The Role of Trait Emotional Intelligence in a Gender-Specific Model of Organizational Variables[1]

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This article investigated the relationships between trait emotional intelligence (''trait EI'' or ''emotional self-efficacy'') and 4 job-related variables (perceived job control, job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment). Gender-specific data ($N = 167$, 87 females) were analyzed via multigroup structural equation modeling. Perceived job control had a negative effect on stress and a positive effect on satisfaction. Stress had a negative effect on satisfaction, which, in turn, had the strongest positive effect on commitment. There were many gender differences in the model, mainly concerning age, which was negatively related to control and commitment in the female sample only. Trait EI had specific, rather than widespread, effects in the model. Discussion focuses on trait EI's implications in the workplace.

The ability of organizations to attract and retain their most promising staff constitutes an important competitive advantage. Organizational commitment (OC) has been defined in a number of different ways, all of which, however, concern the degree to which an individual feels psychologically attached to the organization in which he or she works (Kacmar, Carlson, & Brymer, 1999). OC has received considerable empirical attention in the literature, especially in relation to relevant job-related variables, such as job satisfaction (Currivan, 1999), work values (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001), and occupational stress (Leong, Furnham, & Cooper, 1996).

OC has been associated with many other work-related attitudes, cognitions, and outcomes. In this study, we will look at constructs with important implications in the workplace, including perceived job control, job stress, and job satisfaction. Several of these constructs have been examined in

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relation to more basic variables, such as demographic data (e.g., age and gender; Cohen, 1993), personality traits (Griffin, 2001), and cognitive ability (Ganzach, 1998). While some traits are reliably associated with specific work-related indicators (e.g., conscientiousness and job satisfaction; Salgado, 1997), they typically account for a relatively small amount of the total variance (Furnham & Miller, 1996; Furnham, Petrides, Jackson, & Cotter, 2002). In their search for individual difference variables with widespread implications and strong predictive power in the workplace, researchers and theorists recently turned their attention to the concept of emotional intelligence (EI; Abraham, 1999; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Fox & Spector, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Hartel, 2002; Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002).

Trait EI Versus Ability EI

The construct of EI posits that people differ in the extent to which they attend to, process, and utilize affect-laden information of an intrapersonal (e.g., managing one's own emotions) or interpersonal (e.g., managing others' emotions) nature. There are several different, but generally convergent, conceptualizations of EI in the literature (e.g., Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). There is, however, an important conceptual distinction concerning the method of measurement of the construct, namely, performance-based versus self-report (Petrides & Furnham, 2000a, 2000b). It has been noted that self-report measures of EI assess emotion-related *self-perceived* abilities and traits, rather than cognitive abilities per se (Austin, 2004; Austin, Saklofske, Huang, & McKenney, 2004; Petrides & Furnham, 2000a, 2001, 2003; Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003). There is, therefore, a distinction between *trait EI* (or "emotional self-efficacy"), which concerns emotion-related traits and self-perceived abilities measured via self-report questionnaires, and *ability EI* (or "cognitive-emotional ability"), which concerns actual emotion-related abilities measured via maximum-performance tests.

The distinction between trait EI and ability EI primarily concerns the method of measurement of the construct and not its theoretical domain. As such, it is unrelated to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso's (2000) distinction between "mixed" and "ability" models, which is at odds with psychometric theory and existing empirical findings (O'Connor & Little, 2003; Pérez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005). The assessment of the *same* sampling domain of EI through *different* methods (performance-based versus self-report) leads to the operationalization of *different* constructs (Petrides & Furnham, 2001, 2003). In contrast, the assessment of somewhat different sampling

domains of EI through the same measurement method is much more likely to produce convergent results.

The fact that ability EI and trait EI are two different constructs is also reflected in the questions asked about them. Ability EI questions mainly focus on the lack of objective criteria for determining what constitutes a truly correct response to the various items, the low internal consistencies and unclear factor structures of the tests, and the patchy validity evidence in support of the construct (e.g., Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). Trait EI questions mainly focus on the sampling domain of the construct, its temporal stability, and its relationship to the basic personality dimensions.

Critics of trait EI argue that the construct is strongly related to the basic personality dimensions and often fails to account for criterion variance over and above them (e.g., MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004). However, our conceptualization of trait EI as a lower order personality trait renders this criticism irrelevant. In hierarchical trait taxonomies, it is necessary, rather than problematic, that lower order traits be related to the higher order personality dimensions. As regards the issue of incremental predictive validity, it has been repeatedly demonstrated that trait EI can account for variance over and above the Giant Three or the Big Five (e.g., Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004; Saklofske et al., 2003; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004). Furthermore, we have discussed in detail why the narrow issue of incremental predictive validity is of little theoretical importance in the conceptualization of psychological constructs (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

Trait EI is a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions (e.g., emotion perception, emotion management, empathy, impulsivity) assessed through self-report questionnaires. As noted, the precise composition of these self-perceptions and dispositions tends to vary across different conceptualizations, some of which are broader than others. Petrides and Furnham (2001) content-analyzed the salient models in the EI literature and presented the first systematically derived sampling domain of trait EI.

The present study is based on Petrides and Furnham's (2001) integrative model and examines the relationships between trait EI and work-related constructs. We have adopted a gender-specific perspective in order to take into account existing gender differences in work-related variables as well as in perceptions of EI (Furnham, 1994; Petrides, Furnham, & Martin, 2004). Many empirical studies merge male and female data, even though there are reasons to believe that systematic differences in the ways in which the two genders experience the workplace and its demands exist (Roxburgh, 1996). For example, Mardsen, Kalleberg, and Cook (1993) argued that males display higher levels of OC than females because they are more likely to hold

jobs with commitment-enhancing features, such as higher salaries and greater autonomy. Males and females also show differences in their occupational interests, in the job aspects that they value, and in their reward preferences (Furnham, 1994). Based on an analysis of longitudinal data spanning two decades, Tolbert and Moen (1998) demonstrated that the gender gap in job-related preferences has been widening among younger employees. Nevertheless, it should be noted that gender differences in the workplace are continually subject to change as legislation, attitudes, and norms evolve over time.

In light of the foregoing, all analyses in this study were performed on gender-specific data. More specifically, a multigroup (males and females) structural model was set up with participant age as a distal variable, followed by trait EI, occupational achievement (a composite of salary and organizational position), perceived job control, stress, satisfaction, and, finally, organizational commitment (see Figure 1). Trait EI was expected to have a negative effect on stress and a positive effect on job control. In turn, job control was expected to have a negative effect on stress and a positive effect on satisfaction and organizational commitment (see Elovaino, Kivimaeki, Steen, & Kalliomaeki, 2000).

Age was modeled as a background factor affecting downstream variables in the model, including job control and occupational achievement. Its path into trait EI reflects a positive correlation between the two variables, which we have observed in many of our data sets. It is possible that emotional self-efficacy shows mean level increases over time. Indeed, there is evidence from longitudinal studies that as people get older, they tend to become less labile emotionally and better socialized (Robins, Fraley, Roberts, & Trzesniewski, 2001). The positive correlation between trait EI and age could be the consequence of such a developmental trend.

The association between job satisfaction and OC has received much attention in the literature (e.g., Currivan, 1999; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Very few studies, however, have examined it using structural equation modeling, and still fewer have modeled more than a single possible structural relationship. We set up two alternative models in addition to that depicted in Figure 1, wherein (a) commitment preceded satisfaction and (b) commitment and satisfaction were reciprocally linked, with each simultaneously influencing the other.

Method

Participants

The sample comprised 167 participants, of whom 87 were female. The mean age was 38.9 years ($SD = 9.95$ years). Education levels ranged from

high school diplomas to postgraduate qualifications (25.3% high school degrees, 30.9% bachelor's degrees, 43.8% postgraduate degrees).

Measures

Participants were invited to complete a questionnaire battery comprising measures of the variables in the study. These measures are described in detail below and summarized, along with gender-specific information, in Table 1.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short Form (TEIQue-SF; Petrides & Furnham, 2004). A lack of appropriate measures has meant that several studies have had to equate specific facets of trait EI (e.g., empathy) with the global construct itself (e.g., Wolff et al., 2002). The TEIQue has been constructed with the aim of providing comprehensive coverage of the trait EI domain. The 30-item short form was specifically designed as an efficient measure of global trait EI. Two items from each of the 15 subscales of the TEIQue were selected for inclusion, based primarily on their correlations with the corresponding total subscale scores. This procedure was followed in order to ensure adequate internal consistencies and broad coverage of the sampling domain of the construct. Items were responded to on a 7-point Likert scale. The internal consistencies were satisfactory for both males and females ($\alpha_{male} = .84$, $\alpha_{female} = .89$).

Job Control Questionnaire (JCQ). A 10-item measure of job control was created by adapting items from the autonomy scales of Beehr (1976) and Bacharach and Aiken (1976) as well as the job characteristics scale of Hackman and Oldham (1975). Items were responded to on a 5-point Likert scale.

Cooper's Job Stress Questionnaire (JSQ; Cooper, 1981). The JSQ assesses a wide range of organizational pressures, such as workload, amount of travel, and office politics. Items were responded to on a 5-point Likert scale.

Overall Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (OJSQ; Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979). The OJSQ is a 15-item measure of general job satisfaction, covering a range of specific facets, such as physical work conditions, relationship with boss, and chances of promotion. Items were responded to on a 7-point Likert scale.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OComQ; Cook & Wall, 1980). The OComQ is a nine-item questionnaire designed to assess three distinct dimensions of OC, namely, identification, involvement, and loyalty. Items were responded to on a 5-point Likert scale.

Table 1

Male and Female Means, Standard Deviations, and Internal Consistencies for the Scales in the Study

Measures	Brief descriptions of constructs	Characteristic items	Means and SDs		Cronbach's alpha	
			Males	Females	Males	Females
TEIQue-SF	*Trait EI* is a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions abilities and dispositions.	"Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me."	158.1 (17.5)	156.9 (19.8)	0.84	0.89
JCQ	*Perceived job control* concerns the extent to which people believe they have autonomy in their jobs.	"I have a lot of say over what happens on my job."	35.2 (7.6)	35.4 (7.7)	0.88	0.89
JSQ	*Job stress* concerns the extent to which people experience work-related psychological pressure.	"The clarity of my job is a source of stress for me at work."	51.1 (10.5)	55.6* (11.3)	0.80	0.83
OJSQ	*Job satisfaction* concerns the extent to which people are satisfied with their jobs.	"I am dissatisfied with my rate of pay." (R)	71.2 (14.3)	73.6 (12.5)	0.89	0.85
OComQ	*Organizational commitment* concerns the degree to which people feel psychologically attached to the organization in which they work.	"I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organization." (R)	46.3 (10.3)	46.1 (8.2)	0.82	0.76

*Significant gender difference at $p < .01$ (R) = reverse scored.

Occupational achievement. Participants were asked to indicate their salaries on a 6-point scale, ranging from *below £15,000* ($\approx$ \$22,000) to *over £55,000* ($\approx$ \$80,000). In addition, they were asked to indicate their level in the organizational hierarchy on a 5-point scale, ranging from *very low* to *very high*. As might be expected, these two questions correlated strongly ($r = 0.57$, $p < .01$). They were subsequently used as indicators of occupational achievement.

Procedure

Data were collected from employed adults in professional occupations over a period of about 6 months. Participants were drawn from professional seminars, workshops, and conventions on topics unrelated to the purposes of the study. Questionnaires were to be completed anonymously, except in those cases in which participants requested feedback. Participants who required feedback were mailed a detailed, three-page document explaining their scores and providing a brief description of the measures and the purpose of the study. The response rate was approximately 80%.

Results

The zero-order correlations between the variables in the model are presented in Table 2. Five *t*-tests compared the male and female mean scores on the five variables (see Table 1). The only significant difference concerned stress, on which females scored higher than males, $t(169) = 2.69$, $p < .01$; $M_{\text{males}} = 51.1$, $SD_{\text{males}} = 10.4$; $M_{\text{females}} = 55.6$, $SD_{\text{females}} = 11.2$. This difference was statistically significant even after a Bonferroni correction.

Subsequently, the data were analyzed through multigroup (males and females), maximum-likelihood structural equation modeling. One observed indicator was used per latent variable, and errors were fixed according to gender-specific internal consistencies. A priori hypothesized paths that did not reach significance levels (e.g., perceived job control $\rightarrow$ organizational commitment) were deleted from the model. The male and female models, along with the common metric standardized weights, are presented in Figure 1.

The overall model presented a good fit to the data, $\chi^2(25) = 36.83$, CFI = 0.96, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .07. The male model was somewhat less saturated than the female model, in the sense that it had fewer reliable paths (9 versus 12). Hence, in several cases, there were significant paths in the female, but not in the male, model. These gender differences came across most clearly in the effects of age. Older females had higher trait EI

Table 2

Male and Female Correlations for the Variables in the Study

	Age	T-EI	Ach	Con	Str	Sat	Com
Age	—	.389**	.440**	.195	.179	.082	.033
T-EI	.183	—	.334**	.401**	.167	.215*	.310**
Ach	.491**	.033	—	.552**	.202	.243*	.344**
Con	.281*	.254*	.530**	—	.281**	.539**	.439**
Str	.066	.475*	.034	.351**	—	.499**	.401**
Sat	.145	.385**	.205	.628**	.512**	—	.720**
Com	.235*	.112	.377**	.572**	.308**	.664**	—

Note. Correlations below the diagonal are for males ($n = 80$).Correlations above the diagonal are for females ($n = 87$). T - EI = trait emotional intelligence; Ach = occupational achievement; Con = control; Str = stress; Sat = satisfaction; Com = organizational commitment. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

($\beta = 0.45$), lower perceived job control ($\beta = -0.37$), and lower OC scores ($\beta = -0.39$) than their younger counterparts. None of these paths reached statistical significance in the male sample.

The strongest direct influence on OC, in both the male and female samples, was from job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.70$ and $\beta = 0.81$, respectively). However, in both samples, OC was also influenced directly and positively by occupational achievement ($\beta_{males} = 0.37$, $\beta_{females} = 0.57$). Trait EI had a significant positive effect on perceived job control, for males as well as for females ($\beta = 0.31$ and $\beta = 0.32$, respectively). In addition, it had a negative effect on stress in the male sample only ($\beta = -0.54$). The total effect (including direct and indirect paths) of trait EI on OC was stronger in the male than in the female sample (0.32 and 0.14, respectively). Other notable paths in the two samples included the positive effect of occupational achievement on perceived job control ($\beta_{male} = 0.61$, $\beta_{female} = 0.82$), the respectively positive and negative effects of perceived job control on job satisfaction ($\beta_{male} = 0.58$, $\beta_{female} = 0.42$) and stress ($\beta_{male} = 0.24$, $\beta_{female} = -0.34$), and the negative effect of stress on job satisfaction ($\beta_{male} = -0.44$, $\beta_{female} = -0.38$).

The percentages of explained variance were similar across gender, with the exception of those concerning job stress. The model successfully accounted for most of the nonattenuated variance in OC scores for both males (79%) and females (68%). The corresponding values for perceived job control were 48% (males) and 58% (females), whereas for job satisfaction

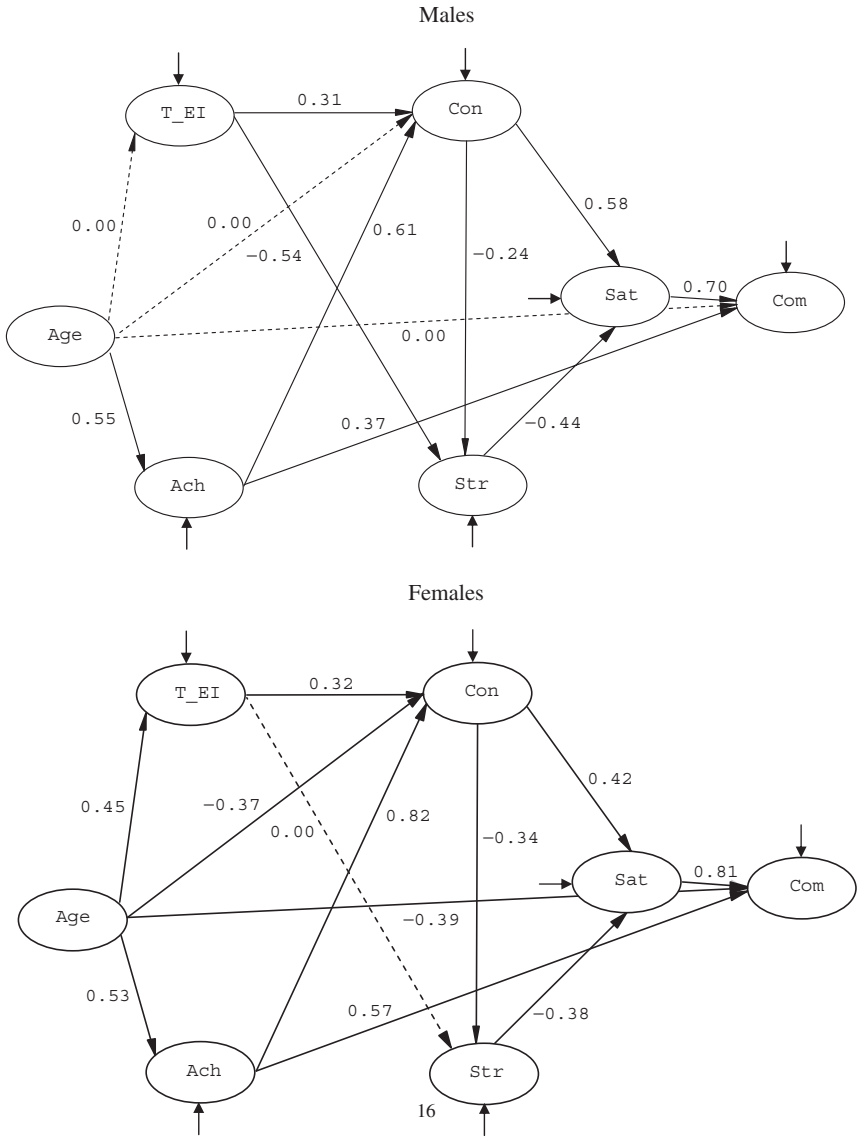

Figure 1. Male and female maximum-likelihood structural equation models with common metric standardized parameter estimates. T-EI = trait emotional intelligence; Ach = occupational achievement; Con = control; Str = stress; Sat = satisfaction; Com = organizational commitment. Broken lines indicate gender differences, that is, paths that were significant either only in the male sample or only in the female sample. All other paths were significant beyond the .05 level.

they were 60% (males) and 53% (females). As mentioned, there was a substantial discrepancy in the percentage of explained variance in job stress, with the male model accounting for 41% compared to 10% in the female model.

Two alternative models were set up in order to compare their fit to that of the model tested above. The first of these models involved a path from OC into job satisfaction (this was in the direction opposite to the path in Figure 1). Although this path was significant in both the male and female samples ($\beta = 0.82$ and $\beta = 0.76$, respectively), the overall model gave a very poor fit, $\chi^2(25) = 78.63$, CFI = 0.85, SRMR = .18, RMSEA = .16. The non-recursive model with a reciprocal link between OC and job satisfaction was tested last and provided a good fit to the data, $\chi^2(23) = 36.71$, CFI = 0.96, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .08. However, the return path from commitment to satisfaction was not significant either in the male or in the female data. Furthermore, the chi-square change statistic, which could be used in this case, since the first model is nested under the third model, was not significant, $\chi^2(2) = 0.12$, *ns*. Based on these results, the model in Figure 1 was accepted as the most parsimonious interpretation of the data.

Discussion

The variables in the model accounted for most of the variance in OC scores (79% for males and 68% for females). The two most consistent paths into OC were from occupational achievement and job satisfaction. As might be expected, tenured employees with high positions and good salaries are reluctant to leave their employment. This is explained by Becker's (1960) theory of side bets, which argues that tenured employees are more likely to be committed to their organizations because of the accretion of investments they have made in them over the years.

The path from job satisfaction into OC was very strong for both males and females, which is fully in line with previous findings (e.g., Gaertner, 1999). In accordance with the dominant view in the literature (see Iverson & Roy, 1994; Wallace, 1995), the data in this study supported a path from job satisfaction into OC. Reversing the direction of this path resulted in a much poorer model fit. Introducing a reciprocal link between the two variables was also unsatisfactory, as the return path from OC into job satisfaction was not significant in either the male or the female sample. As has been noted elsewhere (e.g., Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), job satisfaction is more sensitive than OC to variations in working conditions, although, in time, changes in satisfaction tend to be reflected in OC levels. For example, the arrival of a poor new boss may have a direct negative impact on an

employee's satisfaction with his or her job, but this will not be instantly reflected in perceptions of the organization as a whole.

As Karasek's (1979) "control-demand" theory would predict, perceived job control was negatively related to stress. In contrast, it was positively related to job satisfaction, which accords with previous findings, both at the level of individual employees and at the level of organizational units (Elovaino et al., 2000). A sense of control over one's job is beneficial because it provides a buffer against stressors and enough autonomy to fulfill job requirements in ways that enhance satisfaction. Despite the fact that job control did not influence OC directly, its indirect effect, mediated through stress and satisfaction, was strong (0.48 for males and 0.45 for females).

The study does not lend empirical support to claims that EI is crucially important in the workplace (e.g., Goleman, 1998). Nevertheless, high trait EI was related to lower levels of stress and higher levels of perceived control, satisfaction, and commitment. These results are in line with previous findings in the literature (e.g., Abraham, 1999; Wong & Law, 2002). The significant paths from trait EI into perceived job control and stress corroborate that high trait EI individuals see themselves as flexible and in control of their emotional reactions (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

The findings suggest that the relationship between trait EI and OC is not necessarily direct (Abraham, 1999), but mediated via intervening variables, such as perceived job control. The effects of trait EI on job control, reliable across gender, indicate that the self-perceived ability to control one's own and other people's emotions is positively related to a perceived sense of control in the workplace. It is worth exploring this link further, as it may be symptomatic of a more generalized sense of control permeating many different life contexts (interpersonal, occupational, etc.). The overall picture emerging from the data suggests that the effects of trait EI in occupational settings are of a similar magnitude to those of other personality traits. This means that the construct is likely to have predictive power and exploratory utility only in specific occupational contexts and with respect to specific work-related outcomes.

The multigroup analysis revealed gender differences with significant implications, especially for females. These differences mainly concerned age-related effects. With the exception of an anticipated positive path into occupational achievement ($\beta = 0.55$), age had no effects in the male model. In contrast, it had three significant effects in the female model (on trait EI, perceived job control, and OC), in addition to its effect on occupational achievement ($\beta = 0.53$). The paths into job control ($\beta = -0.37$) and OC ($\beta = -0.39$) indicate that older females felt they had less control in their jobs and were less committed to their organizations.

Many gender differences in the workplace stem from differences in the experiences, responsibilities, and types of stressors that pose differential challenges to the two genders. Females, more often than their male peers, are simultaneously exposed to family- and job-related stressors as a result of their dual roles as mothers and professionals (Roxburgh, 1996; Simon, 1995). They also tend to face gender-specific resistance in their efforts to reach the highest echelons in organizational hierarchies (''glass ceiling effect''; see Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001). What is particularly interesting to note is that family responsibilities and gender-specific resistance will not emerge in the beginning of one's career, but towards the middle. Consequently, middle-aged females are more likely than their younger counterparts to face such challenges, which negatively affect their perceived job control and their attitudes towards the organization as a whole.

Another gender difference in the model involved the path from trait EI into job stress. Individuals high on trait EI are confident that they can identify and regulate their own and other people's emotional reactions, which means they are better placed to deal with job stress. While this relationship was corroborated in the male sample, via the strong negative path from trait EI into stress ($\beta = -0.54$), it was conspicuously absent in the female sample. This led to the discrepancy in the percentage of nonattenuated job stress variance explained in the two samples.

A careful inspection of scatterplots and item intercorrelations revealed that items from virtually all of the facets that trait EI encompasses (emotion perception, emotion control, assertiveness, optimism, etc.) were negatively related to stress in the male sample. In contrast, in the female sample, the trait EI items that related to stress came from a few specific facets, especially emotional control. The fact that some variables can mitigate job stress in one gender but not the other supports the view that males and females are often exposed to qualitatively different stressors (Roxburgh, 1996). Given that high trait EI individuals, irrespective of gender, are expected to withstand stress, it is important to replicate the discrepancy found in this study. It is also important to establish whether trait EI has differential effects on different types of stress (work, interpersonal, health-related, etc.).

The present findings strongly suggest that it is unwise to assume that the interrelationships of workplace variables are gender-invariant. While some effects are consistent across gender (e.g., satisfaction → commitment, job control → satisfaction, stress → satisfaction), others are clearly not (e.g., the age effects discussed before). It will be interesting to examine in future research whether *gender roles* (e.g., masculinity versus femininity) can partly explain these differences as well as whether there are

circumstances in which they can account for incremental variance, over and above gender, in work-related criteria. This may be especially relevant in the case of EI, which is often perceived as a constellation of mainly "feminine" traits, even though the observed gender differences in global trait EI scores are negligible (Petrides et al., 2004). Specifically with respect to trait EI, its impact in the model was specific, rather than widespread, as might be expected of a personality variable. It is likely that some of the factors that limit the predictive utility of personality variables at work (see Furnham, 1997, pp. 190–192) also limit the utility of trait EI.

As noted in Petrides and Furnham (2001), exploratory investigations of the effects of a new construct should be conducted at the global level for reasons of generalizability, ease of interpretation, and parsimony. Only when it is clear that the global construct has effects worthy of further exploration is it beneficial to bring its constituent factors or subscales into the research design and statistical analysis. Furthermore, when one is interested in the structural interrelationships among many different constructs, one is necessarily restricted to working with global scores, not least because it is extremely difficult to set up accurate statistical models with a multitude of factors or subscales. For these reasons, the present exploratory study, which attempted to shed light on the possible role of trait EI in the workplace, focused exclusively on global scores.

In relation to the measurement of trait EI, there are many self-report questionnaires purporting to assess "emotional intelligence." As we discuss in Pérez et al. (2005), these questionnaires have a number of shortcomings, including incoherent conceptual foundations, poor psychometric properties (especially factor structures), and arbitrarily generated sampling domains. As an example, it is useful to mention three flaws in the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997). First, the EQ-i is based on an inconsistent conceptualization of EI that fails to observe the distinction between personality traits and cognitive abilities and claims to operationalize the construct as some kind of ability or competence that is somehow measurable via self-report. Second, it rests on an idiosyncratic sampling domain that excludes many facets that are central to the construct ("emotion perception," "emotion expression," "emotion regulation," etc.) but includes many others that are prima facie irrelevant ("reality testing," "self-actualization," "problem solving," etc.). Third, the psychometric properties of the EQ-i have repeatedly been shown to be poor, with many independent studies failing to even approximate the a priori factor structure of the questionnaire (e.g., Palmer, Manocha, Gignac, & Stough, 2003; Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004). The TEIQue instruments, which are underpinned by the trait EI research program, have been specifically

developed to remedy these shortcomings and are the most appropriate instruments for assessing emotional self-efficacy.

There are at least two interesting ways in which the model tested in this study can be extended. First, a time element can be incorporated in order to look at dynamic links and longitudinal effects. Second, the model can be expanded from either side by incorporating additional explanatory (e.g., cognitive ability) or outcome (e.g., turnover) variables. Such comprehensive models can provide a basis for the development of intervention programs to improve overall productivity and well-being at work.

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