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Furnham, A., & Treglown, L. (2021). Trait emotional intelligence and job performance evaluations: evidence from self, manager, team and peer ratings. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*. Online First 12 July 2021

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**Trait Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance Evaluations: Evidence from Self,
Manager, Team, and Peer Ratings.**

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Keywords: Trait Emotional Intelligence, Job Performance, Other-Rated.

Data Set: This data set has never been used before in any publication

Ethical Approval was received (CEHP 514/2017)

Abstract

This study looked at the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and performance appraisals, as evaluated by the person themselves, their peers, manager and team. Trait emotional intelligence (TEIQue) facets of 903 employees were compared to evaluated performance appraisals of the different groups four months later. Implications are discussed on the role of social factors in explaining non-performance related information can impact employee performance appraisals. Limitations and implications of these findings are discussed.

Key Words: Emotional Intelligence; Performance Appraisal; Affective Primacy Theory, 360 evaluations

Introduction

Work usually takes place in a highly interpersonal and social environment (Grant & Parker, 2009), where employees are required to collaborate effectively to complete tasks (Bedwell et al., 2012). Many workers define their roles within organisations as a function of their relationships with others (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Additionally, organisations are reliant on evaluation from others that they interact with (e.g. peer or supervisor) as means of appraisal and developing performance (Erez et al., 2015). As a result, the people we interact with at work can have meaningful and significant impacts on our career development and trajectory (Cerne et al., 2013; Feinberg, et al., 2012).

In this paper we explore the idea that emotionally intelligent people are more rewarding to work with and are hence better liked and better rated by all those who work with them (Hogan & Bickle, 2018). This theme has been developed by Boyatzis (2018). Hence, we expect positive correlations between an individual's EQ score and *all* those they work with, including their manager and peers. Of course, it is also possible that emotional intelligence is actually related to better job performance in certain jobs, particularly those that require emotional labour (Joseph & Newman, 2010). To a large extent this is a pilot study exploring the emotional and social trait factors that are associated with appraisal of performance related competencies and attempting to clarifying differences in rater perceptions of observed behavior on the job.

Performance ratings

Performance appraisals are a formalised but infrequent (usually occurring annually) process that occur in most organisations, where an individual employee's performance is evaluated against a set of organisation-defined criteria or competencies from a range of sources (e.g. manager, team, and non-team colleagues) (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2008). Since then, research on performance appraisals have examined the impact of scale format, criteria for

evaluating performance ratings themselves (e.g. rater error), the purpose of performance ratings, and training research (see Denisi & Murphy, 2017 for review). Of interest to this study is the body of research around the non-performance factors that influence or bias evaluator ratings as well as cognitive processes of the rater in the evaluation process.

Researchers dating back to Thorndike (1920) have criticised the accuracy of performance ratings due to cognitive biases, like the halo and horn effect. (Javidmehr & Ebrahimpour, 2015). However, whilst models of the performance appraisal process often start with an evaluation of ratee's job-relevant behaviour (DeNisi, Cafferty, & Meglino, 1984), often there is a lack of appreciation or understanding of what influences the occurrences of these biases. For instance, Bernardin et al. (2016) found that the personality of a rater (particularly agreeableness and assertiveness) influences the average performance rating they give to across a range of situations as a function of how they process behavioural cues. Moreover, Erez et al. (2015) reinforced the importance of the influence of interpersonal information in performance appraisals, finding that rater-ratee homophily in personality (i.e. similarity on levels of extraversion) had a significant impact on performance evaluation.

One way to reduce bias in performance ratings has been to use multiple ratings or what is known as 360 degree feedback (Furnham, 2019). There is a vast and long-standing literature on the usefulness of this approach, particularly the reasons for congruency between different raters of the same person (Furnham & Stringfield, 1994; 1998). However, there is currently a dearth of literature examining how the personality of the rated-employee contributes to bias. Few studies have looked at the role of person's emotional intelligence on the ratings by others which is the focus of this study. Affective Primacy Theory provides a potential mechanism through which to better understand why an individual's emotional intelligence would influence the rating of their performance by others that they work with.

Affective Primacy Theory

Affective Primacy Theory (APT; Cascairo & Lobo, 2014) suggests that employees are influenced by non-performance related, affective information (e.g. positive or negative impression of the employee as a person) when evaluating how effective another colleague is at their job. Evidence from social network analysis studies have demonstrated the implication of these processes, finding that colleagues prioritise affective information (i.e. ‘likability’) over performance or competency when evaluating who they choose to communicate and cooperate with (Cascairo & Lobo, 2008). Recent studies have extended Cascairo and Lobo’s work, using affective primacy to explain the relationships between employee homophily and individual performance (Ertug, Gargiulo, Galuinic, & Zou, 2018), as well as the role of cognitive intelligence and emotional intelligence homophily in task-dependent collaboration and advice-sharing in the workplace (Treglown & Furnham, 2020). Importantly, Antonioni and Park (2001) found that affective relationship of the rater (e.g. reporting how much they liked the rated employee) was significantly predictive of more lenient, and therefore more favourable, ratings of their managers and peers.

However, what is missing from this research is an understanding of how aspects of the rated employee (e.g. personality) potentially influence rated performance as a function of affective primacy. That is, do employees that exhibit certain personality characteristics elicit better (or worse) performance appraisals because these traits impact the primacy of affect between the rater and ratee. The link between personality and performance ratings is important for researchers interested in both the process of appraisal but also in how it is potentially confounded by non-performance information. Of interest to this study is the role of emotional intelligence in affecting performance evaluations. If employees use affective information to inform perceived utility and performance (Cascairo & Lobo, 2014), it is likely that the rated-

employee's awareness and management of one's own and other's emotions (i.e. their emotional intelligence) will affect how the rater evaluates their performance.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence was theorised to provide differentiation from cognitive intelligence, with seminal academics such as Thorndike (1920) and Gardner (1993) introducing concepts of social and interpersonal intelligence (i.e. understanding and managing the emotions of others). However, the utility and contributions of emotional intelligence have been greatly debated in recent decades (e.g. Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009). Currently two theoretical conceptualisations encompass the majority of research and thinking around emotional intelligence. The first, ability-based emotional intelligence, has been defined as “the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought” (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008, p. 511), which emphasizes EI as an actual ability, or facet of intelligence (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; MacCann, Joseph, Newman, & Roberts, 2014). The second conceptualisation of emotional intelligence, trait-based emotional intelligence represents a constellation of emotional perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007; Petrides & Furnham, 2000), Trait emotional intelligence is an umbrella term that encompasses a constellation of personality traits, affect, and self-perceived abilities, rather than actual aptitude (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Petrides & Furnham, 2001), Researchers have criticised the perceived unique contributions that trait emotional intelligence can bring, especially after controlling for cognitive ability and other trait personality measures (Antonakis et al., 2009; Antonakis, 2003, 2004).

There have been a number of attempts to integrate these and other approaches to EI (Hughes & Evans, 2018) which have many implications for measurement. In this study we

measure trait emotional intelligence for two key reasons. Firstly, the use of ability EI has been criticised as problematic due to methodological issues, as scores rely on ‘consensus’, ‘expert’ and ‘target’ scoring systems, meaning that individual levels cannot be easily or consistently interpreted (e.g. Brody, 2004; Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2007; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). Secondly, ability EI has been shown to predict the selection of emotion used, whilst trait EI has been shown to predict how effective that individual is at portraying the emotion (Davis & Humphrey, 2012). Table 1 outlines the trait emotional intelligence taxonomy. Other researchers have provided evidence for its utility, defining it as a specific taxonomy of socioemotional traits located within (and therefore related to) the broader general factor of personality (e.g. van der Linden et al., 2018; Petrides, 2017)¹. Andrei et al. (2016) furthered this by demonstrating meta-analytic evidence for the incremental validity of trait emotional intelligence beyond higher-order personality variables (e.g. ‘Big Five’ models) and other emotion-related variables (e.g. positive and negative affect),

Following from work by Bernardin et al. (2016) and Erez et al. (2015), APT is expected to be impacted most by socioemotional personality variables and individual difference characteristics rather than emotional performance or ability. This study will therefore focus on the role of trait emotional intelligence.

Insert Table 1 here

It is expected that the facets of emotional intelligence will have a significant impact on the process of performance evaluation as a function of APT, in particular those traits that are more affiliated with interpersonal acts and will alter the rater’s impression of the employee.

¹ Additionally, if trait emotional intelligence is defined as a form of socioemotional personality, it is not unsurprising that statistical analyses find it difficult to differentiate its unique contribution after controlling for other taxonomies of personality (e.g. Big Five Models). If both are located within broader personality hierarchies and are both related to a general factor of personality, a large degree of covariance is expected between the two and therefore it would be expected that hierarchical regressions would not be able to attribute significant additional predictive validity after a large proportion of the variance has been attributed to Big Five characteristics.

For instance, traits related to the sociability of the employee (e.g. *Emotion Management* and *Social Awareness*) are likely to influence consequential performance ratings as these employees will be perceived to be friendly, charming, and positive to interact with. Additionally, emotionality related traits (e.g. *Empathy* and *Relationships*) are expected to influence the APT process as these employees will be interpersonally warmer to, and have a greater desire to build meaningful relationships with, their colleagues.

However, it is possible that specific traits of emotional intelligence will influence performance ratings, not as a function of affect primacy, but because they alter how the rater perceives the employee's approach to work. For instance, traits related to self-control (e.g. *Stress Management*) could impact performance ratings as these employees may seem calmer under pressure, and therefore to be performing at a higher level.

Building on this, little research has also differentiated between the *sources of other-rated* performance, with research primarily focusing on manager ratings of performance. Borman (1974) initially found that different sources of appraisal are a key advantage of multisource procedures, as the differences in ratings of a general factor of performance (e.g. Viswesvaran et al., 2005) provide insight into how raters have appraised an individual based on interactions. Overall, this study hypothesises that an individual's emotional intelligence will positively influence their other-rated performance via affective primacy theory, as the higher emotional intelligence will be more positively evaluated. It is expected that the correlations between performance ratings and a participants, EQ will be positive, more so for self- than other- ratings.

Method

Participants

Data for 903 employees (673 of which were male) was used for this sample, with employees from 38 different organisations, working primarily in the UK (45.8%), South Africa (9.6%), and Peru (8%), Participants had taken all taken English versions of the assessments. Due to data protection regulations, no additional demographic information was available to gather on individual participants other than their TEIQue and 360 performance reviews.

Materials

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue): The TEIQue evaluates one's perceptions of one's own emotional traits (i.e., effectiveness at identifying, understanding, and managing one's and others' emotions), (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Petrides, 2009), The TEIQue is a 153-item self-report questionnaire, designed to measure 15 individual facets. The theoretical model of TEIQue has been confirmed through CFAs across multiple languages and contexts (e.g., Andrei et al., 2016; Petrides, 2009), The last two facets, Adaptability and Self-Motivation, do not belong to a specific factor, but are still included in the TEIQue's overall score. Research demonstrates reliability ranging between .69 and .89 for the 15 facets and between .73 and .84 for the four factors, using Cronbach's alpha (Petrides, 2009), Its Self-Other correlation ratings also range from .29 (Self-Motivation) to .52 (Well-Being and Impulse Control; Petrides, 2009), Meta-analytic evidence has demonstrated the incremental predictive validity of the TEIQue in predicting a range of affect (e.g. depression), health (e.g. somatic complaints), biological (e.g. physiological response to stress) outcomes (Andrei et al., 2016),

360 Performance Appraisals: The 360-feedback survey aimed to identify the competencies and behaviours of an individual in comparison to a standard overview of an individual's basic job requirements. Participants self-rated themselves and were rated by their manager, team, and peers on a series of job- and organisation-specific competencies. Scores reflected the extent to which the test participant (either self or manager) agreed (on a 7-point

Likert scale; 1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) that the employee demonstrates effective performance on that specific competency. Ratings were delivered on the following competencies: *Delivering Results*, *Focus on Service*, *Inspirational Leadership*, *Management*, *Self-Management*, and *Working with Others*. Employees were rated on 7 competencies in total. Scores for performance ratings were calculated by the average rating across the 7 questions. Cronbach's alphas for the different sources of rating were high, indicating that the different sources were highly consistent in the way they rated employees on competencies (Self: $\alpha = .98$; Manager: $\alpha = .98$; Peer: $\alpha = .92$; Team: $\alpha = .96$). The high internal reliabilities give some evidence to the notion of a general factor of job performance (Viswesvaran et al., 2005) that transcends specific competencies. However, research has also argued that differing sources of rating are important for understanding how conclusions about performance are reached (e.g. Jackson et al., 2019). Whilst the measure was not based on academic theory, the 360-questionnaire reflected job and organisation specific competencies, rather than universal competencies applied to any role, allowing for a more nuanced interpretation of individual performance.

Procedure

Participant data was collected as a part of recruitment and development consultancy through a British-based, internationally operating psychometric test publisher. 360 performance data was collected both as a part of business-as-usual annual performance appraisals as well as to assess the causal impact of emotional intelligence on a range of performance ratings (on an average of 144 days after completion of TEIQue assessment). Participants nominated non-team peers to provide feedback on their performance (on average nominating 3.22 peer raters), as well as having their managers (average is 1.15 manager raters) and all team members (on average 3.41 team members) to provide feedback on competencies related to their performance. Raters were invited to participate in the 360 process via email that

linked to the performance appraisal questionnaire. All participants received feedback on their TEIQue and 360 assessments from trained practitioners in their organisation.

Analysis

The dataset was organised and cleaned using SPSS 24.0. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was conducted in the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012; version 0.5-20) of R (version 3.3.0). Based upon Kline's (2005) recommendations, the following fit indices were applied: the χ^2/df ratio, RMSEA, Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR), and the Comparative fit index (CFI). An excellent fit is indicated when $\chi^2/df < 3.00$ (van Dam, 2015), $RMSEA < 0.05$ (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996), $SRMR > 0.08$ (Hu & Bentler, 1998), and $CFI > 0.95$ (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008).

Results

Correlations

Table 1 shows the correlations between the 15 TEIQue facets and the four performance ratings. Interestingly, whilst all significant, the inter-rating correlations ranged in magnitude from small (*Self* and *Peer*), medium (*Self* and *Manager*), and large (*Manager* and *Peer*). The results show that self-rated performance significantly positively correlated with all 15 TEIQue factors, ranging from $r = .20$ (*Assertiveness*) to $r = .45$ (*Social Awareness*). Eleven of the TEIQue traits were significantly positively correlated with manager-rated performance, ranging from $r = .07$ (*Assertiveness*) to $r = .13$ (*Happiness*). Six of the TEIQue traits significantly positively correlated with peer-rated performance, ranging from $r = .08$ (*Stress Management*) to $r = .11$ (*Empathy* and *Emotion Management*). Only four of the 15 TEIQue

traits significantly positively correlated with team-rated performance, ranging from $r = .07$ (*Happiness* and *Empathy*) to $r = .09$ (*Relationships* and *Emotion Management*),

Insert Table 2 Here

Structural Equation Model

The authors use SEM to explore the relationships between TEIQue and Performance Ratings by utilising multivariate regressions. Due to the non-availability of item level data, the TEIQue traits were entered as observed variables. The authors entered four sources of performance (*Self-Rated*, *Manager-Rated*, *Peer-Rated*, and *Team-Rated*) as observed variables. Non-significant regressions were removed in a backwards elimination style until only significant terms remained. Whilst forms of stepwise procedures in psychological analysis has been criticised for increasing the chance of Type I error (e.g. Henderson and Denison, 1989), researchers have argued that analyses have a lower chance of inflating Type I error when studies have: (a) near zero sum of squares explained across steps, (b) small number of predictor variables, and/or (c) large sample size (Thompson, 1995). Additionally, the use of stepwise procedures has been argued to be beneficial in exploratory, predictive research (Menard, 1995) as well as have the implication of suppressing the overall explanatory power of outcome variables due to the exclusion of suppressor variables. Due to this study having a large sample size, it was concluded that the use of stepwise procedures would not inflate Type I error to the point of the model producing results based on capitalizing chance.

The results of the SEM can be seen in Figure 1. The chi-squared statistic was not significant ($\chi^2(26) = 17.7, p = .991$). Other fit statistics indicated that the model was an excellent fit of the data: CFI = 1.00; $\chi/df = 0.68$; RMSEA = .000 [upper 95% CI = .013; lower CI = .000]; SRMR = .010.

The results indicated that employees with higher levels of *Social Awareness*, *Emotion Expression*, *Self Esteem*, *Self-Motivation*, *Impulse Control*, *Stress Management*, and *Empathy*, but lower levels of *Adaptability* and *Relationships* self-rated their performance as significantly higher.

Individual employee performance was rated higher by their team when they had higher levels of *Emotion Management*, *Stress Management*, and *Relationships*, but lower levels of *Impulse Control* and *Adaptability*. Additionally, employee performance was rated higher by their peers when they had higher levels of *Stress Management*, *Empathy*, and *Relationships*, but lower levels of *Impulse Control*, *Adaptability*, and *Emotion Perception*.

Finally, employees had a higher manager-rated performance only when they had higher levels of *Happiness* and *Emotion Management*.

Insert Figure 1 Here

Discussion

This study examined the role of emotional intelligence in predicting the self-, manager-, and non-manager-rated performance of employees. Results indicated that employees who are self-confident in their abilities (*Self-Esteem*), reflective and less likely to give in to urges (*Impulse Control*), are not overwhelmed by pressure (*Stress Management*), can take others' perspectives (*Empathy*), can communicate their feelings and emotions (*Emotion Expression*), have strong social skills and enjoy networking (*Social Awareness*), are intrinsically motivated (*Self-Motivation*), but prefer routine and the 'tried and tested' method (lower *Adaptability*) rate their own performance as higher. In contrast, only two traits were related to higher manager-rated performance: being cheerful (higher trait *Happiness*) and better at influencing others' emotions (*Emotion Management*),

In contrast, employee's team members and non-team peers rated their performance higher when they were quicker to be distracted (lower *Impulse Control*), better able to deal with pressure and stress (higher *Stress Management*), more systematic and procedural in their approach (lower *Adaptability*), and capable of building new interpersonal relationships quickly (higher *Relationships*). Additionally, employee team-rated performance was higher if they were capable of influencing others' emotions (*Emotion Management*), whereas peer-rated performance was higher when employees were more empathetic (higher *Empathy*) but less observant in changes to their own and others' emotions (lower *Emotion Perception*),

Interestingly, there were some contrasts the traits that influenced self-rated performance versus peer- and team-rated performance. For instance, *Impulse Control* had the opposite effect for self- versus other-rated performance. Employees that felt they were controlled and restrained rated their performance as better, whereas peers and team-members responded rated their colleagues with higher performance when they had lower levels of *Impulse Control*. Additionally, employees that took a pragmatic approach to interpersonal relationships (low *Relationships*) rated their performance higher, whereas peers and team-members rated their colleague's performance higher when they were proactive in building new interpersonal relationships (high *Relationships*). These results indicate the role of APT in other-rated performance compared to self-evaluations. For instance, being proactive in building interpersonal relationships (high *Relationships*) and being more likely to take on additional tasks when asked (a potential consequence of low *Impulse Control*) could impact the affective evaluation of that employee. As a result, others rate the performance of that employee more favourably as a function of traits that influence interpersonal interactions as opposed to objective task-contingent data. However, employees rate their performance as lower when they express these traits because they may perceive traits that manifest more interpersonal

interaction as detracting from their tasks. This disparity indicates that APT as a theory is strictly related to interpersonal rather than intrapersonal evaluations.

This study demonstrates a clear difference in how employee EI influences performance ratings for different types of colleague. For instance, Cascairo and Lobo (2014) proposed the APT, stating that individuals use the affective value of a relationship (i.e. whether the employee experiences positive emotions from interacting with another member of their network) to determine the instrumental value of the relationship tie (i.e. subjectively evaluating whether that relationship will meaningfully contribute to completing a task). Studies have shown that positive and negative emotionality impact sociability, with negative emotions putting others off interacting with that individual (Furr & Funder, 1998). This study provides evidence that theories such as the affective primacy theory offer meaningful insight to how employees evaluate the performance their colleagues.

Whilst the correlations between other-rated performances can be regarded as strong (ranging from .31 to .39; Gignac, & Szodorai, 2016), the correlation is still lower than what has previously been reported in meta-analyses (e.g. Harris & Schaubroeck, 1998) indicating that self and others are rating performance on differing characteristics. This may be expected as different people: the boss, peers and subordinates have different expectations and experiences of individuals. For some therefore it may be that technical competence may be much more important the EI, whereas for others the opposite is the case.

The main findings suggesting that performance was rated higher by non-manager colleagues when employees exhibited traits associated with positive interpersonal interactions (i.e. Emotional Intelligence) tends to support research suggesting direct reports, and to a lesser extent, peers emphasize social factors/agreeableness in their performance ratings.

Like all others, this study is not without its limitations. Firstly, due to constraints in how the data was collected, limited demographic information beyond gender was known about the participants. Studies commonly look to control for factors, such as age or education, as a part of the analysis. However, a recent paper by Bernerth and Aguinis (2016) argued that unless there are clear theoretical rationales for including control variables, studies should not include them for the sake of it. Whilst it would have been beneficial to have further detail on the demographic composition of the sample, there is no theoretical reason the authors can think of as to why the analysis should have controlled for age or education.

Secondly, the consistent significant relationship between the TEIQue and self-rated performance could be due to statistical artefacts (e.g. common method variance) rather than genuine relationships between the two variables. The authors assessed common method variance by running a confirmatory factor analysis with all variables loading onto one factor. The model was a poor fit of the data (CFI = .404; $\chi^2/df = 90.7$; RMSEA = .257 [upper 95% CI = .253; lower CI = .261]; SRMR = .097), providing some indication that common method variance is not enough to explain the results.

Finally, the industry-spanning nature of the sample also meant that the analysis was not able to control for the potential moderating impact of the emotional labour associated with the role. There is evidence to suggest that this would have an impact on the association between emotional intelligence and performance ratings (e.g. Joseph et al., 2015). To verify the generalisability of these results, further research is needed to examine how contextual factors (such as emotional labour of the role) would impact the influence of emotional intelligence.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine whether APT offers a novel insight into how emotional intelligence can influence an employee's performance evaluation, where the socio-

emotional traits of an individual elicit more positive performance evaluations as a function of being ‘liked’ more by the rater rather than as a function of objective performance. The results supported this hypothesis, showing that an individual’s emotional intelligence has differing, often contradictory, impacts on the different sources of performance evaluation. This study provides evidence that performance evaluations are impacted significantly by APT and the emotional intelligence of the rated-employee, with self-rated (e.g. high *Self-Esteem* and *Impulse Control*), peer and team rated (e.g. low *Impulse Control*, high *Emotion Management*), and manager-rated (e.g. high *Emotion Management* and *Happiness*) performance being influenced by often opposing traits.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests: The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding: The author(s) declared no funding with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

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Table 1. *Descriptions of Trait Emotional Intelligence Facets and Factors (Adapted from Petrides, 2007),*

Factors/Facets	Description
Well-being	<i>Overall well-being</i>
Happiness	Satisfaction and contentment with the present (i.e., one's current life)
Optimism	Confidence and positive outlook towards the future
Self-esteem	Self-confidence, self-respect, and perception of personal success
Self-control	<i>Ability to regulate external pressure, stress, and own impulses</i>
Emotion regulation	Ability to control own emotions and stay focused and calm
Impulse control	Reflectiveness and ability to resist own urges
Stress management	Capacity to withstand pressure and regulate stress
Emotionality	<i>Capacity to perceive and express emotions, and use them with others</i>
Empathy	Ability to take others' perspectives and understand others' viewpoints
Emotion perception	Clear understanding of own and others' feelings
Emotion expression	Ability to communicate own feelings to others
Relationships	Capacity to develop and maintain meaningful personal bonds
Sociability	<i>Capacity to socialise, manage, and communicate with others</i>
Emotion management	Ability to influence and manage others' feelings
Assertiveness	Frankness and willingness to stand up for own rights
Social awareness	Networking and social skills
Independent facets	
Adaptability	Flexibility and willingness to adapt to new environments/conditions
Self-motivation	Drive for productivity and resilience to adversity

Table 2. Correlations between TEIQue and Performance Rating.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Happiness																			
2. Optimism	0.66***																		
3. Self esteem	0.61***	0.53***																	
4. Emotion regulation	0.39***	0.4***	0.40***																
5. Impulse control	0.36***	0.34***	0.38***	0.52***															
6. Stress management	0.48***	0.47***	0.47***	0.64***	0.51***														
7. Empathy	0.40***	0.38***	0.34***	0.35***	0.36***	0.41***													
8. Emotion perception	0.47***	0.44***	0.44***	0.40***	0.38***	0.43***	0.62***												
9. Emotion expression	0.47***	0.37***	0.4***	0.30***	0.30***	0.27***	0.43***	0.59***											
10. Relationships	0.05***	0.39***	0.34***	0.35***	0.39***	0.39***	0.47***	0.52***	0.46***										
11. Emotion management	0.25***	0.24***	0.31***	0.19***	0.08*	0.26***	0.34***	0.47***	0.31***	0.24***									
12. Assertiveness	0.38***	0.35***	0.44***	0.32***	0.30***	0.34***	0.22***	0.36***	0.36***	0.22***	0.41***								
13. Social awareness	0.51***	0.47***	0.57***	0.42***	0.37***	0.49***	0.46***	0.54***	0.55***	0.43***	0.50***	0.55***							
14. Adaptability	0.44***	0.47***	0.46***	0.55***	0.43***	0.54***	0.43***	0.42***	0.40***	0.39***	0.25***	0.39***	0.51***						
15. Self-motivation	0.51***	0.47***	0.46***	0.42***	0.45***	0.4***	0.32***	0.38***	0.33***	0.40***	0.21***	0.43***	0.42***	0.45***					
16. Self	0.36***	0.33***	0.43***	0.31***	0.34***	0.36***	0.32***	0.36***	0.33***	0.25***	0.20***	0.33***	0.45***	0.34***	0.35***				
17. Manager	0.13***	0.11***	0.08*	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.12***	0.12***	0.08*	0.06	0.10**	0.07*	0.09**	0.08*	0.05	0.21***			
18. Peer	0.09*	0.06	0.05	0.03	-0.05	0.08*	0.11***	0.05	0.03	0.09**	0.11**	0.01	0.10**	0.01	0.00	0.13***	0.39***		
19. Team	0.07*	0.02	0.02	0.02	-0.05	0.06	0.07*	0.06	0.03	0.09**	0.09**	0.02	0.05	-0.01	0.03	0.15***	0.31***	0.38***	1

Note: *** = $p < .001$; * = $p < .01$; * = $p < .05$.

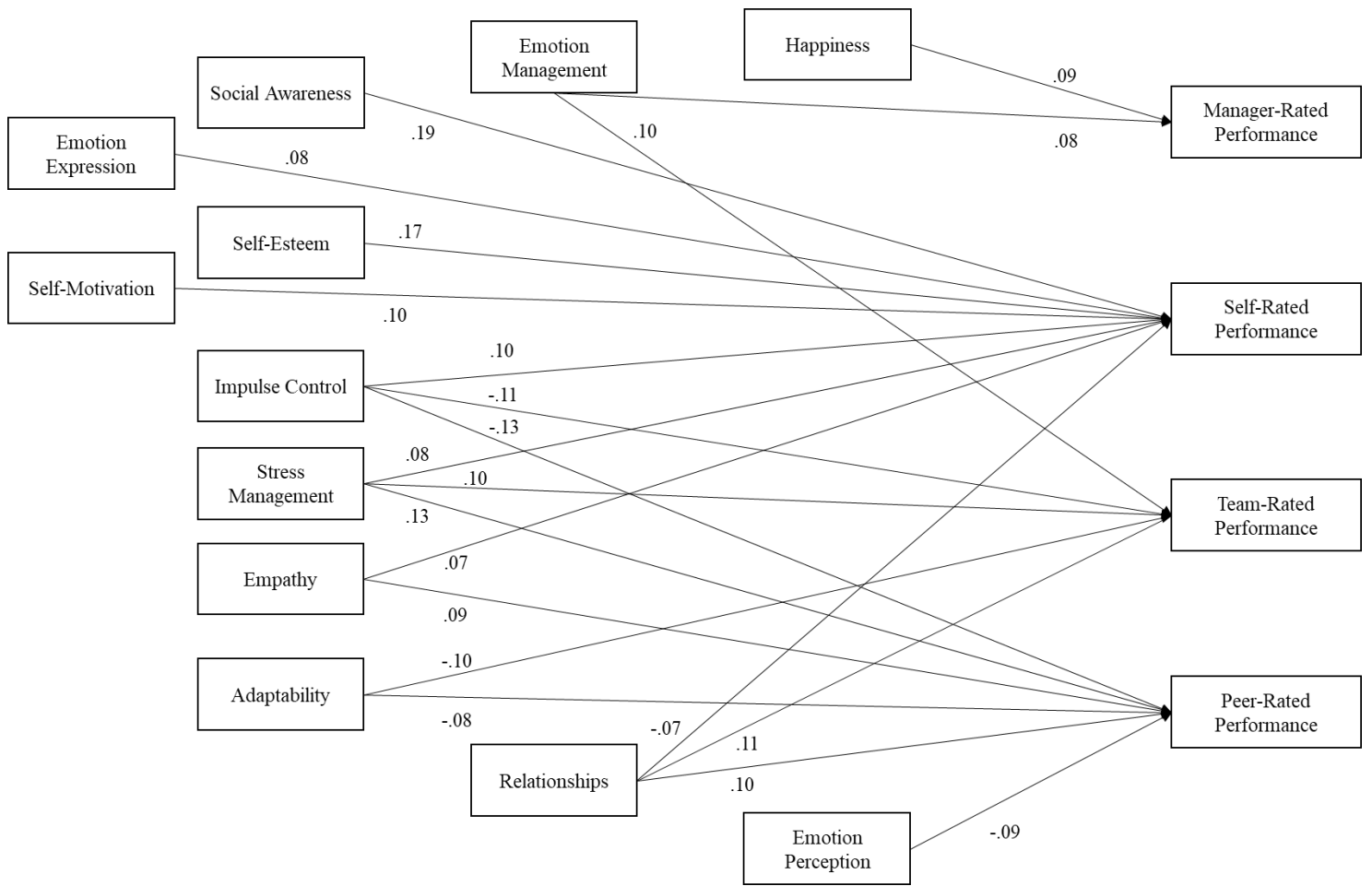


Figure 1. SEM of TEIQue traits and Employee Performance Ratings (Standardized Betas Used),