0.679
2. Benefits			0.601
22. Promotion		0.574	0.325
13. Insurance		0.541	
6. Competition		0.531	
25. Responsibility		0.313	0.343
30. Status			0.691
37. Visibility			0.670
16. Organizational image			0.539
23. Recognition			0.402

Scree Plot 5.1. Scree plot for the 37 Motivational Needs items



5.3.2. Reliability Analysis

The internal consistencies of the Organizational Citizenship, 20 TEIQue, 8 JS and of the 5 motivational needs variables were all satisfactory, as can be seen in Table 5.2. However, the internal consistencies of the 10 high-flyer variables were remarkably low, especially the Type A factor. This factor of high-flyers was excluded from any further statistical analysis.

With respect to the internal consistencies of the 20 TEIQue variables, as one can see, the 15 scales and the 4 factors of TEIQue were high, with the exception of ‘self-motivation’, which was $\alpha = .56$. All the other scales ranged from $\alpha = .68$ (trait empathy) to $\alpha = .88$ (emotion expression). The reliabilities of the TEIQue factors ranged from $\alpha = .79$ to $\alpha = .83$. The other measurements (JS, Motivational Needs, and Organizational Citizenship) can be considered as adequately reliable as they exceed the point of 0.60.

Table 5.2. Means, Standard Deviations and Cronbach’s α Reliability for all factors.

Factors	Mean	SD	Cronbach’s α	No. of items
Self Esteem	5.08	0.78	.76	11
Emotion Expression	4.89	1.17	.88	10
Self-Motivation	5.05	0.66	.56	10
Emotion Regulation	4.68	0.85	.79	12
Trait Happiness	5.55	1.00	.84	8
Trait Empathy	5.20	0.73	.68	9
Social Awareness	5.18	0.83	.79	11
Impulsiveness low	4.88	0.91	.77	9
Emotion Perception	4.94	0.78	.72	10
Stress Management	4.81	0.84	.72	10
Emotion Management	4.94	0.91	.77	9
Trait Optimism	5.42	0.96	.81	8
Relationships	5.46	0.81	.70	9
Adaptability	4.89	0.81	.73	9
Assertiveness	5.12	0.83	.72	9

Well-Being	5.35	0.79	.82	3 factors
Self-Control	4.79	0.73	.79	3 factors
Emotionality	5.12	0.71	.81	4 factors
Sociability	5.08	0.74	.83	3 factors
Total Trait EI	76.10	8.42	.90	15 factors
Neuroticism	2.85	0.810	.81	12
Conscientiousness	5.15	0.690	.65	11
Type A	3.91	0.535	.26	11
Competitiveness	4.17	0.809	.72	11
Tolerance of ambiguity	4.19	0.664	.52	11
Openness – Inquisitives	4.88	0.580	.57	12
Need of achievement	4.64	0.626	.58	11
Courage	4.96	0.716	.70	11
Need of power	4.11	0.651	.61	11
Global High Flyers	435.41	33.725	.61	9 factors
Overall satisfaction	4.12	0.598	.72	4
Fellow workers	4.20	0.642	.76	4
Supervision	3.84	0.774	.73	4
Company policy and support	2.94	0.496	.68	4
Salary	3.60	0.838	.72	4
Promotion	3.39	0.919	.74	4
Customer/Clients Satisfaction	3.43	0.632	.68	4
Global Job Satisfaction	102.08	11.828	.69	7 factors
Organizational Citizenship	63.57	6.570	.68	16
Self-actualisation	3.75	0.516	.74	11
Safety needs	3.75	0.787	.84	14
Physiological needs	3.83	0.891	.78	6
Esteem Needs	3.82	0.867	.72	5
Global Motivational Needs	4.12	0.423	.81	37

5.3.3. Pearson's Correlations

The Pearson correlation coefficient analysis was used in order to examine Hypotheses, 1, 2, 3, 4, and for the purposes of determining whether a statistically significant relationship exists between trait EI and JS, OCB, high-flyers, motivational needs. Table 5.3 indicates the relationships between the factors of trait EI as assessed with TEIQue and the factors of high flyers, JS, motivational needs and OCB. The correlation analysis revealed that there were strong relationships between trait EI and the factors and global score of high-flyers, respectively with the only exception being

the need for power factor. As it was expected, trait EI was negatively related to neuroticism.

There were also significant relationships between trait EI and the factors of JS. In particular, the results indicated that there are significant correlations between JS and trait EI, fellow workers and trait EI, policy support and trait EI, customer satisfaction and trait EI. There are moderate correlations between trait EI and supervision and promotion.

Furthermore, there were significant correlations between trait EI and the factors of motivational needs. As can be seen in Table 5.3, there is a significant negative correlation between trait EI and the safety motivational needs factor. Whereas it is positively correlated with the global score of motivational needs, self-actualisation, self-esteem and motivational needs. Moreover, there was a significant positive relationship between trait EI and organisational citizenship.

The results regarding the relationship between the well-being factor of trait EI and our job-related variables showed significant correlations with the most variables. Apart from a few exceptions, most correlations were consistent with those reported above concerning the relationship of trait EI with the job-related factors. Table 5.3 indicates that the well-being factor was not correlated with conscientiousness, achievement, safety and esteem motivational needs and organisational citizenship. However, well-being was significantly correlated with salary.

Regarding the correlation between the self-control factor of trait EI and the job-related factors, the results showed that there is a significant relationship between self-control and most factors of high-flyers', job satisfaction and organisational citizenship. However, the results indicated that there is no a significant correlation between the self-control factor and motivational needs. Similar to the self-control

factor, emotionality was not related to motivational needs. Regarding the sociability factor of trait EI, Table 5.3 indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between sociability and the majority of job-related factors. As can be seen in Table 5.3, sociability was not related to most job satisfaction factors.

Table 5.3. Correlations between the Factors, and Global Trait EI Scores with all work-related variables.

Factors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Global Trait EI													
2. Well-Being	.799**												
3. Self-Control	.724**	.502**											
4. Emotionality	.768**	.477**	.300**										
5. Sociability	.819**	.568**	.488**	.561**									
6. Global High Flyer	.315**	.149*	.207**	.087	.510**								
7. Neuroticism	-.537**	-.598**	-.562**	-.250**	-.305**	.108							
8. Conscientiousness	.252**	.102	.265**	.153*	.207**	.487**	-.158*						
9. Competitiveness	.376**	.341**	.406**	.055	.429**	.651**	-.230**	.237**					
10. Tolerance	.311**	.198**	.183*	.245**	.284**	.212**	-.264**	-.202**	.080				
11. Openness	.398**	.308**	.237**	.243**	.405**	.544**	-.189*	.120	.250**	.381**			
12. Achievement	.178*	.056	.128	.066	.279**	.734**	.116	.555**	.426**	-.079	.187*		
13. Courage	.523**	.443**	.423**	.166*	.619**	.569**	-.371**	.157*	.409**	.349**	.563**	.186*	
14. Need for Power	.130	.048	.068	-.042	.360**	.676**	.107	.253**	.498**	-.047	.132	.505**	.241**
15. Global Job Sat.	.381**	.480**	.223**	.278**	.205**	-.040	-.492**	.079	.100	.224**	.125	-.055	.269**
16. Overall Sat.	.333**	.348**	.174*	.243**	.272**	.163*	-.340**	.318**	.134	.119	.104	.120	.257**
17. Fellow Workers	.343**	.374**	.201**	.290**	.191*	-.101	-.404**	.042	.006	.191*	.060	-.129	.192*
18. Supervision	.188*	.261**	.073	.201**	.014	-.223**	-.243**	-.069	-.047	.048	.002	-.192*	-.010
19. Policy Support	.218**	.205**	.179*	.155*	.106	-.002	-.259**	.064	.092	.259**	-.009	-.028	.141
20. Pay	.131	.198**	.163*	-.009	.092	.051	-.273**	.049	.082	.125	.094	.002	.254**
21. Promotion	.190*	.365**	.066	.135	.073	.016	-.269**	.059	.091	.093	.138	.057	.162*
22. Customers Satisfaction	.269**	.268**	.136	.228**	.178*	-.055	-.323**	-.093	.080	.182*	.104	-.069	.149*
23. Motivational Needs	.175*	.208**	.114	.079	.168*	.166*	-.101	.214**	.175*	-.177*	.077	.227**	.031
24. Self-actualisation	.366**	.290**	.120	.328**	.367**	.308**	-.236**	.246**	.104	.216**	.435**	.219**	.357**
25. Safety needs	-.227**	-.109	-.201**	-.066	-.317**	-.472**	.114	-.012	-.408**	-.445**	-.341**	-.237**	-.413**
26. Physiological needs	.231**	.252**	.256**	.008	.235**	.295**	-.158*	.207**	.411**	-.107	.120	.209**	.206**
27. Esteem needs	.162*	.147	.140	.038	.207**	.306**	-.037	.149	.292**	-.036	.088	.359**	.033
28. OCB	.318**	.131	.346**	.181*	.278**	.390**	-.232**	.508**	.186*	.137	.208**	.370**	.321**

** Significant at the 0.01 level; * Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 5.3. Correlations between the Factors, and Global Trait EI Scores with all work-related variables. (Continued)

Factors	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
1. Global Job Sat.	-.150*													
2. Overall Sat.	.053	.537**												
3. Fellow Workers	-.109	.642**	.290**											
4. Supervision	-.247**	.598**	.192*	.333**										
5. Policy Support	-.126	.586**	.214**	.303**	.392**									
6. Pay	-.027	.595**	.276**	.228**	.074	.159*								
7. Promotion	-.091	.758**	.303**	.316**	.353**	.380**	.449**							
8. Customers Clients	-.074	.436**	.062	.306**	.130	.203**	.094	.157*						
9. Motivational Needs	.268**	.054	.013	.016	.041	-.015	.007	.043	.113					
10. Self-actualisation	.096	.212**	.379**	.152*	-.014	-.041	.206**	.107	.105	.452**				
11. Safety needs	.223**	-.017	-.131	.078	.115	-.057	-.058	-.027	-.019	.472**	-.050			
12. Physiological Needs	.343**	.002	-.029	-.030	-.048	.005	.009	.021	.081	.680**	.104	.099		
13. Esteem needs	.388**	.014	-.053	-.083	.041	.046	-.059	.043	.128	.808**	.300**	.103	.421**	
14. OCB	.202**	.068	.219**	.066	-.089	.061	.100	-.041	.034	.122	.297**	.156*	.163*	.081

** Significant at the 0.01 level; * Significant at the 0.05 level

To determine if there were differences between participants with high and low trait EI scores in terms of work-related variables and to provide further support to this chapter's hypotheses, independent sample t-tests were conducted. The participants of the present study were divided into two groups according to the mean score of trait EI (Mean = 76.10). The high trait EI group comprised participants whose scores fell above the 76.16 and the low trait EI group comprised participants whose scores fell below 75.88. The mean score for high trait EI group was 82.23 and for the low trait EI group was 68.93.

Table 5.4 presents the results of the independent T-tests, comparing the high and low trait EI scorers in terms of work-related variables. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between low ($M = 3.27$, and $SD = .82$) and high ($M = 2.51$ and $SD = .62$) trait EI in terms of neuroticism, with low trait EI scorers showing significantly higher scores in neuroticism than high trait EI scorers ($t = 7.00$, $df = 175$, $p = .001$).

For the rest of the work-related variables, there were significant differences in the hypothesized direction, with high trait EI participants scoring significantly higher in all work-related variables such as high-flying personality traits, job satisfaction, work motivational needs and OCB, than low trait EI participants. However, there are no significant differences between the two trait EI groups in terms of the need for power, supervision, policy, support and salary.

Table 5.4. Mean difference between high and low trait EI scorers in terms of
work-related variable

Factors	df	High trait EI		Low trait EI		t-value
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Glob High flyers	175	444.99	31.56	424.06	32.84	4.31**
Neuroticism	175	2.51	.62	3.27	.82	7.00**
Conscientiousness	175	5.29	.66	4.99	.70	2.95**
competitiveness	175	4.43	.78	3.87	.74	4.85**
Tolerance of ambiguity	175	4.33	.66	4.02	.64	3.12**
Openness - Inquisitiveness	175	5.11	.52	4.61	.53	6.33**
Achievement	175	4.74	.60	4.53	.64	2.34*
Courage	175	5.29	.63	4.56	.60	7.82**
Need for Power	175	4.19	.65	4.02	.64	1.66
Global Job Satisfaction	174	104.93	11.46	98.73	11.50	3.57**
Overall satisfaction	174	4.23	.56	3.99	.62	2.70**
Fellow workers	174	4.31	.62	4.05	.64	2.71**
Supervision	174	3.90	.76	3.79	.79	.93
Policy and support	174	3.00	.49	2.88	.49	1.66
Salary	174	3.68	.85	3.50	.82	1.42
Promotion	174	3.55	.88	3.21	.93	2.53*
Customer satisfaction	174	3.56	.63	3.27	.60	3.11**
Global Motivational Needs	168	4.19	.44	4.05	.39	2.07*
Self-actualisation	168	5.04	.49	4.65	.48	5.23**
Safety Needs	168	3.63	.76	3.89	.63	2.33*
Physiological Needs	168	4.03	.89	3.60	.81	3.27**
Esteem Needs	168	4.03	.79	3.76	.80	2.20*
OCB	168	65.29	6.90	61.41	5.49	3.98**

5.4. Discussion

The findings of the present study are generally in line with what was theoretically expected and hypothesised. Hypothesis H1 was fully confirmed, for OC was strongly correlated with all four factors of trait EI, in accordance with what had been assumed. In line with the idea that personality traits such as conscientiousness and agreeableness are strongly related to OCB (Neuman & Kickul, 1998; Tilman 1998; Organ & Ryan, 1995), significant correlations were found between OCB with trait EI and the factors of self-control, emotionality and sociability. Furthermore, high trait EI scorers experience high levels of OCB. The findings of this study suggest that trait EI can be assumed as a significant predictor of OCB.

Hypothesis H2 was also predicted. Trait EI appeared as a strong predictor of high-flyers' personality traits. These results can be better explained when placed the context of individual differences, since trait EI is an emotion-related personality trait. In further support of this hypothesis, high trait EI scored significantly higher in positive high-flying personality traits and lower in negative high-flying personality traits (neuroticism) than their low achieving counterparts. This finding indicates that trait EI encompasses elements of key work-related personality traits, such as conscientiousness, need for achievement and courage. However, the current results showed that trait EI was not correlated with the need for power. This discrepancy could stem from the fact that the theoretical conceptualisation of trait EI does not refer to individuals with an authoritarian personality, but rather it refers to individuals with high emotional awareness, empathy,

self-motivation and sociability. By contrast, the need for power refers to authoritarian behavioural tendencies.

The strong correlations between trait EI and personality traits corroborate the findings of Petrides, Rita and Kokkinaki (2007), which indicate that trait EI is a personality trait. In Chapter 4 (Study 3), it has been shown that high trait EI scorers had more desirable behaviour in their work as they were more satisfied with what they did, they were more committed to their job, had less deviant tendencies, and knew how to make decisions which favoured their organisation. In this chapter, it has been shown that high trait EI scorers were characterised by key personality traits that have been connected with job performance in the literature.

Hypothesis H3 was both fully accepted. Our findings revealed that trait EI was strongly related to global work motivational needs and its factors of self-actualisation, safety, physiological and esteem needs. These results allow us to conclude that high trait EI scorers have a good understanding of their own emotions; they therefore know how to satisfy them and how to get motivated. Applying our theory to organisational settings, employees with high trait EI scores would know what they want and how to get it, and are motivated to do so.

At this point in the argument, two elements are worth being pointed out. Firstly, the emotion-related components of trait EI (e.g. emotional perception, emotional regulation) determine employees' motivation and therefore their satisfaction and performance. Secondly, this study's theory corroborates the fact that the emotion-related components of trait EI mean that trait EI must be considered as a distinctive personality trait that plays an important role in employees' effectiveness.

The present results revealed a strong relationship between trait EI and the intrinsic factors (non-environmental) of JS (Overall satisfaction, Fellow workers, Supervision, Policy and support, Salary, Customer satisfaction). Hypothesis H4 was fully confirmed and, more interestingly, this hypothesis was in complete agreement with the results displayed in Chapter 4 (Study 3), JS, irrespective of the measurement, is strongly and consistently correlated with trait EI. However, salary was the only factor that was not related to trait EI but it was related to well-being. This finding was in agreement with the findings in Chapter 6 (Study 6), where bankers' well-being was associated with high amounts of earnings – this is due to the fact that in some occupations money is associated with success, and therefore success is associated with well-being.

The studies that were led showed significant differences between high and low trait EI employees in terms of their overall JS, their satisfaction with fellow workers, customer satisfaction and promotion. No significant differences between these two groups in terms of their satisfaction with supervision, policy & support and salary were found. In other words, employees with high trait EI experience higher levels of satisfaction when there is good teamwork within their organisation or when there is a good relationship between employees and customers. Reciprocally, high trait EI employees do not experience significantly higher levels of satisfaction with their supervisors, company's policy and support and salary than those who have low trait EI scores. By way of conclusion, the present results produce a theory by confirming the predictions of hypothesis H3 and the predictions of Hypotheses 1 and 3 from Chapter 4 (Study 3), where trait EI was significantly associated with JS and its emotion-related factors (intrinsic).

In this chapter, it can be argued for the distinctive role of trait EI in the workplace by attempting to confirm theoretically the results obtained in previous chapters. At the same time, the association between trait EI and other important work-related factors (e.g. motivation, OCB etc.) that contribute to job performance has been empirically examined. The findings of this and other chapters confirm the utility of trait EI in the human resource management area for further improvements.

Chapter 6. Study 6: The Role of Trait EI in the Financial Decision-Making

6.1.1 Purposes

This Chapter is focused on the impact of banker's trait EI on financial risk-taking. In order to examine the extent to which banker's trait EI influences their financial risk seeking behaviour, bankers' scores against non-bankers' decision-making behaviour will be compared. The theoretical foundation of this study is that our emotions and feelings influence our behaviour and shape our decisions. According to many neuroscientists (Damasio, 1995, 1999, Lazarus, 1991, LeDoux, 1996), our decisions are directly influenced by our emotions, and more specifically by our amygdala which is the part of our brain that handles all of our basic emotional reactions such as fear, love, surprise and anger. However, data were gathered from two different groups because a recent study showed that people who work in the financial sector tend to take higher risks than their counterparts from any other sectors.

Based on this finding, the motive for choosing this particular sector (banking) to conduct the research was that it is interesting to prove whether trait EI can predict bankers' risk-profile. In addition to this, it will be attempted to examine whether trait EI can predict emotion-related behaviours such as risk-taking and decision-making, in order to confirm emotion-related theories and trait EI theoretical framework for risk-taking and decision-making and the influence of emotions on those. To achieve our goals, data were collected by a heterogeneous sample of both bankers and non-bankers. In addition, the emotion-related personality traits were assessed by using TEIQue, which was developed to assess emotion-related perceptions and dispositions and has been located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Finally, two tasks for

assessing risk preferences in financial decision making similar to other existing measures of risk attitudes were developed for the purposes of this study. The first task comprises gambling scenarios where participants have to choose between a 'sure' gain option and a 'gamble' option. The reason for such an assessment is that the possibility of losing everything triggers an emotional reaction. People's emotional behaviour has a determinant role on decision making; therefore, stimulating the fear of loss makes people more risk-averse, leading them to choose the 'sure' option (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Tversky & Kahneman, 1992; Weber, 1994). However, this assumption is not expected to apply to bankers as this group routinely engages in risk taking as it constitutes the core of their work, and it is interpreted as an essential element of success and well-being (Nicholson, Soane, Fenton-o-Creeny & Wilman, 2005). The second decision making task was developed as a task to assess people's willingness to spend money; higher willingness to spend represents a higher level of risk taking (Mano, 1992, 1994). In contrast to the first task, this measure is not manipulated by individuals' emotions as people do not have to face any dilemma. However, it is an appropriate assessment of bankers' skills in taking financial risks as it reflects the type of decision they take in their day-to-day activities.

6.1.2 An Introduction to Understanding Decision-Making

The research literature on risk preferences in financial decision making suggests several reasons for the risk taking behavioural tendency. Responses to financial risk vary both between individuals and within a single person. This happens because different psychological and situational factors influence risk behaviour. Personality is one factor that will help us to understand the variability of risk-taking behaviour. The second

important factor is people's experiences. The last but by no means least important factor is emotions, as they have a direct impact on individuals' risk responses. These three main factors which influence people's behaviour in decision making have been examined and attention was given to each separately. Based on the literature, it can be concluded that these three contradicting factors might perfectly balance each other.

6.1.6 The Role of Personality in Decision-Making

Literature in decision making relating to personality domain has proposed 'sensation seeking' as a very important personality trait and claimed that it could predict financial risk-taking behaviour (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1978; Wong & Carducci, 1991; Zuckerman, 1994). In fact, studies (Wong & Carducci, 1991; Zuckerman, 1994) found that individuals with high levels of 'sensation seeking' showed greater risk taking tendencies in everyday financial decisions.

Furthermore, researchers (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1978; Wong & Carducci, 1991; Zuckerman, 1994) suggested that risk-seeking behaviour could be either a physical or psychological need, and was defined as a sensation seeking personality trait. In particular, Zuckerman (1979) defined sensation seeking as a "trait defined by the need for varied, novel and complex sensations and experiences and the willingness to take physical and social risks for the sake of such experience" (p.10). The most frequently used sensation-seeking instrument was developed by Zuckerman (1979). This self-report measurement assesses differences between individuals in their preferences for finding novel and stimulating pursuits, attitudes and values.

Previous studies found that individuals who had high scores on Zuckerman's sensation seeking measure were more likely to seek risks than low sensation seekers

(Zuckerman & Kuhlman, 2000); they were also more likely to seek riskier pursuits in financial transactions (Wong & Carducci, 1991) and to invest larger sums of money (Hunter & Kemp, 2004).

It seems obvious that people differ in terms of their willingness to engage in risky behaviours and in avoiding risky behaviours. In particular, when explaining risk taking, a complicating factor one needs to be aware of is that a single person may display high risk behaviours in some specific situations, but display risk avoidance behaviour in other situations. For example, Slinger and Rudestam, (1997) stated that risky financial decisions were linked to self-efficacy. In other words, concrete risk behaviours may be better conceptualised as being contained within the broader, less specific nature of people's personality, and as behaviour that may be influenced by an individuals' emotional insights.

Moreover, several researchers (Nicholson et al., 2005), showed that the general individuals' risk taking profile in terms of big five personality traits can be interpreted as follows: "openness to experience and extraversion supply the force for risk seeking and low neuroticism and agreeableness supply the insulation against guilt or anxiety about negative outcomes, and low conscientiousness makes it easier to cross the reasoning barriers of need for control, deliberation and conformity" (p. 169). In addition, twenty-four out of the thirty NEO personality facets predict risk taking behaviour consistently in one or two different risk- taking domains (e.g. recreation, safety, health, finance, social and career). More specifically, sensation seeking, a preference for fast paced life, for extraversion, openness, lack of straightforwardness and competitiveness, agreeableness and low levels of anxiety are strongly correlated with risk taking and all of them emerged

as significant predictors of risk taking in four out of six domains that they were assessed on, such as health, finance, social and career.

Another study (Lauriola & Levin, 2001) showed that openness to experience and neuroticism predict risk-taking to achieve a gain. They also showed that people who scored high on emotional stability and openness tended to take more risks than those scored high on neuroticism and low on openness. Extraversion was related to risk-taking for gains but the correlation coefficient only approached statistical significance, and only when age and gender differences were not controlled. In the domain of avoiding a loss, agreeableness and conscientiousness approached statistical significance when not controlling for age and gender differences.

6.1.3 Risk Behaviour

Over the last 30 years, risk-seeking behaviour has been extensively researched. The nature of risk-seeking behaviour and how it is explained makes it a central component in how people make decisions (Slovic, 1987). Before exploring the reasons behind people's decisions, it is important to define the concept of risk.

Sitkin and Pablo (1992) proposed that there were three attributes of risk taking. In particular, they suggested that "people make riskier decisions when the expected outcomes are more uncertain, second when decision goals are very difficult to achieve and finally when the potential outcome set includes some extreme consequences" (p.11). These three attributes of risk taking involve the likelihoods and outcomes of positive and adverse events. However, some people perceive a particular financial decision as highly risky, while others perceive little risk in the choice. Different perceptions of risk exist

between individuals and they often are the determining factors on which decisions are made (Finucane, Slovic, Mertz, Flynn & Satterfield, 2000).

Several theories have been proposed to explain risk-seeking behaviours. Some of them focused on the individuals' rationality. These assumed that decisions are based on basic principles of optimal choice. The rational decision-making theory presumes that people would choose the sure option when given a choice between a sure option and a gamble of equal expected value. According to Zaleskiewicz (2001), "these kinds of risk-averse behaviours are rooted in the curvature of the utility function which is concave for gains" (p.106).

However, ground breaking researchers in the field of decision-making (Kahneman & Tversky, 1984, Tversky & Kahneman, 1981) suggested that people do not always follow the rational economic theory of decision making. They said that there are many other variables that play a more critical role in determining willingness to take risks. Individuals' investment decisions are often found to be frame-dependant (Kahneman & Tversky, 1984), sensitive to heuristic biases (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981), changing with different affective states (Au, Chan, Wang, & Vertinsky, 2003) and situation-dependant (Zaleskiewicz, 2001).

Frame-dependant decisions are based on the theory that takes into account the subjective nature of decision-making. For example, when scenarios are framed in terms of a gain, (see scenario 1), a greater proportion of people opt for the sure gain, thus being risk averse. On the other hand, when scenarios are framed in terms of loss (see scenario 2), people do not opt for the sure loss - they are therefore risk seeking.

Scenario 1.

- a. A sure gain of £250.
- b. 25% chance to gain £1000 and 75% chance to gain nothing.

Scenario 2.

- a. A sure loss of £750.
- b. 75% chance to lose £1000 and 25% chance to lose nothing.

The explanation of this risk seeking behaviour is that people perceive equal sizes of losses and gains differently. Kahneman and Tversky (1979) explained this phenomenon by developing the 'Prospect Theory'. Fundamentally, the prospect theory focuses on gains and losses from decisions where loss aversion is the prevailing concept. This theory states that loss is perceived as having a greater impact than a gain of an equivalent value. In other words, the negative feelings from losing a quantity of money are stronger than the positive feelings of gaining the same amount. People are therefore risk averse when prospects are perceived as gains, and risk seeking when prospects are perceived as losses. Antonides, Raaij and Maital (1997) observed that when playing the lottery people accept extremely small probabilities of winning large amounts of money, and that these virtually negligible probabilities are often seen as more attractive than greater probabilities of winning smaller amounts of money.

Similar to the lottery example, Ellfers (1997) suggested that applying the prospect theory to paying taxes would reduce tax evasion. He further proposed that if high advance levies would be imposed on each tax-payer, he would find himself on the verge of gain. Hence, the tax payer would choose the risk free strategy to obtain the refund.

6.1.4 The Role of Emotions in Decision-Making

Traditionally, emotions have been overlooked when theories of risk taking have been developed. The cognitive approach had dominated. However, recently, it has been proposed that risk is a feeling. In particular, it has been argued that emotions have primacy in the evolution of risk in a variety of situations (Peters, Västfjäll, Gärling, & Slovic, 2006). In other words, the emotional response to the hazard could be more immediate and influential than any rational computation of likelihood of how to gain. In many every-day life cases, the truth of this proposition is obvious. For example, when we are walking alone any kind of noise scares us very easily, and we start walking faster or we are sweating. Emotions in any situation drive reactions at the time. In fact, according to Slovic, Finucane, Peters, and MacGregor (2002) emotions, possibly misattributed to the stimulus, act as good-versus-bad information to guide choices according to the affect heuristic.

Emotions influence people's decisions in two ways. Firstly, emotional dispositions influence our decisions. Secondly, our decisions are influenced by anticipated emotions. More specifically, decisions are influenced by the emotions that are expected to be felt about decision's outcomes. In other words, people do not want to regret their decision, for regret is the emotion of feeling sorry for a loss. Both of these assumptions are well documented by behavioural psychologists and economists.

In this section, hypotheses will be drawn about the influence of emotions on individuals' risk preferences in financial decision making and about the impact of emotion-related perceptions such as self-control, well-being and emotionality, on

financial decision making. The theoretical basis for this hypothesis comes from Mano's (1994) work. Mano (1994) demonstrated that individuals who experience high level of emotional arousal are more likely to be risk seekers than their counterparts who do not experience high levels of emotional arousal. Following this view, it can be concluded that extreme positive emotional arousal or negative emotional arousal can influence individuals' decisions and behaviour in the same direction due to emotional valence.

However, this conclusion overlooks the fact that emotions might share the same valence but have different bases for appraisals, convey different information to individuals and activate different areas of the brain (Isen & Patrick, 1983; Kahneman, 2003, Loewenstein, O'Donoghue & Rabin, 2003, Raghunathan & Pham, 1999; Wilson & Gilbert, 2003). For example, sad people are seeking reward replacement, since happy people are more motivated to maintain their positive mood. The psychological need to maintain or develop our emotional well-being motivates people either to take risks or to avoid them. When people want to maintain their emotional well-being, they are becoming more risk-averse, and when they feel the need to develop their emotional well-being, they become more risk-seekers. Naturally, well-being is a trait EI factor that might have direct impact on decision-making process.

The theoretical explanation of this assumption is also provided in the loss aversion theory (Tversky & Kahneman, 1991) and mood maintenance hypothesis of Isen and Patrick (1983). These studies provided evidence that people's decisions were often based on their predictions about how different outcomes would make them feel. The impact of bias has been replicated in all of these studies as the fear of loss had a stronger

impact on people's decisions when, for example, people were asked to predict how they would feel were they to lose \$100 or gain \$200.

Specifically, people experience more distress in losing \$100 than in gaining \$200. Thus, the influence of negative anticipated feelings on risk taking is explained via a desire to maintain a positive affective state through decisions. In other words, people under negative affect state are more apt to take risks because that increases the potential for gain and the hope of reward replacement. Consistently with this reasoning, numerous studies suggested that happy people were especially loss averse when facing negative outcomes and were willing to pay more to insure against losses (Arkes, Herren, & Isen, 1986; Alter & Forgas, 2007). In other words, people experiencing a positive affective state are more motivated to maintain this state, and so avoid taking high risks which might disrupt their positive emotional state and well-being. These theories have been empirically proven and supported by trait EI construct. In particular, there is clear empirical evidence that trait EI (well-being, emotionality and self-control) helps predict decision-making behaviour. Trait EI can be seen as a component of emotional brain, personality and behaviour. Trait EI's theoretical framework was developed to assess emotional behaviour, personality traits and positive temperament.

In line with this concept, previous studies (Ciarrochi, Chan & Bajgar, 2001; Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley & Hollander, 2002; Petrides & Furnham, 2003) showed that individuals with high trait EI were better at regulating and managing emotions. In addition, Furnham and Petrides, (2003) suggested that people with high trait EI scores believe that they are aware of their emotions and that they can regulate them in a way that promotes well-being and happiness. These findings are coherent with the

theoretical framework of loss aversion and mood maintenance. It can be argued that high trait EI decision makers will be motivated to maintain their positive affective state and well-being; they are therefore likely to avoid acting in a way that would lead to negative consequences and loss and so are less likely to be risk seekers than their low trait counterparts.

6.1.5 Occupational Differences

However, the above assumption will be valid only for people who do not work as bankers, traders or investors. As it has been showed by Corter and Chen (2006), investors' risk tolerance and their investment risk performance were significantly correlated with their investment experience and demographic factors such as age and gender, but they were not strongly correlated with the sensation seeking personality trait. This finding of predicting risk tolerance with increasing investments was consistent with Grable (2000) who showed that risk tolerance is increased with investment knowledge. Similarly to these findings, Nicholson, et al. (2005) suggested that risk taking in any occupational domain is a combination of general demographics factors, including gender, tenure, sector, age and some personality facets.

Considering the differences between the risk taking behaviour among people from different job function and business type, the results revealed that there is a homogeneity of risk taking behaviour within groups categorised in terms of their job function rather than by business type (Nicholson et al. 2005). In the case of people who work in the field of finance, the findings revealed that these people are risk takers in the financial domain, but not (necessarily) in other domains.

6.1.6 Conclusion

Our interpretation of existing literature on financial decision making, risk taking behaviour and attitudes, is that emotions, personality and work-related experiences are the three primary components of finance decision making. Moreover, the present study will support the idea that finance risk taking is concerned with individuals' unconscious behaviour which is driven by emotions and / or by the need of well-being. However, in support of Nicholson et al.'s (2005) findings, bankers will tend to be more risk seeking than any other group, and emotionality does not play a critical role in predicting their investment or risk taking tendencies.

In conclusion, bankers will be driven by the need for achievement which is associated with their well-being and self-esteem. The well-being factor consists of 3 basic emotional traits, which are happiness, optimism and self-esteem. For this group, it is important to recognise that the attractiveness of success is a positive emotional motivation and the fear of failure is a negative emotional function. Bankers will be financially risk-seekers more than any other group of people. Thus,

H1: Bankers will have a higher level of willingness to spend money.

H2: People with high trait EI will be more risk averse than their low trait EI counterparts.

H3: Bankers with high trait EI will be more risk seekers than their counterparts with low trait EI.

H4: Emotionality will not be a significant predictor of bankers' risk taking tendencies, as they rely on their reasoning ability and knowledge.

6.2. Method

6.2.1 Participants

171 participants filled out a short booklet containing the instructions for this study and the Grid Affect task, Decision-making tasks and TEIQue v.1.50 (SF). Participants undertaking decision making tasks were instructed to make their choices based on their spontaneous judgment without making any calculations. The sample of this study consisted of 105 bank employees from a large British bank, and 66 MBA students from two British universities (non-bankers group). Bankers ranged from 21 to 44 years of age ($M = 26.09$, $SD = 3.73$). Fifty-six of them were male and 49 female. The majority of them were foreigners (80% were from abroad, only 20% were British). Bankers were debriefed on their trait EI results. They filled out the questionnaires as part of their training. Bankers also are engaged in risk taking routinely at their work. MBA students' participation was entirely voluntary. The MBA students ranged from 20 to 47 years of age ($M = 26.12$ $SD = 5.84$). A large majority of the students were male (64%) and from outside the UK (89%). Students tend to be risk seekers in their personal lives and choices (Loewenstein, et.al. 2001) and risk averse in financial-related areas of their lives (Nicholson, et al., 2005).

6.2.2 Materials (Appendix 4)

Decision-Making Tasks:

Participants were asked to complete two decision-making tasks. The first one consisted of nine finance-related statements (TASK A). These statements were similar to those used by Mano, 1992 and 1994. The nine measures were created in such a way that for each measure the probability of achieving a profit, and the level of profit that could be

achieved were given. Three probability levels of achieving profits: 10%, 50% and 90% were used, along with the three levels of profit: £1,000, £3,000 and £10,000. The amount of profit and the percentage score of probability were paired, producing nine pairs in total. The statements were stated as '*A lottery ticket has a 90% (50%, 10%) chance of winning the amount of £10,000, (£1,000, £3,000) otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....*'. The amount of money that each respondent was willing to spend on each statement operated as a measure of risk taking, such that the higher amount spent represented a higher level of risk taking. There was no limit on how much each person could spend on each statement; the higher value was £9,000 for the first statement, £2,700 for the second, £900 for the third, £5,000 for the fourth, £1,500 for the fifth, £500 for the sixth, £1,000 for the seventh statement, £300 for the eighth statement and £100 for the tenth statement. The amount of money that the participants gave for each level of profit and for each probability level of achieving the profit, were summed up to obtain the six factors (£1,000, £3,000, £10,000 and 90%, 50% 10%) for risk taking behaviour.

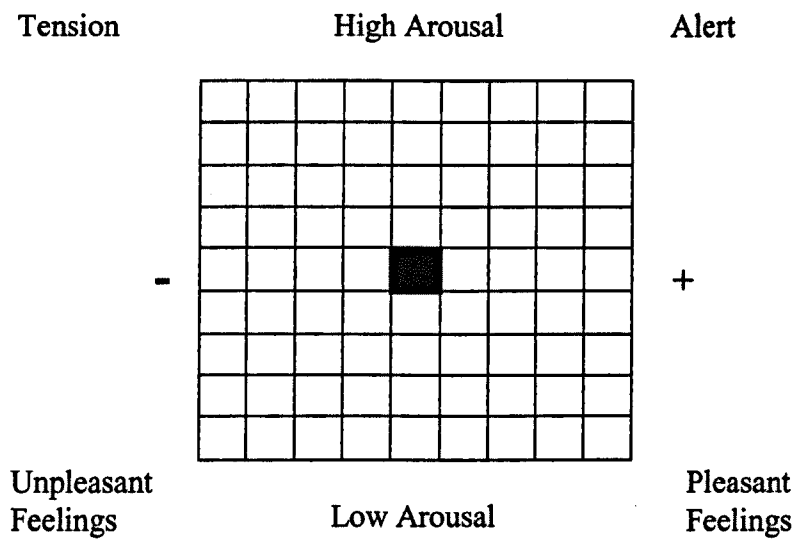
The second decision-making task (TASK B) was measured with three finance-related scenarios. The first two finance-related scenarios indicated the amount of money that participants would initially receive (e.g. £10,000 and £1,000). Participants then had to choose between the 'Sure' option and the 'Risky' option. The 'Sure' option included the amount of money retained or lost for sure from the initial amount (e.g. take or lose £3,000 from £10,000). The 'Risky option or the 'Gamble' option depicted the probability of winning or losing the whole amount (e.g. *Take a 50% chance of winning the whole amount (£10,000), otherwise win nothing (£0)*).

The third scenario was formulated on the basis of the original Asian disease problem which was developed by Tversky and Kahneman (1981). This scenario, however, was presented in a finance-related context, and participants were faced with a scenario involving the bankruptcy of a company that threatened the loss of 600 shares. Participants were asked to choose between Option A or Option B. Option A was the 'Sure' option and Option B was the 'Risky' option. The options were stated in the following way: If option A is chosen, exactly 200 of your shares will be saved. If option B is chosen, there is a 1 in 3 probability that all your shares will be saved and a 2 in 3 probability that none of your shares will be saved. In the vote, participants are asked to express their preferences for the various options listed, giving (in a 5-option ballot) a first preference to their most preferred option, a second preference to their next favourite, a third preference to their third choice, and so on. In the data coding, a 'Sure' option got 0 points and the 'Risky' option got 1 point. The highest score on this task was 3 and the lowest was 0.

Emotional and Arousal state (Emotional State and Emotional Intensity).

The Emotional and Arousal state of individuals was measured by using The Affect Grid, Russell, Weiss and Mendelsohn (1989). The Affect Grid (see below) was developed by Russel, Weiss and Mendelsohn to assess two dimensions of affection: Pleasure – Displeasure and Arousal – Sleepiness. Participants were asked to rate their emotional and arousal state by placing a single X within a 9 x 9 matrix. The pleasure (horizontal) dimension ranges from 1 (Displeasure) to 9 (Pleasure) and the arousal dimension (vertical) ranges from 1 (Sleepiness/ Relaxation) to 9 (High arousal/ Excitement).

Affect Grid



Trait EI

Trait EI was assessed by using the short form of TEIQue v.1.50 (SF), which comprises 30 items. The respond scale is a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 – Completely disagree to 7 – Completely agree. The global score of trait EI exhibited satisfactory internal consistency (Cronbach Alpha = .86). The four trait EI factors exhibited moderate reliability (average Cronbach Alpha of the four factors = .67), (see Table 6.1). All reliabilities for each TEIQue facet in both groups are acceptable.

Table 6.1. Cronbach’s alpha scores for TEIQue (short version)

Factors	Mean	SD	α
<i>Well-Being</i>	5.66	.75	.63
<i>Self-Control</i>	4.77	.96	.66
<i>Emotionality</i>	5.21	.85	.67
<i>Sociability</i>	4.90	.93	.71
Trait EI	5.19	.66	.86

6.3 Results

In order to examine our prediction that bankers are willing to spend more money to insure against possible losses than any other group of people, an independent t-test was conducted, with our sample as Independent Variable (IV) with two conditions (bankers and non-bankers, and Task A, Task B, Grid effect, and trait EI as Dependent variables (DV). Bankers' risk-taking behaviour was best explored through the risk-taking task (task B) and non-bankers' risk seeking was best explored through the risk-seeking task (task A). Table 6.2 (see below) reports the means and standard deviations for both groups of participants. The independent t-test revealed that the two groups differed significantly regarding the amount of money they were willing to spend, their global trait EI and their emotionality. Non-bankers reported remarkably low amounts in task A. Differences between High and low trait EI non-bankers will not be examined in Task A. Our analysis confirmed that bankers are willing to spend more money than their non-bankers counterparts. However, the non-bankers group scored higher in emotionality than bankers. In support of previous studies (Nicholson, et al. 2005; Soane & Chmiel, 2005, Corter & Chen, 2006), professional status and personal experiences are factors that influence risk taking behaviour. Hypothesis 1(H1) is fully supported.

Table 6.2. Means, Standard Deviations (SD) and independent t-test results for study variables.

Factors	df	Non-Bankers		Bankers		t
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
90%	169	£617.65	2,771.58	£2,575.12	3,778.77	3.64**
50%	169	£283.87	1,217.92	£1,097.65	1,900.08	3.10**
10%	169	£66.29	302.05	£172.00	356.06	2.00*
£10,000	169	£625.41	2,496.93	£2,686.86	4,205.42	3.60**
£3,000	169	£156.09	644.64	£858.24	1,292.05	4.10**
£1,000	169	£186.32	1,221.91	£299.67	442.52	0.87
Risk-seeking	169	0.92	0.95	1.08	0.98	1.00
Emotional State	166	6.20	2.40	6.30	1.93	0.28
Emotional Intensity	166	5.06	2.32	4.95	1.97	0.33
<i>Well-Being</i>	169	5.57	0.77	5.72	0.75	1.23
<i>Self-Control</i>	169	4.70	1.03	4.81	0.92	0.76
<i>Emotionality</i>	169	4.86	0.82	5.44	0.79	4.59**
<i>Sociability</i>	169	4.87	0.95	4.93	0.92	0.37
Trait EI	169	5.05	0.67	5.27	0.64	2.16*

To determine whether trait EI will be significantly related to risk taking or whether this association was primarily due to differences in high or low individual trait EI scores, another independent t-test analysis was then conducted to examine differences in risk taking decisions between people who had high and low trait EI scores. In this analysis, trait EI is the DV with two conditions high and low trait scorers. Task B is the DV. High score of trait EI was calculated by adding the mean score with the standard deviation (Mean = 5.17 + SD = .66) and the extreme low score of trait EI was calculated by subtracting the standard deviation from the mean of trait EI (Mean = 5.17 - SD = .66). Table 6.3 shows that low trait EI participants tend to be more risk-seeking than high trait EI participants. This is due to the fact that people with high trait EI are happier and have more a optimistic approach of life, so that these people are obviously averse to loss in

order to avoid any negative outcomes. Furthermore, it is clear that people with high trait EI are better at regulating and managing their emotions, such as anxiety, fear and stress, and at controlling their urges for risk. Our results are also consistent with risk-seeking theories suggesting that happy people are especially loss averse when facing negative outcomes. These results strongly and clearly support Hypothesis 2 (H2).

Table 6.3. Differences between high and low trait EI on risk taking – Non Bankers.

	df	High trait EI		Low trait EI		t
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Risk-seeking	25	0.50	0.76	1.32	1.06	1.97*

Moreover, in order to examine the role of TEIQue factors on risk-taking attitudes, a two-step hierarchical regression was performed, with risk-taking as the dependent variable (DV) and trait EI factors as independent variables (IV) in the first step, and the emotional state and emotional intensity (from the Affect Grid) in the second step. Emotionality was a significant predictor in the regression of risk-taking (beta = .39, t = 2.50 p < .05) and remained significant (beta = .42, t = 2.81 p < .01) even after the addition of the two Effect Grid scales in the equation (F (6, 63) = 3.09 P < .01, R²=.16).

Table 6.4. Hierarchical regression with trait EI facets (Step 1) and the Grid Effect (Step 2).

	Risk-Seeking	
1 st Step	F(4,63)=2.18, R²=.07	
2 nd Step	F(6,63)=3.09**, R²=.16	
	Beta	t
Well-being	0.06	0.38
Self-control	0.04	0.29
Emotionality	0.39	2.50*
Sociability	0.08	0.56
Well-being	0.16	0.99

Self-control	0.03	0.19
Emotionality	0.42	2.81**
Sociability	0.04	0.30
Emotion State	0.28	2.36*
Emotion Intensity	0.24	1.98*

In order to support H3, another independent t-test, with high and low trait EI scorers as IV and Task B as DV, was carried out. Our results showed that bankers with high trait EI scores tended to be more risk-seekers than their counterparts with low trait EI. Inconsistently from non-bankers' group, but according to H3, it was found that high trait EI bankers prefer to pay more money in order to earn higher rates of profit. Table 6.5 shows the mean scores for high and low trait EI for the three levels of profit and the three levels of probability of profit. H3 is fully supported.

Table 6.5. Differences between high and low trait EI on risk taking.

Bankers	df	High trait EI		Low trait EI		t
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1. 90%	34	£3,296	4,496	£435	568	2.27*
2. 50%	34	£1,506	2,252	£147	260	2.15*
3. 10%	34	£212	417	£35	53	1.51
4. £10,000	34	£3,536	5,002	£426	594	2.22*
5. £3,000	34	£1,104	1,535	£140	219	2.24*
6. £1,000	34	£374	518	£51	64	2.22*

In order to examine whether trait EI can predict the risk profile for bankers, regression analysis was conducted. The present results revealed that the self-control factor of trait EI can help predict risk-seekers bankers. Table 6.6 presents the results of the regression analysis. The regression analysis revealed that self-control emerges as a primary predictor of risk-taking in five of six scales of risk-taking. Our findings for bankers' risk-taking tendencies are relevant to finance specialists' profiles and clearly

support the view that finance specialists such as bankers have been trained to be willing risk-seekers in the domain of economics. For bankers, taking risks is a professional requirement, and taking major risks is counted as part of their performance. In support of this and of Hypothesis 4 (H4), the results revealed that bankers' risk-taking tendency was influenced by their ability to manage their emotions and not by their emotions. On the other hand, the results revealed that emotionality is a significant predictor of risk-seeking behaviour only for people who are not bankers. Hypothesis 4 (H4) is also confirmed.

Table 6.6. Hierarchical regression with trait EI factors

	90%		50%		10%		£10,000		£3,000		£1,000	
	F4,104)=2.00, R²=.07		F4,104)=2.48*, R²=.09		F4,104)=2.25, R²=.09		F4,104)=2.47*, R²=.10		F4,104)=1.98, R²=.09		F4,104)=3.24*, R²=.14	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Well-being	0.15	1.29	0.13	1.10	0.04	0.35	.14	1.21	.11	.85	.08	.58
Self-control	0.18	1.66	0.22	2.10*	0.25	2.30*	.24	2.21*	.27	2.28*	.34	2.96**
Emotionality	-0.06	-0.55	-0.11	-1.02	-0.12	-1.03	-.17	-1.56	-.05	-.38	.04	.31
Sociability	0.05	0.39	0.08	0.66	0.11	0.89	.05	.42	-.01	-.07	-.02	-.17

Finally, in order to examine the role of TEIQue factors on bankers risk-seeking attitude, a two-step hierarchical regression was performed, with risk-taking as the dependent variable (DV) and trait EI factors as independent variables (IV) in the first step, and the emotional state and emotional intensity in the second step. In contrast of non-bankers results, none of TEIQue factors were significant predictor of risk-taking attitudes, neither in the presence of and emotional state and intensity. Comparing bankers and non-bankers performance on risk-seeking attitude, it can be assumed that bankers' risk-taking behaviour can be examined better through the risk-taking task (TASK B) and non-bankers' risk seeking views can be explored better through risk-seeking task (TASK A).

Table 6.7. Hierarchical regression with trait EI facets (Step 1) and the Grid Effect (Step 2).

	Risk-Seeking	
1 st Step	F(4,103)=0.47, R ² = .03	
2 nd Step	F(6,103)=0.62 R ² = .04	
	Beta	t
Well-being	0.11	0.91
Self-control	0.01	0.04
Emotionality	-0.08	-.71
Sociability	0.10	0.75
Well-being	0.08	0.63
Self-control	0.00	0.02
Emotionality	-0.72	-0.61
Sociability	0.11	0.85
Emotion State	0.10	0.94
Emotion Intensity	0.06	0.60

6.4. Discussion

The results of this study clearly constitute strong support all hypotheses. In particular, it has been shown that people with high trait EI are risk-averse in order to maintain their positive emotional state, specifically experiencing 'fear of loss' with greater strength than their low trait EI counterparts. Reciprocally, high trait EI bankers appeared to be risk seekers in their effort to maintain their well-being. However, both groups seem to be driven by the same psychological need, namely, the need for emotional well-being. In other words, banker's financial success has been linked with higher levels of positive emotionality. In particular, the more money they give, the more they take back. Ergo, people's behaviour and their willingness to take risks or to avoid risks were

driven by the 'fear of loss' and the proportionate satisfaction of their emotional needs. Generally, the higher your trait EI (well-being and self-control), the better equipped you are to make the right financial decisions and the more likely it becomes that you may find happiness and success.

Furthermore, the present results were consistent with the decision-making theories and emotion-related theories which suggest that emotions have a direct impact on decision-making and on people's behaviour. Judging from the present findings and from the emotion-related theory that trait EI has been based on, it can be confirmed that trait EI assesses emotion-related tendencies and emotion-related traits, since it can predict people's emotion-related behaviour such as risk-taking and decision-making.

In the realm of financial decision-making, we will document an interesting assumption, which states that trait EI, and more specifically its factor of emotionality, influences people's risk finance decisions when these people face a dilemma with emotional effects. By contrast, in a different occupational domain, and more specifically in banking, emotionality does not play as critical a role in risky finance decisions but rather self-control factor appears to have a stronger impact on those financial decisions.

Moreover, as can be seen in our independent t-test analysis, there are significant differences between bankers and non-bankers in terms of financial risk-taking behaviour. The significant differences between these two groups in terms of risk-taking behaviour, suggest that this risk-taking behaviour is more strongly influenced by the work experience factor. In particular, our results revealed that participants working in the financial sector were more risk seekers in the financial domain and this finding has been supported by Nicholson, et al. (2005).

The present results also showed that bankers had significantly high scores on trait EI, and on willingness to pay bigger amounts of money. The most reasonable explanation for this difference between these two groups is that bankers were willing to pay more money in order to ensure high rates of gain; in other words, high risks for bankers can translate into big success. Consequently, the success of their career has a powerful impact on their confidence, self-esteem, happiness and well-being - in other words, on their trait EI.

In association with the purpose of this study which was concerned with the role of trait EI in recruitment, the present results suggest that the self-control factor of trait EI can be used to predict bankers' risk-seeking behavioural tendencies. In addition, as can be seen from these findings, the individual who has high scores on self-control is more likely to take profitable financial risks than the one with low self-control scores. This is due to the fact that this person is relying on his /her knowledge and experience of finance and he/she is driven by the need for success by taking profitable risks. For bankers, the results revealed that work experience had a very strong impact on their risk-taking behaviour. However, the most interesting point of the present results is that trait EI as an emotional-related personality trait acts for the benefit of individuals in order to make decisions effectively. In other words, bankers with high trait EI are able to be aware of their emotions and manage their emotions in order to maintain their well-being and act for their personal benefit.

Previous researchers (Zuckerman, 1994; Nicholson, 2005) attempted to place the big five personality traits within the context of risk-taking behaviour. However, as is obvious from our literature, there is no clear consistent evidence to indicate that big five

personality traits are significant predictors of risk-taking behaviour (Lauriola & Levin, 2001). Consequently, as the difference between trait EI and the standardised personality traits instruments is the emotion-related factors of trait EI, it appears that emotion-related factors determine people's risk-seeking behaviour and not simply other personality traits. Consequently, trait EI proves a more comprehensive psychological construct to assess people's emotional related behaviour and trait EI is in line with the emotion-related theories such as the biology of emotions, and the influence of decision-making and risk-taking behaviour by emotions.

However, it is worth mentioning that bankers and non-bankers performed differently in present tasks, this might be a result of small size of our sample or the nature of non-bankers sample. In fact, most of the MBA students who participated and categorised as non-bankers answered £0 in the second task and put a note that is unethical to gamble or they do not have enough money to spend. On the other hand, bankers did not see this task as gambling task but as investments as they applied formulas in order to calculate the risk probabilities. It could have been improved with a larger sample size. It would be interesting to repeat this study in different professions and larger sample to see whether the results varied in this regard and investigate whether these tentative assumptions merit further study.

6.4. Summary and Look Ahead

In conclusion, the findings of this chapter indicate that trait EI can effectively predict bankers' and non-bankers' risk-taking personality profile. Trait EI as a psychometric assessment form part of selection process. Given the fact that trait EI is an

emotion-related personality, it should be further explored in recruitment and selection process. The following chapter will focus on how trait EI is related to organisational citizenship behaviour, job-related psychological motivational needs and to high-flyers personality traits.

Chapter 7: Summary

7.1 Introduction

The first part of the concluding chapter will begin by summarising the main reasons for undertaking this thesis. The six studies which were conducted as part of the research for this thesis are outlined, and an overview of the findings that describe the development of trait EI theory in organisational settings is provided. Finally, it draws the main findings of this thesis altogether, considering their implications and identifying some promising avenues for future research.

One reason for undertaking this thesis was to make a substantial contribution to the development of a new construct in organisational settings (Trait EI). Of particular importance has been the opportunity to empirically examine the role of trait EI in the workplace and examine the psychometric validity of trait EI by using real employees rather than students who are the most commonly used sample for academic research.

One might recall that when the role of trait EI in the workplace was instigated by Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1998), it had been laid mainly within theoretical assumptions and had not been subjected to rigorous empirical investigation. Now, the findings of this thesis propose a theoretical framework for trait EI that is underpinned by a very extensive range of evidence concerning the relationship between trait EI with job-related feelings, emotional job-related behaviour and with job-related personal characteristics (personality traits).

In summary, in Chapter 3 (Study 1 and Study 2) the findings revealed that trait EI as assessed by EQ-i is located in personality factor space. Regarding the role of trait EI in leadership, the results showed that trait EI is correlated negatively with derailment

leadership traits (personalised) and positively with charismatic leadership traits (socialised). In terms of the role of trait EI in leadership effectiveness, the results of Chapter 3 (Study 2) showed that trait EI is related only to emotion/ social related leadership behaviour such as interpersonal and customer-focused leadership behaviour.

In Chapter 4 (Study 3 and Study 4), the relationship between trait EI and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and counterproductive work behaviour was examined. The findings revealed that trait EI was positively and significantly correlated with affect-laden job-related criteria, such as affective organisational commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction. In addition to this, trait EI was negatively correlated with counterproductive work-related behavioural patterns such as aggressiveness, substance use and absenteeism. Chapter 5 (Study 5) continues in the same vein and, more specifically, the results showed that trait EI is strongly and positively correlated with job-related feelings (job satisfaction factors and job-related motivational needs) and with key work-related personality traits.

In Chapter 6 (Study 6), the role of trait EI in decision-making was examined. The results indicated that high trait EI individuals are well equipped to make the right financial decisions and are driven by the need to be successful (high trait EI bankers) and happy (high trait EI non-bankers). In fact, high trait EI individuals appeared to be risk-seekers and risk-averse in their effort to maintain their well-being and their positive emotional state and they know how to control their emotions that influence individual's decisions such as sadness and anxiety.

7.2 Theoretical Implications

It is possible to provide empirically derived answers to most central questions posed in this thesis. By way of summary, empirical evidence is provided, which suggests that trait EI is meaningfully associated with real work-related criteria such as job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, leadership effectiveness, organisational citizenship behaviour, counterproductive work behaviour, decision-making, work motivation and 'high-flying' personal characteristics (work-related personality traits). In addition, the findings revealed that high trait EI individuals do exhibit different work-related behavioural response patterns than their low trait EI counterparts. In brief, the empirical evidence of this thesis confirmed that emotion-related self-perceptions have important implications for a wide range of emotional work-related behaviours.

This thesis has presented robust evidence implicating trait EI in a variety of job-related feelings and emotional job-related behaviours. The findings of this thesis along with other relevant previous studies from the literature confirm that the theoretical framework of trait EI is based on how emotions influence people's personality and behaviour. More specifically, it was found that trait EI is correlated consistently with emotional job-related feelings (e.g. intrinsic job satisfaction, job satisfaction, affective job commitment and motivational needs), with emotional job-related behaviour (e.g. decision-making, leadership effectiveness, counterproductive behaviour) and with emotional job-related personality traits (e.g. socialised leadership style, 'high-flying' personality traits, organisational citizenship behaviour (altruism)). These findings showed that trait EI could be better understood as emotion-related self-perceptions that can be thought of as personality traits such as happiness, optimism, low impulsiveness, rather

than emotional knowledge (facial recognition) or cognitive abilities. In other words, trait EI's theoretical approach refers to inherent emotion-related personal characteristics and traits such as well-being, emotional awareness, emotional regulations and self-motivation.

There is certainly robust evidence to claim that trait EI questionnaires (self-reports) assess what they mean to assess such as people's emotion-related self-perceptions, personal characteristics and emotional-driven behaviour. In line with this assumption, Burke, Brief and George (1993) concluded that emotionality / affectivity (positive or negative) had a direct impact on trait characteristics of the individual and on their consistent responses to self-report questionnaires. In particular, they noted that 'self-reports of negative features of the work situation and negative affective reactions may both be influenced by negative affectivity, whereas self-reports of positive aspects of the work situation and positive affective reactions may both influenced by positive affectivity' (p. 410).

The implications of trait EI for recruitment, career and organisational development were explored. According to the present thesis' findings, trait EI can be used in a number of different ways. Firstly, trait EI can be used for personal assessment: it produces scores on the four factor model (well-being, self-control, sociability and emotionality), which can be used to assess the type of emotion-related self-perceptions. Secondly, trait EI can also produce an indication of a person's career development and work-related feelings. It needs to be highlighted that trait EI will have stronger effects within the perceptual and behavioural context than within the performance and skills context in organisational settings.

7.3. Methodological Issues

The consistent relationship between trait EI and other emotion-related self-report measurements (job satisfaction, personality traits affective organisational commitment, etc.) indicates that one of the most common self-report bias effects was controlled in the present thesis. In particular, *Acquiescence* (*yea-saying or nay-saying*) is a very common self-report bias effect since people tend to agree with similarly worded statements regardless of content. In the present thesis, the statements in the questionnaires were not similarly worded as they referred to different work-related aspects such as job-related motivation, satisfaction, commitment, leadership and job-related behaviour. However, due to the fact that there were emotion-related statements, people's responses might have been influenced by the affectivity and tendency to stay consistent with their responses.

Another critique of self-report is concerned with the environmental influences on respondents' emotional state. Respondents completed the surveys on their own time and on their own place, under different circumstances. It is very likely that respondents' mood had been manipulated by these different circumstance and events (such as receiving a compliment from a boss, getting a promotion, being concerned about downsizing). This manipulated mood might have produced artifactual responses. It is an accepted fact that self-perceptions are highly sensitive to contextual and environmental influences (Bandura, 1997).

Despite the methodological limitations of self-report, only quantitative research was suitable for this thesis and only self-report assessments could appropriately assess people's emotion-related self-perceptions. Self-report measurements allow a better understanding of employees' perceptions and views for their organisational contexts in

which they work. However, a limitation of using self-report measurement is that they cannot be compared with or related to employees' actual performance, technical skills and abilities. The eight surveys relied only on self-report outcome measures. According to Brody (2004), ability EI should be studied against objective indexes (ability and skills measurements) and trait EI should be studied against subjective (perceptual) indexes (self-report questionnaires), respectively.

Payne and Cooper (2001) reviewed a number of frameworks of analysing and describing emotional states at work and they suggested that only self-reports can capture people's emotional states and emotion-related personality characteristics, such as well-being, empathy, happiness. The literature review in emotions at work signifies that emotions are very common in a person's life and they can be conceived of as personality traits such as anxiety (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999). Emotions and personality traits cannot be assessed by using ability measurements because it is more about how a person subjectively experiences some feelings or emotions and acts upon them.

Regarding trait EI's theoretical and methodological limitations, trait EI can be criticised for theoretical limitation such as lack of definitional clarity. It is clear that trait EI does not assess the construct of intelligence or emotion-related knowledge, despite the fact that the term of intelligence is included in the title. It can therefore be said that the term of intelligence is used metaphorically in the 'trait EI' term, and that this word should be replaced with the word 'Behaviour'. Further, ability EI (task-based assessments) can be criticised for methodological and theoretical limitations. In fact, ability EI models (task-based measurements) cannot assess inherent emotion-related personal characteristics such as well-being, empathy, happiness and self-motivation, despite the

fact that this construct (ability EI) was theoretically designed to assess such factors and that the term 'emotional' is included in the title of this construct. In other words, ability EI measurements can be criticised not only for their lack of definitional clarity but also for their lack of accuracy. Ability EI assesses intelligence, so the term 'intelligence' is rightly used in this construct. However, it is obvious that this construct does not assess emotional functions, as it was meant to.

7.4. Emotion-Related Personality Traits

The main purpose of this thesis is to establish a theoretical framework for trait EI in organisational settings. In the present thesis, trait EI was described as an emotion-related personality construct which encompasses emotion-related personality traits, emotional-related work behaviour and job-related feelings. Trait EI was examined in relation to its key components such as personality traits, emotional behaviour and feelings. Trait EI showed strong and consistent associations with personality traits, job-related feelings and emotional behaviour. The results of this thesis concluded that self-reports of positive personal job-related characteristics such as conscientiousness, charismatic leadership traits (Socialised) are influenced by individuals' high trait EI (see Figure 7.1). Similarly, self-reports of negative personal job-related characteristics, such as neuroticism and personalised leadership traits are influenced by individuals' low trait EI. In fact, the evidence of this thesis is in line with emotion theories which suggest that emotions influence the subsequent development of broader individual differences in personality and similar to the concept of emotions that personality is biologically based and heritable. Specifically, emotion-related personality traits represent dimensions of emotions, such as happiness, social relationships and anxiety. As it has been shown in

Chapter 3 (Study 1), trait EI was positively correlated with socialised leadership traits and negatively correlated with personalised leadership traits. A socialised approached leader is one who cares for others and is able to see other people's emotional and well-being perspectives; similar to this concept, the high trait EI individual is the one who has good relationships with others, high levels of empathy, understands other people's feelings and needs and is very highly motivated.

In particular, it was demonstrated Chapter 3 (Study 1) that individuals with low trait EI scores are prone to being moody and hard to please, enthusiastic with new projects and people but then tend to become easily disappointed with them (Enthusiastic – Volatile). Also, this study has shown that low trait EI individuals are often hesitant to change or try anything new (Careful – Cautious). They are also uncommunicative, and lack interest in or awareness of the feelings of others (Detached). In addition, this study showed that people with low trait EI are more prone to aggressive behaviour than their high trait EI counterparts. The key finding of our studies in terms of job-related leadership personality characteristics is that an employee with low trait EI will be arrogant, selfish and can disrupt the productivity of the workplace and intimidate co-workers (Personalised Leadership Style). As a result, an employee with low trait EI can corrupt a team and can potentially damage their organisational qualities and their vitality. Dealing with aggressive, uncommunicative and low emotional awareness behaviour is a difficult challenge for any business.

In contrast, Chapter 3 (Study 1) and Chapter 5 (Study 5) revealed that the core of trait EI reflects a broader form of positive personality. High trait EI employees may act upon their emotions and the four factors of trait EI may reflect different manifestations of

this underlying individual difference. In particular, high trait EI employees may simply enjoy social interactions and be very lively and expressive (Extraversion and Vivacious) and when it comes to being efficient at work by leading a team to success, they become very determined, as they want everything to be just perfect in order to satisfy everyone (Competitiveness, Perfectionist) (Socialised Leadership Style). In other words, managers with high trait EI scores are those who adopt socialised leadership approach, and these managers were born to be leaders.

Additionally, the findings from Chapter 5 (Study 5) also revealed that high trait EI employees are those who demonstrate courage, achievement, tolerance and openness to new opportunities, altruism and effective organisational citizenship behaviour (see Figure 7.1). In summary, a high trait EI employee can be described as an ambitious person with high-flying career goals, who has high emotional awareness, cares about others and is determined to achieve his/her goals (self-motivated).



Figure 7.1. Positive Job-Related Personal Traits.

7.5. Emotion-Related Work-Related Behaviour

The findings of the present thesis are in line with the theories of emotions that suggest that positive emotions tend to produce approachable behaviours and people who experience positive emotions have higher levels of emotional awareness and self-control. In particular, high trait EI individuals who act upon their positive emotions and positive self-concepts, experience high levels of emotional awareness and self-control. In fact, it can be concluded that the pattern of the findings is consistent with the notion of a more fundamental substrate of emotional activity where predispositions influence a wide range of outcomes (behaviour, reaction). As can be seen in Table 7.1, people with high trait EI

tend to demonstrate effective leadership behaviour in terms of communicating effectively with their colleagues and customers. The essence of empathy, emotional awareness and emotional expressiveness influences social interaction and communication because it makes other people feel understood and respected. More interestingly, trait EI was a stronger predictor of leadership effectiveness than general intelligence. The results of the present thesis are also strongly and clearly in support of the initial prediction that trait EI is not ability construct but it is an emotion-related personality trait construct which is associated with affect-laden criteria.

Additionally, employees with high trait EI individuals' appeared to make effective decisions. Impulsiveness and high levels of stress (low trait EI) make people act less cautiously in their decisions and without considering the consequences. Emotional management and low impulsivity or, in other words, self-control (high trait EI) appeared as a key personal characteristic for decision-making.

Table 7.1. Trait EI Behavioural Patterns

High Trait Behavioural tendencies	Low Trait EI Behavioural Tendencies
Leadership Effectiveness Behaviour	Counterproductive Work Behaviour
Decision-making	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational Deviance • Interpersonal Deviance • Absenteeism • Substance Use • Aggression • Theft

Regarding trait EI's contribution to effective decision-making, the findings from Chapter 5 (Study 5), suggest that those with high trait EI were risk-averse in order to maintain their positive emotional state, specifically experiencing 'fear of loss' with greater strength than their low trait EI counterparts. However, when it came to justifying their business expertise, high trait EI bankers appeared to be risk seekers in their effort to maintain their well-being. Based on this result, it can be proposed that money does matter for employees' well-being. Consistently, the last study of this thesis (Chapter 6 – Study 6) indicated that pay, the factor of JS is only strongly correlated with well-being and self-control. These results also remain consistent with the findings in Chapter 5 (Study 5) which showed significant statistical correlations between employees' income, well-being and self-control. Generally speaking, the higher your trait EI (well-being and self-control), the better equipped you are to make the right financial decisions and the best chance you have of finding happiness, success and remaining motivated.

Chapter 4 (Study 4) showed that trait EI is negatively related to organisational (absenteeism, theft) and personal (aggressiveness, substance use) deviant behaviour. The key finding of this study is that any deviant behaviour at work and any negative affective reaction results from negative affectivity and lack of emotional management and awareness. Based on the present results, negative work-related personality characteristics increase the likelihood of antisocial behaviour.

7.6. Positive Job related perceptions

The last part of the conclusion is concerned largely with emotional job-related perceptions and their relationship with trait EI. As it has been already mentioned, positive feelings about work and life and positive affective behaviour are influenced by positive

affectivity such as happiness and optimism. Trait EI was examined in relation to three job-related feelings (job satisfaction, affective job commitment and motivation). These elements have a direct impact on employees' behaviour. In particular, certain specific employee's feelings (such as happiness and psychological well-being) have a direct impact on employees' job satisfaction. Affective job commitment and motivation, on the other hand, focus on employees' ego and emotional attachment, such as self-esteem, self-motivation, and assertiveness. Although strong relationships between these three variables exist, this thesis gives more support to the idea that people's emotional insight causes satisfaction, affective commitment and motivation.

Job satisfaction questionnaires are designed to capture employees' feelings about their jobs, work-environment and work circumstance, while trait EI questionnaires are designed to assess emotion-related perceptions in terms of their well-being, self-motivation, emotionality and sociability. It is believed that job satisfaction depends on employees' positive perceptions. In other words, the main understanding from the present thesis is that trait EI determines employees' job satisfaction, affective job commitment and motivation. According to these results, individuals with high trait EI are more satisfied with their jobs and their work-related conditions and they are also more emotionally attached than their low trait EI counterparts. This is a result of the positivity of high trait EI employees. It can be concluded that it might be easier to please high trait EI people because they enjoy life and maintain high rates of well-being and happiness. Regarding the work-related attitudes of high trait EI employees, they are more motivated by their job, enjoy working with others and always try to please others by doing their best in order to reinforce their or another person's self-esteem and well-being. Chapters 3, 4

and 6 consistently and empirically showed that trait EI is strongly and significantly related to job satisfaction.

In terms of the correlation between trait EI and affective job commitment, results revealed that trait EI is not related to job commitment but it is statistically significantly correlated with affective job commitment (emotional engagement). This finding is in support of the initial prediction that trait EI would be correlated only with the affect-laden work-related criteria. To sum up, when people are in jobs they love (affective commitment) and they have high trait EI scores, they are not only happy employees but they can also be charismatic leaders and employees.

Trait EI is also regarded as a critical personality factor that relates directly, not only to employee satisfaction and personality strengths but also to his/ her motivational needs. In Chapter 6 (Study 6), it was showed that high trait EI employees are highly motivated and very satisfied by their job. The findings also revealed that high trait EI employees are motivated when their self-actualisation, physiological and esteem needs are satisfied. These findings are in line with trait EI theoretical conceptualisation. For example, trait EI factors such as emotions, self-esteem, sociability and self-motivation are key components of people's motivational needs. In other words, trait EI factors and psychological motivational needs are interrelated. In particular, high trait EI individuals seek self-actualisation in order to find their self-fulfilment, realise their potential, satisfy their high self-esteem and reinforce their well-being. Self-esteem is a facet of both psychological constructs (motivational needs and trait EI); high trait EI individuals are driven by their need to satisfy their self-esteem needs because the satisfaction of self-esteem needs leads to feelings of self-confidence, strength, and adequacy.

In addition, results showed that trait EI is correlated with physiological motivational needs, due to the fact that high trait EI individuals focus on how they would maintain their physical and emotional well-being. This assumption is along the same lines as our assumptions about money and trait EI – well-being and self-control. Generally speaking, trait EI can be also described as a drive that activates behaviours. Trait EI encompasses personality strengths, such as self-esteem, self-motivation, well-being, which motivate a person to behave in a manner pleasing to others.

7.7. Future Research

In this section, it will be attempted to identify some research avenues that may lead to a better understanding of trait EI in organisational settings. The most obvious possibilities for future research concern straightforward extensions of some of the studies presented in the present thesis. Job satisfaction, high-flyers' personal characteristics, motivation and leadership effectiveness appear to be a particularly fertile domain, affording opportunities for exploring trait EI's relationship with the employees' career development, career decisions and behavioural attributes such as retention, engagement, teamwork, promotion.

Another recommendation for future research is that a proportionate stratified random sample should ideally be used when comparing various sectors using a larger sample. A larger stratified sample will allow the findings to be reliably generalised to the population. Furthermore, future studies need to examine the possibility of stratifying samples on key work-related demographic variables such as tenure, income and benefits in order to determine the influence that these external variables have on the well-being of employees. Another suggestion for future research is to examine the relationship between

employees' trait EI and change management processes so as to determine the differences between high and low trait EI individuals in terms of their adaptability to new systems and changes. Another recommendation would be to look at the relationship between employees' trait EI and communication by examining customer satisfaction and teamwork. Customer satisfaction can be assessed by using self-report statements that would be focused on communication, such as employee expressiveness, employee understanding, willingness to help, empathy and social response.

In terms of internal communication and teamwork, the 360° Feedback is the most appropriate method to collect behavioural data. In particular, colleagues from different positions and levels would be asked to provide feedback for an individual's behaviour in terms of his/ her expressiveness, emotional understanding, willingness to help, empathy and social response.

Therefore, one way to control self-report biases is through the design of the study's procedures. In particular, the key to controlling the transient mood state is to conduct individual interviews. The purpose of the interview would be two-fold. First, the researcher should enquire about the participant's day, such as recent news, meetings, deliverables, in order to control for external effects. Second, the researcher would ask the participant how he/ she feels about his/ her present job and life and how he/ she feels about his/ her occupation and life in general. This is the only way to control external bias effects. However, it is possible to obtain similar results because trait emotional characteristics and emotional behaviour (in one word trait EI) influence employees' stress and perceptions about their job and life satisfaction.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 – Study 3 Questionnaire

Appendix 2 – Study 4 Questionnaire

Appendix 3 – Study 5 Questionnaire

Appendix 4 – Study 6 Questionnaire - Bankers

Appendix 5 – Study 4 Questionnaire – Non-Bankers

Appendix 1

Trait Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace Survey



The purpose of this survey is to investigate the relationship between trait Emotional Intelligence and key work-related variables, including Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Counterproductivity behaviour. Bear in mind, there are no right or wrong answers, it is your perception, your behaviour and attitude to work and your personal life. Please, answer all the questions as honest as you can.

Your answers to the questions statements and all other information you give will be treated in the strictest confidence.

Thank you for your time and interest.

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Instructions

- Please complete this questionnaire on your own and in quiet conditions.
- Please answer each statement below by putting a *CIRCLE* around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement with that statement.
- Work quickly, and don't think too long about the exact meaning of the statements.
- Try to answer as accurately as possible.
- You have seven possible responses, ranging from 1=Completely Disagree to 7=Completely Agree

	DISAGREE COMPLETELY				AGREE COMPLETELY		
1. I'm usually able to control other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Generally, I don't take notice of other people's emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. When I receive wonderful news, I find it difficult to calm down quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I tend to see difficulties in every opportunity rather than opportunities in every difficulty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I don't have a lot of happy memories	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Understanding the needs and desires of others is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I often find it difficult to recognise what emotion I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I'm not socially skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I find it difficult to tell others that I love them even when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Others admire me for being relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I rarely think about old friends from the past	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Generally, I find it easy to tell others how much they really mean to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Generally, I must be under pressure to really work hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I'm able to "read" most people's feelings like an open book	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I normally find it difficult to calm angry people down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I find it difficult to take control of situations at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I generally hope for the best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Others tell me that they admire me for my integrity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I really don't like listening to my friends' problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I believe I'm full of personal weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I find it difficult to give up things I know and like	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I always find ways to express my affection to others when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I tend to rush into things without much planning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I find it difficult to speak about my intimate feelings even to my closest friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

31. I'm not able to do things as well as most people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I'm never really sure what I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I'm usually able to express my emotions when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. When I disagree with someone, I usually find it easy to say so	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I know how to snap out of my negative moods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. On the whole, I find it difficult to describe my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I find it difficult not to feel sad when someone tells me about something bad that happened to them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. When something surprises me, I find it difficult to get it out of my mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. I often pause and think about my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. I tend to see the glass as half-empty rather than as half-full	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. I'm a follower, not a leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. I couldn't affect other people's feelings even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. If I'm jealous of someone, I find it difficult not to behave badly towards them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. I get stressed by situations that others find comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. I find it difficult to sympathize with other people's plights	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. In the past, I have taken credit for someone else's input	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. On the whole, I can cope with change effectively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. I have many reasons for not giving up easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. I like putting effort even into things that are not really important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. I always take responsibility when I do something wrong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. I tend to change my mind frequently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. When I argue with someone, I can only see my point of view	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Things tend to turn out right in the end	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. When I disagree with someone, I generally prefer to remain silent rather than make a scene	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. I would describe myself as a calm person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. There are many reasons to expect the worst in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. I usually find it difficult to express myself clearly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. I don't mind frequently changing my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Most people are better liked than I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. Those close to me rarely complain about how I behave toward them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. I usually find it difficult to express my emotions the way I would like to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69. Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

70. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71. I would describe myself as a good negotiator	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72. I can deal effectively with people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73. On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
74. I have stolen things as a child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
75. On the whole, I'm pleased with my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
76. I find it difficult to control myself when I'm extremely happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
77. Sometimes, it feels like I'm producing a lot of good work effortlessly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
78. When I take a decision, I'm always sure it is the right one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
79. If I went on a blind date, the other person would be disappointed with my looks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
80. I normally find it difficult to adjust my behaviour according to the people I'm with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
81. On the whole, I'm able to identify myself with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
82. I try to regulate pressures in order to control my stress levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
83. I don't think I'm a useless person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
84. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
85. I can handle most difficulties in my life in a cool and composed manner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
86. If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
87. On the whole, I like myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
88. I believe I'm full of personal strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
89. I generally don't find life enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
90. I'm usually able to calm down quickly after I've got mad at someone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
91. I can remain calm even when I'm extremely happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
92. Generally, I'm not good at consoling others when they feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
93. I'm usually able to settle disputes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
94. I never put pleasure before business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
95. Imagining myself in someone else's position is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
96. I need a lot of self-control to keep myself out of trouble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
97. It is easy for me to find the right words to describe my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
98. I expect that most of my life will be enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
99. I am an ordinary person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
100. I tend to get "carried away" easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
101. I usually try to resist negative thoughts and think of positive alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
102. I don't like planning ahead	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
103. Just by looking at somebody, I can understand what he or she feels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
104. Life is beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
105. I normally find it easy to calm down after I have been scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
106. I want to be in command of things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
107. I usually find it difficult to change other people's opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
108. I'm generally good at social chit-chat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
109. Controlling my urges is not a big problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

110.I really don't like my physical appearance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
111.I tend to speak well and clearly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
112.On the whole, I'm not satisfied with how I tackle stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
113.Most of the time, I know exactly why I feel the way I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
114.I find it difficult to calm down after I have been strongly surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
115.On the whole, I would describe myself as assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
116.On the whole, I'm not a happy person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
117.When someone offends me, I'm usually able to remain calm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
118.Most of the things I manage to do well seem to require a lot of effort	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
119.I have never lied to spare someone else's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
120.I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
121.I consider all the advantages and disadvantages before making up my mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
122.I don't know how to make others feel better when they need it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
123.I usually find it difficult to change my attitudes and views	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
124.Others tell me that I rarely speak about how I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
125.On the whole, I'm satisfied with my close relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
126.I can identify an emotion from the moment it starts to develop in me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
127.On the whole, I like to put other people's interests above mine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
128.Most days, I feel great to be alive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
129.I tend to get a lot of pleasure just from doing something well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
130.It is very important to me to get along with all my close friends and family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
131.I frequently have happy thoughts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
132.I have many fierce arguments with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
133.Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
134.I find it difficult to take pleasure in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
135.I'm usually able to influence other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
136.When I'm under pressure, I tend to lose my cool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
137.I usually find it difficult to change my behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
138.Others look up to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
139.Others tell me that I get stressed very easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
140.I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
141.I believe that I would make a good salesperson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
142.I lose interest in what I do quite easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
143.On the whole, I'm a creature of habit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
144.I would normally defend my opinions even if it meant arguing with important people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
145.I would describe myself as a flexible person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
146.Generally, I need a lot of incentives in order to do my best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
147.Even when I'm arguing with someone, I'm usually able to take their perspective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
148.On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
149.I try to avoid people who may stress me out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

150. I often indulge without considering all the consequences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
151. I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
152. I find it difficult to take control of situations at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
153. Some of my responses on this questionnaire are not 100% honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- **Bear in mind, you should always ask yourself 'How satisfied you feel about your present job'.**
- **Please *CIRCLE* the appropriate number to indicate your answer to each question.**
- **There are five possible answers, ranging from 1 = Very Dissatisfied to 7 = Very Satisfied.**

DISAGREE
COMPLETELY AGREE
COMPLETELY

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It wouldn't be very costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		VERY DISSATISFIED			VERY SATISFIED	
1.	The chance to be of service to others.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	The chance to try out some of my own ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Being able to do the job without feeling it is morally wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The chance to work by myself.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	The variety in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The chance to have other workers look to me for direction.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	The chance to do the kind of work that I do best.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	The social position in the community that goes with the job.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	The policies and practices toward employees of this company.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The way my supervisor and I understand each other.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	My job security.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	The amount of pay for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	The working conditions (heating, lighting, ventilation, etc.) on this job.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	The opportunities for advancement on this job.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	The technical "know-how" of my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	The spirit of cooperation among my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	The chance to be responsible for planning my work.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	The way I am noticed when I do a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Being able to see the results of the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	The chance to be active much of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	The chance to be of service to people.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	The chance to do new and original things on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Being able to do things that don't go against my religious beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	The chance to work alone on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	The chance to do different things from time to time.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	The chance to tell other workers how to do things.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	The chance to do work that is well suited to my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	The chance to be "somebody" in the work community.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Company policies and the way in which they are administered.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	The way my boss handles his/her employees.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	The way my job provides for a secure future.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	The chance to make as much money as my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	The physical surroundings where I work.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	The chances of getting ahead on this job.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	The chance to develop close friendships with my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	The chance to make decisions on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	The way I get full credit for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5

39. Being able to take pride in a job well done.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Being able to do something much of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
41. The chance to help people.	1	2	3	4	5
42. The chance to try something different.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	1	2	3	4	5
44. The chance to be alone on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
45. The routine in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
46. The chance to supervise other people.	1	2	3	4	5
47. The chance to make use of my best abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
48. The chance to "rub elbows" with important people.	1	2	3	4	5
49. The way employees are informed about company policies.	1	2	3	4	5
50. The way my boss backs up his/her employees (with top management)	1	2	3	4	5
51. The way my job provides for steady employment.	1	2	3	4	5
52. How my pay compares with that for similar jobs in other companies.	1	2	3	4	5
53. The pleasantness of the working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
54. The way promotions are given out on this job.	1	2	3	4	5
55. The way my boss delegates work to others.	1	2	3	4	5
56. The friendliness of my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
57. The chance to be responsible for the work of others.	1	2	3	4	5
58. The recognition I get for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
59. Being able to do something worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5
60. Being able to stay busy.	1	2	3	4	5
61. The chance to do things for other people.	1	2	3	4	5
62. The chance to develop new and better ways to do the job.	1	2	3	4	5
63. The chance to do things that don't harm other people.	1	2	3	4	5
64. The chance to work independently of others.	1	2	3	4	5
65. The chance to do something different every day.	1	2	3	4	5
66. The chance to tell people what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
67. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
68. The chance to be important in the eyes of others.	1	2	3	4	5
69. The way company policies are put into practice.	1	2	3	4	5
70. The way my boss takes cares of the complaints of his/her employees	1	2	3	4	5
71. How steady my job is.	1	2	3	4	5
72. My pay and the amount of work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
73. The physical working conditions of the job.	1	2	3	4	5
74. The chances for advancement on this job.	1	2	3	4	5
75. The way my boss provides help on hard problems.	1	2	3	4	5
76. The way my co-workers are easy to make friends with.	1	2	3	4	5
77. The freedom to use my own judgment.	1	2	3	4	5
78. The way they usually tell me when I do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5
79. The chance to do my best at all times.	1	2	3	4	5



80.	The chance to be “on the go” all the time.	1	2	3	4	5
81.	The chance to be of some small service to other people.	1	2	3	4	5
82.	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	1	2	3	4	5
83.	The chance to do the job without feeling I am cheating anyone.	1	2	3	4	5
84.	The chance to work away from others.	1	2	3	4	5
85.	The chance to do many different things on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	The chance to tell others what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
87.	The chance to make use of my abilities and skills.	1	2	3	4	5
88.	The chance to have a definite place in the community.	1	2	3	4	5
89.	The way the company treats its employees.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	The personal relationship between my boss and his/ her employees.	1	2	3	4	5
91.	The way layoffs and transfers are avoided in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
92.	How my pay compares with that of other workers.	1	2	3	4	5
93.	The working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
94.	My chances for advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
95.	The way my boss trains his/ her employees.	1	2	3	4	5
96.	The way my co-workers get along with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
97.	The responsibility of my job.	1	2	3	4	5
98.	The praise I get for doing a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
99.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	1	2	3	4	5
100.	Being able to keep busy all the time.	1	2	3	4	5

Demographic Information

Instructions: Please write the right answer for each question.

- 1. What is your age? _____
- 2. What is your sex? _____
- 3. Is English your native language? _____
- 4. What is your current degree status (e.g. BSc; MSc, PhD; etc.)? _____
- 5. How long have you been in your present job? _____ Years.

Please specify the area of your studies.

-  _____
- 6. How long you been in your current line of work? _____ Years.
- 7. What would you call your occupation?
-  _____

Thank you for your participation!!



Appendix 2

Trait Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace Survey



The purpose of this survey is to investigate the relationship between trait Emotional Intelligence and key work-related variables, including Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Counterproductivity behaviour. Bear in mind, there are no right or wrong answers, it is your perception, your behaviour and attitude to work and your personal life. Please, answer all the questions as honest as you can.

Your answers to the questions statements and all other information you give will be treated in the strictest confidence.

Thank you for your time and interest.

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Instructions

- Please complete this questionnaire on your own and in quiet conditions.
- Please answer each statement below by putting a *CIRCLE* around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement with that statement.
- Work quickly, and don't think too long about the exact meaning of the statements.
- Try to answer as accurately as possible.
- You have seven possible responses, ranging from 1=Completely Disagree to 7=Completely Agree

	DISAGREE COMPLETELY				AGREE COMPLETELY		
1. I'm usually able to control other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Generally, I don't take notice of other people's emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. When I receive wonderful news, I find it difficult to calm down quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I tend to see difficulties in every opportunity rather than opportunities in every difficulty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I don't have a lot of happy memories	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Understanding the needs and desires of others is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I often find it difficult to recognise what emotion I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I'm not socially skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I find it difficult to tell others that I love them even when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Others admire me for being relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I rarely think about old friends from the past	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Generally, I find it easy to tell others how much they really mean to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Generally, I must be under pressure to really work hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I'm able to "read" most people's feelings like an open book	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I normally find it difficult to calm angry people down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I find it difficult to take control of situations at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I generally hope for the best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Others tell me that they admire me for my integrity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I really don't like listening to my friends' problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I believe I'm full of personal weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I find it difficult to give up things I know and like	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I always find ways to express my affection to others when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I tend to rush into things without much planning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I find it difficult to speak about my intimate feelings even to my closest friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

31. I'm not able to do things as well as most people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I'm never really sure what I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I'm usually able to express my emotions when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. When I disagree with someone, I usually find it easy to say so	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I know how to snap out of my negative moods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. On the whole, I find it difficult to describe my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I find it difficult not to feel sad when someone tells me about something bad that happened to them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. When something surprises me, I find it difficult to get it out of my mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. I often pause and think about my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. I tend to see the glass as half-empty rather than as half-full	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. I'm a follower, not a leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. I couldn't affect other people's feelings even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. If I'm jealous of someone, I find it difficult not to behave badly towards them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. I get stressed by situations that others find comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. I find it difficult to sympathize with other people's plights	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. In the past, I have taken credit for someone else's input	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. On the whole, I can cope with change effectively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. I have many reasons for not giving up easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. I like putting effort even into things that are not really important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. I always take responsibility when I do something wrong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. I tend to change my mind frequently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. When I argue with someone, I can only see my point of view	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Things tend to turn out right in the end	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. When I disagree with someone, I generally prefer to remain silent rather than make a scene	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. I would describe myself as a calm person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. There are many reasons to expect the worst in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. I usually find it difficult to express myself clearly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. I don't mind frequently changing my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Most people are better liked than I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. Those close to me rarely complain about how I behave toward them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. I usually find it difficult to express my emotions the way I would like to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69. Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

70. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71. I would describe myself as a good negotiator	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72. I can deal effectively with people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73. On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
74. I have stolen things as a child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
75. On the whole, I'm pleased with my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
76. I find it difficult to control myself when I'm extremely happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
77. Sometimes, it feels like I'm producing a lot of good work effortlessly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
78. When I take a decision, I'm always sure it is the right one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
79. If I went on a blind date, the other person would be disappointed with my looks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
80. I normally find it difficult to adjust my behaviour according to the people I'm with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
81. On the whole, I'm able to identify myself with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
82. I try to regulate pressures in order to control my stress levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
83. I don't think I'm a useless person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
84. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
85. I can handle most difficulties in my life in a cool and composed manner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
86. If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
87. On the whole, I like myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
88. I believe I'm full of personal strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
89. I generally don't find life enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
90. I'm usually able to calm down quickly after I've got mad at someone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
91. I can remain calm even when I'm extremely happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
92. Generally, I'm not good at consoling others when they feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
93. I'm usually able to settle disputes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
94. I never put pleasure before business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
95. Imagining myself in someone else's position is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
96. I need a lot of self-control to keep myself out of trouble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
97. It is easy for me to find the right words to describe my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
98. I expect that most of my life will be enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
99. I am an ordinary person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
100. I tend to get "carried away" easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
101. I usually try to resist negative thoughts and think of positive alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
102. I don't like planning ahead	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
103. Just by looking at somebody, I can understand what he or she feels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
104. Life is beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
105. I normally find it easy to calm down after I have been scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
106. I want to be in command of things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
107. I usually find it difficult to change other people's opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
108. I'm generally good at social chit-chat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
109. Controlling my urges is not a big problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

110.I really don't like my physical appearance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
111.I tend to speak well and clearly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
112.On the whole, I'm not satisfied with how I tackle stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
113.Most of the time, I know exactly why I feel the way I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
114.I find it difficult to calm down after I have been strongly surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
115.On the whole, I would describe myself as assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
116.On the whole, I'm not a happy person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
117.When someone offends me, I'm usually able to remain calm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
118.Most of the things I manage to do well seem to require a lot of effort	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
119.I have never lied to spare someone else's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
120.I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
121.I consider all the advantages and disadvantages before making up my mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
122.I don't know how to make others feel better when they need it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
123.I usually find it difficult to change my attitudes and views	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
124.Others tell me that I rarely speak about how I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
125.On the whole, I'm satisfied with my close relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
126.I can identify an emotion from the moment it starts to develop in me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
127.On the whole, I like to put other people's interests above mine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
128.Most days, I feel great to be alive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
129.I tend to get a lot of pleasure just from doing something well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
130.It is very important to me to get along with all my close friends and family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
131.I frequently have happy thoughts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
132.I have many fierce arguments with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
133.Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
134.I find it difficult to take pleasure in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
135.I'm usually able to influence other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
136.When I'm under pressure, I tend to lose my cool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
137.I usually find it difficult to change my behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
138.Others look up to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
139.Others tell me that I get stressed very easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
140.I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
141.I believe that I would make a good salesperson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
142.I lose interest in what I do quite easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
143.On the whole, I'm a creature of habit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
144.I would normally defend my opinions even if it meant arguing with important people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
145.I would describe myself as a flexible person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
146.Generally, I need a lot of incentives in order to do my best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
147.Even when I'm arguing with someone, I'm usually able to take their perspective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
148.On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
149.I try to avoid people who may stress me out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

150.I often indulge without considering all the consequences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
151.I tend to “back down” even if I know I’m right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
152.I find it difficult to take control of situations at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
153.Some of my responses on this questionnaire are not 100% honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- **Bear in mind, you should always ask yourself ‘How satisfied you feel about your present job’.**
- **Please *CIRCLE* the appropriate number to indicate your answer to each question.**
- **There are five possible answers, ranging from 1 = Very Dissatisfied to 7 = Very Satisfied.**

DISAGREE
COMPLETELY AGREE
COMPLETELY

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do not think that wanting to be a ‘company man’ or ‘company woman’ is sensible anymore.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I do not feel like ‘part of the family’ at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It wouldn’t be very costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- Bear in mind, you should always ask yourself ‘How satisfied you feel about your present job’.
- Please *DELETE* or *CIRCLE* the appropriate number to indicate your answer to each question.
- There are five possible answers, ranging from 1 = Very Dissatisfied to 7 = Very Satisfied.

	VERY DISSATISFIED			VERY SATISFIED	
1. The chance to work alone on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The chance to do different things from time to time.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The chance to be “somebody” in the community.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The way my boss handles his/her employees.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The way my job provides for steady employment.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The chance to do things for other people.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The chance to tell people what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The way company policies are put into practice.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My pay and the amount of work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The chances for advancement on this job.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The freedom to use my own judgment.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
17. The way my co-workers get along with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The praise I get for doing a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
19. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Being able to keep busy all the time.	1	2	3	4	5

- Please *DELETE* or *Circle* the appropriate number to indicate your answer to each question.
- There are seven possible answers, which are:
- 0 = Never; 1 = Once; 2 = Two or three times; 3 = Several times; 4 = Often; 5 = Very often; 6 = Every time.

	NEVER			EVERY TIME			
1. I argued with people from outside the organization (e.g. visitors, customers).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I left my workplace during working hours without permission.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I stayed away from work without excuse.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I was intoxicated during working hours.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I intentionally worked slowly or carelessly.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I sought revenge from colleagues.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I came to work late or went home early.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I’ve been physically rough with other employees (co-workers, colleagues, superiors).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I exceeded a break by more than five minutes.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. There were occasions when I skipped work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I worked less in the absence of my superior.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

12. I had drunk too much during working hours.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I arrived at work at least 10 minutes late.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I took a walk within the firm to shirk working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I shirked unpleasant tasks.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I stayed away from work, although I was actually healthy.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I pretended to work to avoid a new work order.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I had others clock in or out for me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I left my workplace to avoid a new work order.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I suspended work to smoke a cigarette or chat with others.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I went home at least 10 minutes before time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I have stolen property of colleagues.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I helped someone to steal company property.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I used a company car on my private business without permission.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I took drugs during working hours (hashish, intoxicant medicine, etc).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I took materials home without permission.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I turned in a falsified bill of expenses.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. In rage, I damaged company equipment.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I made private calls or sent private e-mails at the company's expense.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. For my own business, I left my workplace without permission.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I took home merchandise without permission.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. I came to work with a hangover from the night before.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I took home office supplies for private use.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I gave employee discounts to friends or relatives.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I physically touched a co-worker of the opposite sex on purpose.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. I took a part of my work materials for private use.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. During working hours, I read the newspaper or play computer games.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. I deliberately damaged property at work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I did not report theft by others.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. I insulted other employees.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. I searched through documents belonging to my co-workers to see if I could use the information for myself.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

42. I've been physically rough with people from outside the organization (e.g. customers, visitors).		1	2	3	4	5	6
43. I sold goods to friends at reduced prices.		1	2	3	4	5	6
44. I have threatened co-workers if they didn't do what I wanted them to do.		1	2	3	4	5	6
45. I have said something negative about a colleague to my supervisor, in order to harm the colleague.	0	1	2	3		5	6
46. I used working time for private affairs.	0	1	2	3	4		6
47. I consciously impaired the life of colleague or subordinate.	0	1		3	4	5	6
48. I made private photocopies at the company's expense during working hours without permission.	0	1	2	3	4		6
49. When a supervisor treated me unfairly, I damaged company supplies in response.		1	2	3	4	5	6
50. I drank alcohol during working hours.	0	1	2	3		5	6
51. I drank enough alcohol at work that I could feel the impact.	0	1	2	3		5	6
52. I put the blame on colleagues for mistakes I personally made.	0	1		3	4	5	6
53. I lent property of colleagues without asking for permission.		1	2	3	4	5	6

Demographic Information

Instructions: Please write the right answer for each question.

1. What is your age?
2. What is your sex?
3. Is English your native language?
4. What is your current degree status (e.g. BSc; MSc, PhD; etc.)?
5. How long have you been in your present job? Years.

Please specify the area of your studies.



-
6. How long you been in your current line of work? Years.
 7. What would you call your occupation?
-

Thank you for your participation!!

Appendix 3

Trait EI in the workplace survey

The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has recently received a lot of attention both at a scientific as well as at a popular level. The present study is part of an international academic research programme aiming to investigate the nature and effects of EI in a wide range of domains.

The specific purpose of the survey you are holding is to investigate the role of *trait EI* in organizational settings. The survey includes several different questionnaires, assessing many important thoughts and behaviours in the workplace. At the top of each questionnaire, you will find brief instructions on how to complete it.

We greatly appreciate your participation in this study, which will contribute towards a better understanding of the concept of trait emotional intelligence and its relevance in work-related contexts. As a mark of appreciation, we will be happy to provide you with feedback on your scores. If you are interested in receiving such feedback, please make sure you write your name and address at the end of the questionnaire. Thank you for your time.

Instructions

- Please complete this questionnaire on your own and in quiet conditions.
- Please answer each statement below by putting a circle around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. *There are no right or wrong answers.*
- Work quickly and don't think too long about the exact meaning of the statements.
- You have seven possible responses, ranging from 1 (Completely Disagree) to 7 (Completely Agree).

		DISAGREE COMPLETELY					AGREE COMPLETELY	
1.	I'm usually able to control other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Generally, I don't take notice of other people's emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	When I receive wonderful news, I find it difficult to calm down quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I tend to see difficulties in every opportunity rather than opportunities in every difficulty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		DISAGREE COMPLETELY					AGREE COMPLETELY	
5.	On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I don't have a lot of happy memories	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Understanding the needs and desires of others is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I often find it difficult to recognise what emotion I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I'm not socially skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I find it difficult to tell others that I love them even when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Others admire me for being relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I rarely think about old friends from the past	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Generally, I find it easy to tell others how much they really mean to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Generally, I must be under pressure to really work hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I'm able to "read" most people's feelings like an open book	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I normally find it difficult to calm angry people down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I find it difficult to take control of situations at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I generally hope for the best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Others tell me that they admire me for my integrity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I really don't like listening to my friends' problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I believe I'm full of personal weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I find it difficult to give up things I know and like	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I always find ways to express my affection to others when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	I tend to rush into things without much planning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I find it difficult to speak about my intimate feelings even to my closest friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	I'm not able to do things as well as most people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	I'm never really sure what I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	I'm usually able to express my emotions when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	When I disagree with someone, I usually find it easy to say so	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	I know how to snap out of my negative moods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	On the whole, I find it difficult to describe my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	I find it difficult not to feel sad when someone tells me about something bad that happened to them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	When something surprises me, I find it difficult to get it out of my mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	I often pause and think about my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	I tend to see the glass as half-empty rather than as half-full	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	I'm a follower, not a leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	I couldn't affect other people's feelings even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	If I'm jealous of someone, I find it difficult not to behave badly towards them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	I get stressed by situations that others find comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	I find it difficult to sympathize with other people's plights	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	In the past, I have taken credit for someone else's input	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	On the whole, I can cope with change effectively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	I have many reasons for not giving up easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	I like putting effort even into things that are not really important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	I always take responsibility when I do something wrong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	I tend to change my mind frequently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57.	When I argue with someone, I can only see my point of view	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		DISAGREE COMPLETELY					AGREE COMPLETELY	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58.	Things tend to turn out right in the end	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59.	When I disagree with someone, I generally prefer to remain silent rather than make a scene	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60.	If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61.	I would describe myself as a calm person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62.	I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63.	There are many reasons to expect the worst in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64.	I usually find it difficult to express myself clearly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65.	I don't mind frequently changing my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66.	Most people are better liked than I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67.	Those close to me rarely complain about how I behave toward them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68.	I usually find it difficult to express my emotions the way I would like to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69.	Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70.	I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71.	I would describe myself as a good negotiator	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72.	I can deal effectively with people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73.	On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
74.	I have stolen things as a child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
75.	On the whole, I'm pleased with my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
76.	I find it difficult to control myself when I'm extremely happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
77.	Sometimes, it feels like I'm producing a lot of good work effortlessly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
78.	When I take a decision, I'm always sure it is the right one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
79.	If I went on a blind date, the other person would be disappointed with my looks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
80.	I normally find it difficult to adjust my behaviour according to the people I'm with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
81.	On the whole, I'm able to identify myself with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
82.	I try to regulate pressures in order to control my stress levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
83.	I don't think I'm a useless person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
84.	I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
85.	I can handle most difficulties in my life in a cool and composed manner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
86.	If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
87.	On the whole, I like myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
88.	I believe I'm full of personal strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
89.	I generally don't find life enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
90.	I'm usually able to calm down quickly after I've got mad at someone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
91.	I can remain calm even when I'm extremely happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
92.	Generally, I'm not good at consoling others when they feel bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
93.	I'm usually able to settle disputes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
94.	I never put pleasure before business							
95.	Imagining myself in someone else's position is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
96.	I need a lot of self-control to keep myself out of trouble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
97.	It is easy for me to find the right words to describe my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
98.	I expect that most of my life will be enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
99.	I am an ordinary person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
100.	I tend to get "carried away" easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
101.	I usually try to resist negative thoughts and think of positive alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
102.	I don't like planning ahead	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
103.	Just by looking at somebody, I can understand what he or she feels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
104.	Life is beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
105.	I normally find it easy to calm down after I have been scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
106.	I want to be in command of things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
107.	I usually find it difficult to change other people's opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
108.	I'm generally good at social chit-chat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
109.	Controlling my urges is not a big problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
110.	I really don't like my physical appearance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		DISAGREE COMPLETELY					AGREE COMPLETELY	
111.	I tend to speak well and clearly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
112	On the whole, I'm not satisfied with how I tackle stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
113.	Most of the time, I know exactly why I feel the way I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
114	I find it difficult to calm down after I have been strongly surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
115.	On the whole, I would describe myself as assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
116	On the whole, I'm not a happy person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
117.	When someone offends me, I'm usually able to remain calm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
118	Most of the things I manage to do well seem to require a lot of effort	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
119.	I have never lied to spare someone else's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
120	I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
121.	I consider all the advantages and disadvantages before making up my mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
122	I don't know how to make others feel better when they need it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
123.	I usually find it difficult to change my attitudes and views	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
124	Others tell me that I rarely speak about how I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
125.	On the whole, I'm satisfied with my close relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
126	I can identify an emotion from the moment it starts to develop in me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
127.	On the whole, I like to put other people's interests above mine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
128	Most days, I feel great to be alive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
129.	I tend to get a lot of pleasure just from doing something well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
130	It is very important to me to get along with all my close friends and family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
131.	I frequently have happy thoughts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
132	I have many fierce arguments with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
133.	Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
134	I find it difficult to take pleasure in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
135.	I'm usually able to influence other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
136	When I'm under pressure, I tend to lose my cool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
137.	I usually find it difficult to change my behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
138	Others look up to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
139.	Others tell me that I get stressed very easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
140	I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
141.	I believe that I would make a good salesperson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
142	I lose interest in what I do quite easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
143.	On the whole, I'm a creature of habit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
144	I would normally defend my opinions even if it meant arguing with important people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
145.	I would describe myself as a flexible person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
146	Generally, I need a lot of incentives in order to do my best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
147.	Even when I'm arguing with someone, I'm usually able to take their perspective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
148	On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
149.	I try to avoid people who may stress me out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
150	I often indulge without considering all the consequences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
151.	I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
152	I find it difficult to take control of situations at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
153.	Some of my responses on this questionnaire are not 100% honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instructions: Please answer each statement below by putting a circle around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. Do not think too long about the exact meaning of the statements. Work quickly and try to answer as accurately as possible. There are seven possible responses to each statement, ranging from 'Completely Disagree' (number 1) to 'Completely Agree' (number 7).

		DISAGREE COMPLETELY					AGREE COMPLETELY	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Generally, I take more sick leave than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I don't like taking on tasks with too much responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	"Time is money."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	It is important to me that others recognize my achievements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	If I feel I must take risks in my work, I take them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I'm not interested in having significance influence in my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I work better when I know I'm competing against someone else.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I wish my job role were clearer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I like testing new ways of doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I often feel tense at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	On the whole, I look forward to new work projects with excitement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I tend to work frenetically, doing many things very fast.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I will never rest on my laurels.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	It is OK to fail, as long as I learn something in the process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Some colleagues avoid working with me because they think I'm too controlling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I want to be the best in everything I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Most things in life are pretty uncertain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I'm always open to new ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	My colleagues at work often tell me I'm moody.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	It is very important to me to stay on my career path.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I have many interests outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I'm a 'laid back' type of person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I'm often the first person to voice an opinion in meetings at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I always want to have the upper hand when I enter into negotiations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Others tell me I'm very competitive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	In order to achieve anything, you need to know precisely what it is that you want to achieve.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I'd rather stick to an efficient way of doing my job than experiment with untested approaches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I couldn't be happier in my present post.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	Generally, it is acceptable to be a little late getting to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I'm always patient with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	I always feel that I have to prove myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	Generally, I avoid taking decisions that have a chance of leading to failure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	I like it when others depend on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	Everyone has something important to contribute so there's no need for ranking contributions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	It's not worth struggling on problems that have no clear-cut solutions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	An open mind is a prerequisite to success.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	I have been told that I often lose my temper at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	My colleagues tell me that I work too hard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	Others think I'm very ambitious.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	I'm determined to go far in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	I can give honest feedback, even when it might hurt someone's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	Having peace of mind is more important than having power.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		DISAGREE COMPLETELY					AGREE COMPLETELY	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	I love playing games where the winner takes it all.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	There are many ways of getting things done, but there's always one that's best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	On the whole, I'm very open to change.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	I'm often worried about my career prospects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	I tend to check my work repeatedly before I pass it on to a client or colleague.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	There's plenty of time to do everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	My first priority is to live a balanced life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	When I think that a colleague's freeloading at work, I always confront them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	It's very important to me that others respect my views.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	I believe in survival of the fittest.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	Most important decisions boil down to a 'yes' or a 'no'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	I'm more interested in working things out than getting things done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	My colleagues often tell me that I look happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	I have always been a diligent worker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57.	On the whole, I don't find work stressful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58.	I'm fully prepared to put in all the effort required to succeed in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59.	You have to bend your moral principles to be successful in business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60.	To me, being successful means being able to pull the strings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61.	On the whole, competitive people have a chip on their shoulder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62.	I really have no problems when work tasks seem vague and difficult to define.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63.	Old traditions should always be respected.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64.	I have been told by my boss to take a holiday because I looked tense.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65.	Hard work is essential to success at any job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66.	There are not enough hours in the day.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67.	On the whole, achievement to me means tangible signs of success.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68.	I don't mind delivering bad news.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69.	I have little interest in controlling other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70.	I hate 'league table' culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71.	Good businesses have a formal chain of command where everyone knows their place and duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72.	Most 'new' ideas have been thought of before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73.	I can handle pressure at work easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
74.	I'm not as effective as I could be at my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
75.	If I'm totally in control of a project, things will turn out right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
76.	It's better to 'go with the flow' than set high goals in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
77.	Generally, if I notice something wrong at work, I prefer to keep quiet rather than make a scene.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
78.	I want to be the most influential member of the work team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
79.	I hate environments where there's cut-throat competition.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
80.	I avoid projects with ill-defined aims.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
81.	I am very curious about how the people I look up to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
82.	I worry about my colleagues doing a better job than me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
83.	My colleagues sometimes complain that they have to spend time rectifying my mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
84.	I hate it when someone's late for a meeting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
85.	My personal targets at work exceed those that organizations (e.g., school, company, social clubs) set for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
86.	On the whole, I do as my boss says, even if I think he or she is wrong on an issue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
87.	I hate being a follower.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
88.	I really strive to be the best in all I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
89.	The most interesting tasks are those that have multiple solutions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
90.	I enjoy science fiction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
91.	I often get depressed when I think about the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		DISAGREE COMPLETELY					AGREE COMPLETELY	
92.	I'm often told I'm very conscientious.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
93.	It's not worth getting too stressed about work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
94.	I would quit my job instantly if I thought there was nothing left for me to achieve.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
95.	"Nothing ventured, nothing gained."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
96.	The only way to get things done is to do them personally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
97.	I often think about dropping out of the rat race.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
98.	I get frustrated when I don't know precisely what's expected of me at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
99.	I love learning new things all the time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
100.	I experience a lot of stress at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
101	I like to dream about new and different worlds.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instructions: Please circle the number that best reflects the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the 28 statements below. There are five possible responses to each statement, ranging from 'Completely Disagree' (number 1) to 'Completely Agree' (number 5).

		DISAGREE COMPLETELY					AGREE COMPLETELY				
1.	My work gives me a sense of accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5					
2.	My fellow workers are selfish.	1	2	3	4	5					
3.	My supervisor really tries to get our ideas about things.	1	2	3	4	5					
4.	Top management really knows its job.	1	2	3	4	5					
5.	My pay is low in comparison with what others get for similar work in other companies.	1	2	3	4	5					
6.	My opportunities for advancement are limited.	1	2	3	4	5					
7.	My customers/clients live up to their promises.	1	2	3	4	5					
8.	My job is often dull and monotonous.	1	2	3	4	5					
9.	The people I work with are very friendly.	1	2	3	4	5					
10.	My supervisor has always been fair in dealing with me.	1	2	3	4	5					
11.	My organization operates efficiently and smoothly.	1	2	3	4	5					
12.	I'm paid fairly compared with other employees in this company.	1	2	3	4	5					
13.	I have a good chance for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5					
14.	My customers/clients are trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5					
15.	My work is satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5					
16.	My fellow workers are pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5					
17.	My supervisor gives us credit and praise for work well done.	1	2	3	4	5					
18.	I do not get enough formal recognition for the job that I do.	1	2	3	4	5					
19.	My income is adequate for normal expenses.	1	2	3	4	5					
20.	My organization for has an unfair promotion policy.	1	2	3	4	5					
21.	I wish my customers/clients were more understanding.	1	2	3	4	5					
22.	I'm really doing something worthwhile in my job.	1	2	3	4	5					
23.	My fellow workers are obstructive.	1	2	3	4	5					
24.	My supervisor knows very little about his or her job.	1	2	3	4	5					
25.	Top management ignores our suggestions and complaints.	1	2	3	4	5					
26.	In my opinion, the pay here is lower than in other companies.	1	2	3	4	5					
27.	There are plenty of good jobs in my organization for those who want to get ahead.	1	2	3	4	5					
28.	I wish my customers/clients were more loyal.	1	2	3	4	5					

Instructions: Below are listed 37 different work-related factors that may be important to you when you look for or change jobs. Please indicate how much you personally value each one of them by circling the appropriate number. Give higher ratings to factors that are more important to you and lower ratings to factors that are less important to you. There are no right or wrong answers – we are interested in your personal opinions.

	Unimportant			Important		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Balance – a job that allows me to lead a balanced life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Benefits – a job that provides many features additional to pay (e.g., pension top-ups, extra holidays).	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Bonuses – a job that provides many opportunities for topping up the basic salary.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Clarity – a job with clear and well-defined roles and responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Comfort – a job that can be carried out in physically comfortable conditions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Competition – a job that provides me with opportunities to compete with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Conditions – a job that can be carried out in conditions, that are safe, modern, and clean.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Contribution to society – a job that allows me to work for a good cause.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Effortlessness – a job that is relatively easy and does not require excessive effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Equipment – a job that can be carried out with up-to-date equipment and technology.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Flexibility – a job that allows me to work flexible hours to suit my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Independence – a job that allows me to work autonomously without much supervision.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Insurance – a job that provides health and life insurance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Intellectuality – a job that is challenging and involves a lot thinking and analysis.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Location – a job that is conveniently located and easily accessible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Organizational image – a job within an organization that is widely recognized and respected.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Pay – a job that is very well paid.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Perks – a job that provides many extras (e.g., company car, discounts on goods, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Personal growth – a job that provides opportunities for self-improvement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Personal relevance – a job that provides me with opportunities to use my personal talents, education, and training.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Power – a job that allows me to control my destiny and be influential.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Promotion – a job that provides opportunities for rapid advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Recognition – a job that leads to clear and wide recognition of my achievements.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Regularity – a job that can be performed in a standard, stable, and controlled manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Responsibility – a job with many appropriate responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Safety – a job that can be carried out in safe and secure conditions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Security – a job that is secure and permanent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Simplicity – a job that is not overly complicated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Social interaction – a job that provides many good opportunities for social contact with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Status – a job that is generally recognized as ‘high-status’ in our society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. Stimulation – a job that I personally find very interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Supervision – a boss who is fair and considerate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Teaching – a job that allows me to train others and to pass on my expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6

34. Teamwork – a job that provides me with opportunities to cooperate with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. Tranquillity – a job that is not particularly stressful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. Variety – a job that allows me to get involved in many different kinds of activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. Visibility – a job that gives me a fair amount of publicity.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Instructions: Please indicate *how true each of the following statements is of your behavior at work*. There are five possible responses, ranging from ‘completely untrue’ (number 1) to ‘completely true’ (number 5).

1 2 3 4 5

Completely Untrue **Completely True**

1. I help others who have been absent	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am very punctual in getting work completed	1	2	3	4	5
3. I volunteer for things that are not required	1	2	3	4	5
4. I take undeserved breaks	1	2	3	4	5
5. I orient new people even though it is not required	1	2	3	4	5
6. My attendance is above the norm	1	2	3	4	5
7. I help others who have heavy work loads	1	2	3	4	5
8. I coast during the end of the day	1	2	3	4	5
9. I always give advance notice when I am unable to come	1	2	3	4	5
10. I spend a great deal of time with personal phone conversations	1	2	3	4	5
11. I do not take unnecessary time off	1	2	3	4	5
12. I assist my supervisor with his/her work	1	2	3	4	5
13. I make innovative suggestions to improve the organization	1	2	3	4	5
14. I do not take extra breaks	1	2	3	4	5
15. I attend functions not required but that help the organization's "image"	1	2	3	4	5
16. I do not spend time in idle conversation	1	2	3	4	5

About you

Please note that in this section you are occasionally asked to **write** in your answer.

What is your gender?

- ☐ MALE ☐ FEMALE

What is your natural hand for writing?

- ☐ RIGHT ☐ LEFT

Your marital status?

- ☐ Single
☐ Living together
☐ Married, no children in education
☐ Married with children in education
☐ Divorced/ Separated
☐ Widowed
☐ Other

What is your year of birth?

19...

Your birth order? (e.g. 1st, 2nd child)

- ☐ 1st ☐ 2nd ☐ 3rd ☐ 4
☐ 5th ☐ 6th

Your current occupation?

- ☐ Private sector, manufacturer
☐ Private sector, service company
☐ Armed forces
☐ Health Service
☐ Other public sector
☐ Voluntary sector/charities
☐ Academic/teaching
☐ Self-employed
☐ Not employed
☐ Other

Was your upbringing mainly in

- ☐ Large City ☐ Town ☐ Village ☐ Other

How many children have you had?

- ☐ None ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 5+

Your highest educational qualification?

- ☐ GCSE/O Level or similar
☐ A Level or similar
☐ BA/BSc or similar
☐ MA/MSc or similar
☐ MBA
☐ PhD
☐ Other

If you are currently in higher education, what subject are you studying?

write

How would you describe yourself ethnically?

- ☐ White – UK heritage
☐ White - other
☐ Pakistani
☐ Bangladeshi
☐ Indian
☐ Black – African heritage
☐ Black – Caribbean heritage
☐ Chinese
☐ Other

What sort of family religious background do you have?

- ☐ Christian – Protestant
☐ Christian – Roman Catholic
☐ Christian – Other
☐ Muslim
☐ Hindu
☐ Jewish
☐ Buddhist
☐ Other belief system
☐ None at all

And with which religion would you say you most closely identify now?

- ☐ Christian – Protestant
☐ Christian – Catholic
☐ Christian – Other
☐ Muslim
☐ Hindu
☐ Jewish
☐ Buddhist
☐ Other belief system
☐ None at all

What is your total pre-tax annual income?

- ☐ Below £5000
☐ £5001-10000
☐ £10001-£15000
☐ £15001-£20,000
☐ £20001-£25000
☐ £25001-£30000
☐ £30001-£35000
☐ £35001-£40000
☐ £41001-£45000
☐ £45001-£50000
☐ Over £50000

How religious are you?

On a scale of 1-7, where
1=Not Religious At All
4=Average
7=Very Religious
Please write in your score write

What are your political convictions?

On a scale of 1-7, where
1=Strongly Left Wing
4=Neither
7=Strongly Right wing
Please write in your score write

How happy in your job are you?

On a scale of 1-7, where
1=Not at All Happy
4=Average
7=Very Happy
Please write in your score write

How good are you at your line of work?

On a scale of 1-7, where
1=Poor
4=Average
7=Very Good
Please write in your score write

How many hours a month do you dedicate to voluntary public or civic work?

write

Is English your native language?

- ☐ YES ☐ NO

What is your job title?

write

IMPORTANT: If you would like us to send you your scores, along with feedback and additional information, please write your name and address in the space below. Please make sure the information is complete and legible.

NAME:

ADDRESS:

Appendix 4

General instructions:

Please answer each question/statement below and indicate your preferences as instructed.

Keep in mind that there are no right or wrong answers. Please note that we are not trying to measure aspects of your abilities or of your professional performance.

Please, also tell me.....

1. What is your name?

2. What is your age?

3. What is your sex?

4. Is English your native language?

Now, you are ready to go ahead

Enjoy the survey!

SECTION I

The grid below contains a black square in the middle which should be thought of as your starting point. It is neutral and indicates that no emotion is felt in any direction.

The **Right side** of the black square represents pleasant feelings, feelings of enjoyment, happiness, and satisfaction.

The **Left side** of the black square represents unpleasant feelings, feelings of annoyance, and displeasure.

The **Upper side** of the black square represents feelings of high arousal and tension.

The **Lower side** of the black square represents feelings of low arousal and tension.

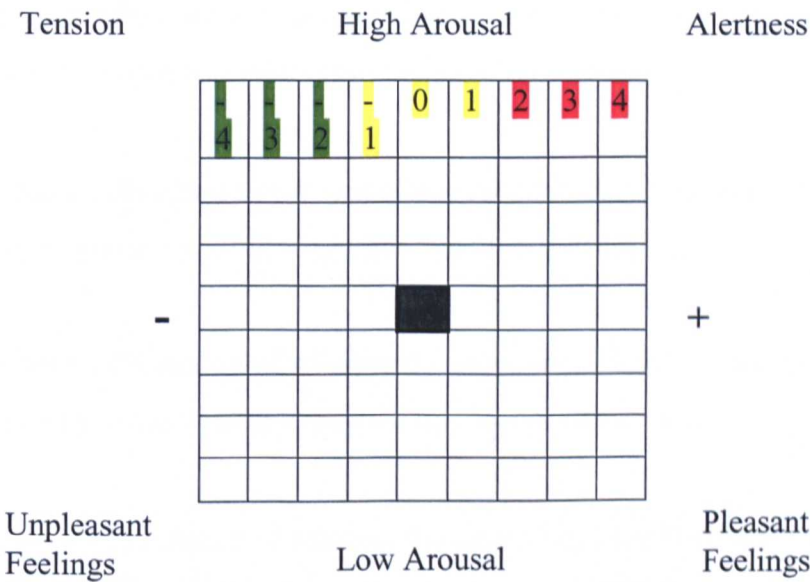
The **Upper-Right side** of the box represents feelings of ecstasy, excitement, and joy.

The **Upper-Left side** of the box represents feelings of stress and tension.

The **Lower-Right side** represents feelings of calmness, relaxation, and serenity.

The **Lower-Left side** represents feelings of depression, melancholy, sadness, and gloom.

Please place only ONE **X** anywhere in the grid to indicate how you are feeling right now. Please look over the entire grid to ensure you understand the meaning of the various areas.



SECTION II

Please answer each question below by stating an amount that best reflects your personal preferences.

1. A lottery ticket has a 90% chance of winning the amount of £10,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....
2. A lottery ticket has a 90% chance of winning the amount of £3,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....
3. A lottery ticket has a 90% chance of winning the amount of £1,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this ticket lottery? £.....
4. A lottery ticket has a 50% chance of winning the amount of £10,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....
5. A lottery ticket has a 50% chance of winning the amount of £3,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....
6. A lottery ticket has a 50% chance of winning the amount of £1,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....
7. A lottery ticket has a 10% chance of winning the amount of £10,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....
8. A lottery ticket has a 10% chance of winning the amount of £3,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....
9. A lottery ticket has a 10% chance of winning the amount of £1,000, otherwise nothing (£0). What is the most you are willing to pay for this lottery ticket? £.....

SECTION III

Please answer each statement below by putting a CIRCLE around the letter that best reflects your preferences (either "a" or "b").

1. Imagine that you have received £10,000, but are unable to retain the whole amount and have to choose one of the following options:

- a. Take £3,000 right now, OR
- b. Take a 50% chance of winning the whole amount (£10,000), otherwise winning nothing (£0).

2. Imagine that you have received £1,000, but are unable to retain the whole amount and have to choose one of the following options:

- a. Take £450 right now, OR
- b. Take a 50% chance of winning the whole amount (£1,000), otherwise winning nothing (£0).

Please read the scenario below and indicate your preferences for one of the two available options by putting a CIRCLE around the relevant letter (either "A" or "B").

Imagine you were informed that the company you have invested in has just gone bankrupt and it has been announced that you will lose all of your 600 shares. Two alternative options have been proposed. The consequences of these two options are as follows:

Option A: If option A is chosen, exactly 200 of your shares will be saved.

Option B: If option B is chosen, there is a 1 in 3 probability that all your shares will be saved and a 2 in 3 probability that none of your shares will be saved.

