The Long-term Impact of Displayed Self-monitoring and Emotional Intelligence on Perceptions of Trustworthiness

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Abstract

This paper investigates the impact of an individual's displayed emotional intelligence and self-monitoring attributes on others' perception of trustworthiness. We hypothesize that in the long-run highly emotionally intelligent individuals are likely to be perceived as trustworthy because of their demonstrated consistency in interactions. We also hypothesize that high self-monitors are likely to be perceived as untrustworthy due to their inconsistency and lack of commitments. Participants were asked to nominate a deeply known target person and to evaluate the latter in terms of trustworthiness, emotional intelligence and self-monitoring. Our results confirm our predictions. Moreover, the results also reveal that the feeling of liking mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and trustworthiness. Nonetheless, it does not mediate the relationship between self-monitoring and trustworthiness. Implications of the results are discussed.

Keywords: Self-Monitoring, Emotional Intelligence, Trust

In the absence of sufficient information concerning a target person's trustworthiness, individuals may initially decide whether to trust that target person simply by examining the feelings they have toward that person (Jones & George, 1998). This implies that those who are good at dealing with others' feelings may have an advantage in projecting an initial perception of trustworthiness on others. Among these people, highly emotionally intelligent (high-EI) people and high self-monitors are regarded as likely candidates because of several reasons. First, both of them are well aware of others' feelings (Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, & Ames, 2006; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008). Second, both are skillful at accurately communicating one's emotional state (Snyder, 1974; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Third, they are both pro-social and interpersonally sensitive (Parks & Mount, 2005; Lopes, Salovey, Cote, & Beers, 2005). It is therefore not surprising that previous studies have reported that EI and self-monitoring are positively correlated to some extent (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Hooper, 2002).

Despite of the stated similarities between EI and self-monitoring, there should be a distinguishable difference between the two. Nonetheless, some have claimed that there are few empirical studies that differentiate EI from self-monitoring (Mehra & Schenkel, 2008). This paper therefore attempts to distinguish high EI individuals from high self-monitors by looking at others' perceptions of their respective trustworthiness over time. Here, trustworthiness describes the qualities that enable a person to be regarded as worthy of trust or confidence (Oxford English Dictionary, 1989). First, we depict how others' perceptions of high EI individuals' trustworthiness will develop over time. Second, we propose that others' perceptions of high self-monitors' trustworthiness will exhibit a different tendency. Third, based on the assumptions we will form our hypotheses.

Emotional Intelligence and Trustworthiness

As defined by Mayer & Salovey (1997), EI involves four abilities: (1) the ability to accurately perceive and express emotions of self and others; (2) the ability to generate feelings to assist thinking; (3) the ability to understand emotions and their progression; and (4) the ability to regulate and manage emotions. Many regard the abilities to perceive and understand others' emotions as an advantage of high-EI individuals in their bestowing of an image of trustworthiness. Generally, they are likely to take others' feelings into account during personal interactions (Druskat & Wolff, 2001, Perry & Ball, 2005). On the other hand, those who are less emotionally intelligent may tend to render inept criticism to others (Goleman, 1995).

A previous study has shown that trust among group members is highly associated with leaders' emotionally competent behavior such as interpersonal understanding (Druskat & Pescosolido, 2006).

It can be argued that high self-monitors also are good at taking others' feelings into account when interacting with other people. This is likely because high self-monitors are well aware of others' feelings (Flynn et al., 2006) and have good interpersonal skills (Parks & Mount, 2005). However, there is a unique feature that may differentiate high-EI individuals from high self-monitors in the long-term development of other's perception of their trustworthiness: High-EI individuals are more likely to demonstrate consistency. An individual's EI is sometimes linked to others' perception of one's trustworthiness because a high-EI individual is less affected by undesired emotions (Law, Wong, Huang, & Li, 2008). High-EI individuals are also able to detach themselves from emotionally charged thoughts (Ciarrochi & Blackledge, 2006). This is because the abilities to use, understand, and regulate emotions are processed through the cortex area (Pellitteri, 2002; Mayer et al., 2008). The cortex area is a more consciously controlled part of the brain and is different from the limbic system, which is a more automated and primitive area of the brain. A previous study has found that the prefrontal cortex is necessary for inhibiting emotional responses and providing behavioral flexibility (Quirk, 2007). High-EI individuals, who are more capable to reason with emotions, are therefore less likely to be susceptible to their own emotional impulses. In addition, high-EI individuals are found to be more likely to use deep acting instead of surface acting (Liu, Parti, Perrewe, & Ferris, 2008). In other words, they tend to modify their inner feelings rather than just facial expressions.

Because high-EI individuals can put their emotions under control, it follows that they are more likely to behave in a consistent manner even though they are experiencing different emotions under different circumstances. They are therefore less likely to burst into anger, which can be devastating to a trust relationship (Jones & George, 1998). Moreover, when they are accidentally hurt by another party in a relationship, they are less likely to end a relationship impulsively as they are better able to recover from setback (Boss & Sims, 2008). Some empirical studies provide support to this claim. Spörrle & Welpe (2006) have discovered that there is an inverse correlation between EI and irrationality. Brackett, Mayer, & Warner (2004) have also reported that lower EI males are more likely to exhibit deviant behaviors, such as fighting with others and having poor relations with friends. Other studies have shown that one's EI is positively related to others' perception of one's commitment. Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) have found that a leader's EI is significantly and positively related to multi-raters' rating of the leader's commitment to action and personal development. High-EI individuals have also demonstrated stronger commitment to an organization (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002).

Consistency of a person's behvavior is more likely to be perceived accurately by others in the long run than in the short run. Such consistency is regarded as one of the components in others' perception of an individual's trustworthiness (Butler, 1991). Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) have claimed that a person's consistency in past actions is a main determinant in others' perception of integrity. Gill, Boies, Finegan, and McNally (2005) have found that the perception of integrity of a target person is significantly and positively related to whether one will trust that person or not. By this reasoning, we propose the following hypothesis:

H1: In the long-run, a person's EI is positively related to others' perception of his or her trustworthiness

Mediation

We postulate that the feeling of liking will mediate the relationship between EI and trustworthiness. In other words, it means that people are more likely to trust a high-EI individual because they like him or her. There have been a number of studies which show that high-EI individuals are liked by others and have better friendships (Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003; Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz, Sellin, & Salovey, 2004; Lopes et al., 2005). Lopes et al. (2005) have reported that the most consistent observation between emotional intelligence and personality traits is the positive relationship between emotion regulation and agreeableness. Agreeableness relates not only to trust but also to tender-mindedness, which means having empathy for others and being sympathetic (Larsen & Buss, 2002). Moreover, there have been studies showing that EI is linked with empathy and perspective taking (Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Jordan et al., 2002). All the evidence suggests that the competence in perceiving and handling emotions gives an advantage to high-EI individuals to maintain or enhance the quality of relationships with the people they interact. Consequently, they are more likely to be trusted because of the affective component in the relationships. We therefore state the following hypothesis for testing:

H2: In the long-run, the feeling of liking mediates the relationship between EI and trustworthiness

Self-Monitoring and Trustworthiness

Although high self-monitors are also aware of the feelings of others (Icks, Stinson, Bissonnette, & Garcia, 1990), their reactions are subtly different from those of high-EI individuals. It has been argued that high-EI individuals mainly concern the management of emotional situations whereas high self-monitors attempt to alter their personal behaviors so as to fit into a social situation (Jordan et al., 2002). Moreover, high self-monitors regulate their own emotions for reasons that are quite different from that of high-EI individuals. High-EI individuals regulate their emotions because they want to minimize the undesired impact of emotions on their judgments (Law et al., 2008). When such emotions arise, their tendency is therefore to neutralize the emotional impact. High self-monitors, on the other hand, regulate their emotions because of the expectations of others. They use cues from others as guidelines for regulating and controlling their self-presentations (Kilduff & Day, 1994). High self-monitors have been found to be less responsive to their own emotional reactions but more responsive to rely on external cues for appropriate emotional responses (Graziano & Bryant, 1998). Because of the need to appear in a positive way to others, high self-monitors tend to mask their true feelings (Wright, Holloway, & Roloff, 2007; Snyder, 1974). The difference between masking an emotion and neutralizing one is that the former contains two components, a concealed emotion and a fabricated one (Ekman, 2007); whereas the latter contains only a concealed emotion. A recent study has shown that the leakage of one's truly felt emotion is more likely to be found when one masks emotions than when one neutralizes them (Porter & Brinke, 2008). It follows that high self-monitors are more likely than high-EI individuals to be regarded as insincere in the long run because of the accumulated leakages shown.

The inconsistency in behaviors is another attribute of high self-monitors, mainly due to their motives in meeting others' expectations. Jordan et al. (2002) have found that workgroup EI is positively related to self-monitoring only with regard to the component that is related to sensitivity to others. They have also reported there is a significant but negative relationship between the workgroup EI and the other component of self-monitoring, which concerns meeting others' expectations. Another study has also identified there are two factors, public performing and other-directedness, within the self-monitoring scale (Briggs & Cheek, 1988). It is likely that public performing may be positively related to EI, at least at the beginning of a relationship, because of the pro-social nature of the two constructs. Other-directedness, however, may not have a positive relationship with EI. In fact, we suspect that the other-directedness factor may be the main element that distinguishes high-EI individuals and high self-monitors in terms of long-term trustworthiness. Other-directedness means the need for social approval (Briggs & Cheek, 1988). Because the main concern for high self-monitors is to get other's approval, they may tend to act differently in different situations. It is no wonder that many studies have referred the high self-monitors as chameleons (Kilduff & Day, 1994; Parks & Mount, 2005; Mehra & Schenkel, 2008). In the long run, it is likely that high self-monitors fail to behave consistently across situations (Snyder, 1974). Such inconsistency could be detrimental to other's perception of their trustworthiness because consistency is an important element in forming the perception of trustworthiness (Butler, 1991; Mayer et al., 1995).

Another feature that may hamper others' perception of high self-monitors' trustworthiness in the long run is their attitudes toward committed relationships. High self-monitors have been found to be more likely to change employers (Kilduff & Day, 1994), have less organizational commitment (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002), and have less commitment to their dating partners (Snyder & Simpson, 1984). Wright et al. (2007) have found that in dating relationships, one's self-monitoring scores are negatively and significanly related to relational commitment and intimate communication. This is possibly due to high self-monitors' willingness to maintain flexibility (Kilduff & Day, 1994). Low self-monitors, on the other hand, are committed and have a principled orientation to relationships (Day et al., 2002). Since loyalty has also been cited as one of the elements in the perception of trustworthiness (Butler, 1991), we therefore argue that over time one's self-monitoring tendency will be negatively related to others' perceptions of one's trustworthiness.

The last attribute of high self-monitors that will besmirch their images of trustworthiness in the long run is their hidden motive. High self-monitors are more likely to be swayed by powerful others (Parks & Mount, 2005). They show generosity to others but such generosity may not be entirely altruistic; rather, high self-monitors use generosity as a means to gain status in the eyes of their peers (Flynn et al., 2006).

Mayer et al. (1995) have included benevolence, which is defined as a trustee's intention to do good to a trustor without egocentric incentive, as one of the main antecendents to the perception of trustworthiness. A previous study has found that supervisor's benevolence is positively related to subordinates' willingness to provide extra-role efforts (Lapierre, 2007). However, it is likely that in the long run the egocentric incentive of high self-monitors may be exposed and their images of trustworthiness may then be suffered.

After considering the differences between high self-monitors and high-EI individuals, as well as the peculiar features of high self-monitors, we propose the following hypothesis for testing:

H3: In the long-run, a person's self-monitoring attribute is negatively related to others' perception of his or her trustworthiness

Mediation

We postulate that in the long run people will have a gradual decrease in the feeling of liking toward high self-monitors for several reasons. First, high self-monitors use helping behaviors in order to achieve a good reputation among peers (Flynn et al., 2006). When others finally discover their true motives, the good feelings derived from past favorable impressions will be nullified. Second, the maneuvers of high self-monitors are more likely to be interpreted as sycophancy or flattery because they are easily swayed by people who are in power (Parks & Mount, 2005). Third, others may gradually recognize that at some point of a relationship high self-monitors are reluctant to commit wholeheartedly (Day et al., 2002; Wright et al., 2007). Such reluctancy may lead to a situation which is similar to a breach of psychological contract. A psychological contract is an individual's subjective beliefs regarding the reciprocal obligations of both parties in a relationship (Rousseau, 1989). When one discerns the other party fail to receprocate commensurate contribution to a relationship, negative feelings may arise (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). Consequently, we state our last hypothesis as:

H4: In the long-run, the feeling of liking mediates the relationship between self-monitoring and trustworthiness

Method

This study was part of a larger study. We conducted an experiment by asking the participants to nominate a target person whom they had known deeply. Then the participants were required to describe the target person in a few sentences. In the following sessions, they would assess the target person in terms of trustworthiness, emotional intelligence, self-monitoring attributes, and other issues.

Participants

Altogether, 101 students from the department of textile and clothing in a Hong Kong university and the department of accounting in a vocational training school in Hong Kong participated in our study. Both full-time and part-time students were included. Of the 101 participants, their average age was 26.41, ranging from 19 to 55. Concerning their level of education, 46 of the participants attained or were studying diploma, 47 bachelor, and 4 master levels. The remaining 4 participants did not answer this question. With regard to their employment status, 50 participants had a day-time job at the time of participation. 82 of the participants were female, 18 were male and 1 did not answer.

Materials

Trustworthiness Assessment

We used the trust scale adopted by Robinson (1996) with some adjustments for the peer-rating of the target person's trustworthiness. Generally, we changed the term "the employer" in the original scale to the term "he/she" in our scale. The following items were included: *"I believe he/she has high integrity"; "I can expect him/her to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion"; "He/she is not always honest or truthful"* (reverse scored); *"In general, I believe his/her motives and intentions are good"; "I don't think he/she treats me fairly"* (reverse scored); *"He/she is open and upfront with me"; "I am not sure I fully trust him/her"* (reverse scored). A 5-point Likert-type response scale was used. The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of this scale in our sample was *.85*. In latter sections, we simply use the term trustworthiness to represent participants' perception of their respective target person's trustworthiness.

Emotional Intelligence

We used the 16-item measure of emotional intelligence developed by Law, Wong, & Song (2004) for participants to peer-rate the EI of the nominated target person. The developers classified this scale as an ability model. The measurement included four subscales: aware of others' emotions, emotion regulation, aware of own emotions, and use of emotions. This measurement has been used for self-reports as well as peer-reports (Law et al., 2004; Law et al., 2008). The reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale and subscales in our sample were: emotional intelligence *.87;* aware of others' emotions *.85;* emotion regulation *.92;* aware of own emotions *.90;* use of emotions *.80* respectively. Similarly, in latter sections, we simply use the term EI to represent participants' evaluation of their respective target person's EI.

Self-Monitoring

In addition, we used the 18-item measure of self-monitoring developed by Snyder & Gangestad (1986). However, this time we changed the self-measurement to a peer-rated measurement. Examples of items included: *"In a group of people he or she is rarely the center of attention", "He/she is not always the person he/she appears to be"*. This instrument was originally provided in a true-false answer format but we changed it to a 5 point format as has been done in some other studies (e.g. Graziano & Bryant, 1998). The reason was that there might exist uncertainty to some extent when evaluating other people. A 5-point Likert-type response scale could thus be more appropriate than a true-false scale for this purpose. The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale in our sample was *.79.* Similarly, in latter sections, we simply use the term self-monitoring to represent participants' evaluation of their respective target person's self-monitoring attributes.

Feeling of liking

This was a single item which assessed the feeling of liking toward the nominated person by using the question *"I like him/her very much"* tied to a 7-point Likert-type response scale, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 7 indicated "strongly agree".

Control Variable

Similar to the feeling of liking, we also measured the depth of the participants' knowledge of the nominated person by asking the question *"I know him/her deeply"* tied to a 7-point Likert-type response scale, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 7 indicated "strongly agree".

Procedure

We first sent emails to invite all the students in the department of textile and clothing in a university and students in the department of accounting in a vocational training school in Hong Kong to participate in the study. The email contained a hyperlink that redirected the participant to an online questionnaire which was powered by the sgizmo.com. On the introductory page, participants were advised that their participation in this study is voluntary. They would be remained anonymous throughout the study. If they did not want to continue the questionnaire for any reason, they were allowed to quit at any time they liked.

After the introductory page, the next page required the participants to complete the following task:

"Please think of a fellow student or a coworker whom you like or not. The most important thing is that you have a deep knowledge about him or her."

The participants were then asked to fill in some information concerning the target person. The purpose of this task was to infuse the participants to think more about the characteristics about the target person they chose. They were first asked for the names and genders of the target persons. In order to alleviate their concerns relating to the leakage of the information, they could choose to fill in either the real names or the nicknames of the target persons. Second, they were requested to write a few sentences to describe the target persons. There was no restriction to the context in this part. Participants could write anything about the target persons as they wished. Third, questions were put to ask how long the participants had been acquainted with the target persons, as well as questions pertaining to the feeling of liking and depth of knowledge.

The evaluations of the target persons by the participants were carried out in the next few pages. First, participants were requested to appraise the trustworthiness of the target persons. Second, the emotional intelligence and self-monitoring qualities of the target persons were also assessed by the participants. After the evaluations were completed, participants were required to continue with questions which relate to other studies.

At the end of the questionnaire, information about the age, gender, and education of the participants was collected. In addition, participants were also asked about their current states of employment.

Results

Over eighty-five percent of the participants nominated a target person they had known for more than one year, whereas more than fifty-two percent nominated a target person they had known for more than four years.

Table 1: Correlation among Different Constructs

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Trustworthiness	*.85*						
2. Aware of Others' Emotions	.46**	*.90*					
3. Emotion Regulation	.44**	.12	*.92*				
4. Aware of Own Emotions	.52**	.55**	.28**	*.87*			
5. Use of Emotions	.19	.36**	.16	.34**	*.81*		
6. Emotional Intelligence	.53**	.71**	.58**	.72**	.68**	*.86*	
7. Self-Monitoring	-.26**	.21*	-.20	.18	.23*	.16	*.79*

The diagonal contains the Cronbach's alpha for each constructs
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

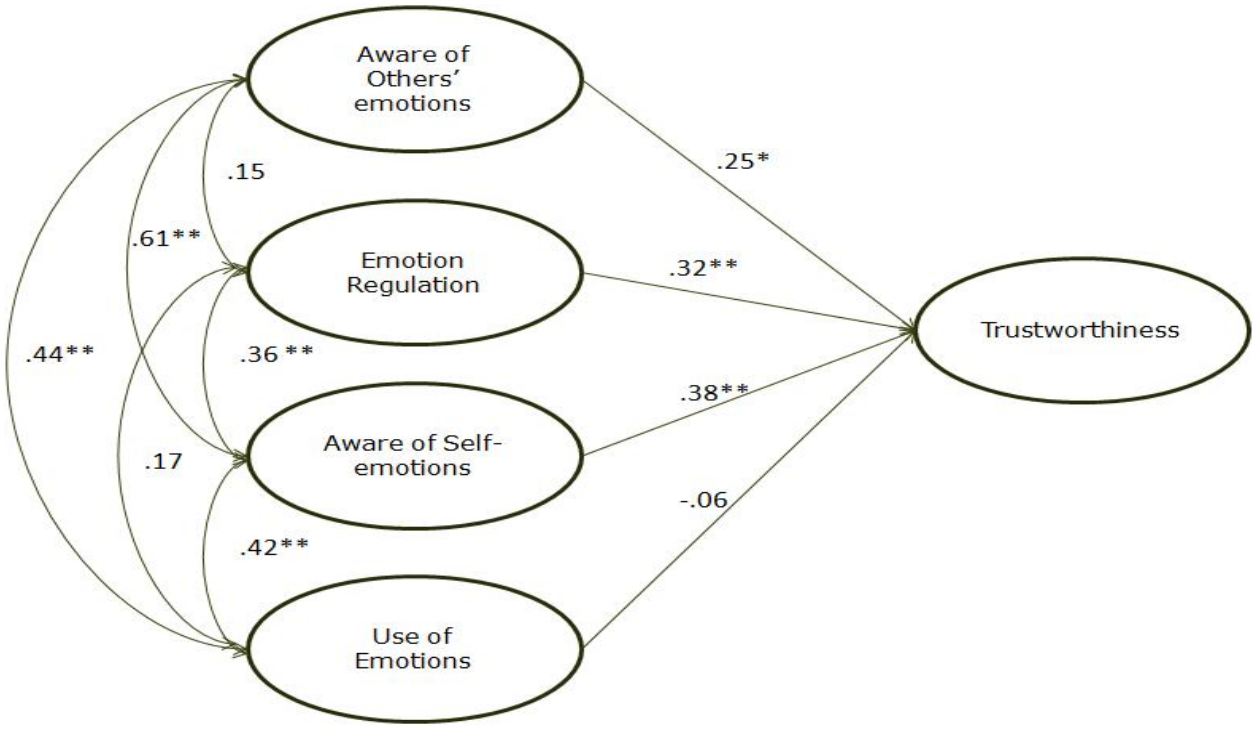
Table 1 exhibits the correlations among different constructs. As we predicted, the peer-rated EI was significantly and positively related to the target person's trustworthiness (r = .53, p < .001) whereas the peer-rated self-monitoring was significantly but negatively related to the target person's trustworthiness (r = -.26, p < .01). Since the standard coefficient of a simple regression between two variables was equivalent to the correlation coefficient, Hypotheses 1 and 3 were therefore supported. Moreover, the relationships remained significant after controlling for the depth of knowledge.

To test whether the feeling of liking mediated both relationships, we first tested the regressions as proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) and then used the bootstrapping analyses proposed by Preacher and Hayes (2004). The advantages of using bootstrapping analyses include: (1) it does not rely on the assumption of a normal sampling distribution; and (2) it is specialized for use with relatively small sample sizes. First, there was a significant correlation between the feeling of liking and trustworthiness (r = .75, p < .001). There was also a significant correlation between EI and the feeling of liking (r = .58, p < .001). When both the feeling of liking and EI were treated as the independent variables and trustworthiness as the dependent variable, the regression analysis showed that only the feeling of liking remained significant (feeling of liking: *beta* = .64, p < .001; EI: *beta* = .16, p = .059). This result provided preliminary support that the feeling of liking mediated the relationship between EI and trustworthiness. Additionally, the bootstrapped ratio (1,000 bootstraps) for indirect effect from the feeling of liking was estimated to lie between 0.2276 and 0.7716 with 99% confidence. Because zero was not in the 99% confidence interval, we concluded that the indirect effect was significantly different from zero at p < .01. Therefore, the feeling of liking mediated the relationship between EI and trustworthiness and Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Nonetheless, when we tested whether the feeling of liking also mediated the relationship between self-monitoring and trustworthiness, we found that the correlation between self-monitoring and the feeling of liking was insignificant (r = -.05, p = .62). When both the feeling of liking and self-monitoring were treated as the independent variables and trustworthiness as the dependent variable, the regression analysis showed that both factors were significant (feeling of liking: *beta* = .73, p < .001; self-monitoring: *beta* = -.23, p = .001). Additionally, the bootstrapped ratio (1,000 bootstraps) for indirect effect from the feeling of liking was estimated to lie between 0.1788 and -0.4339 with 95% confidence and zero was included in the confidence interval.

We therefore concluded that the feeling of liking did not mediate the relationship between self-monitoring and trustworthiness. Hypothesis 4 was thus not supported.

Figure 1: Models of the Effects of EI Components on Trustworthiness



* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Finally, we investigated which of the four components of EI that had significant contributions to the variance in trustworthiness. We used the structural equation modeling to assess the fitness of the model as described in Figure 1. Values of fit indexes were as follows: $\chi^2(220) = 268.74$, $p = .014$, *CFI* = .98, *SRMR* = .065, *RMSEA* = .032 with 90% confidence interval .000 - .055. These indexes generally indicated that the fitness of the model was good. Of all the components of EI, awareness of others' emotions, emotion regulation, and awareness of self-emotions all contributed significantly to the perception of trustworthiness.

Discussion

Our results demonstrate that others' perception of one's trustworthiness was positively and significantly related to others' perception of one's EI in long-term relationships. On the other hand, the perception of one's trustworthiness was negatively and significantly related to one's displayed self-monitoring attributes. The relationships remained significant after the depth of knowledge about the nominated person was controlled for. The structural equation model shows that the displayed abilities in the awareness of others' emotions, emotion regulation, and awareness of self-emotions were all significantly related to the perception of trustworthiness. It follows that one's emotional management skills can contribute to others' perception of one's trustworthiness, provided that one is not chameleon-like.

The fact that the feeling of liking mediated the relationship between EI and trustworthiness implied that EI was associated with the affective component of trust. In other words, people trust a high-EI individual largely because they feel comfortable with him or her. On the other hand, the feeling of liking did not mediate the relationship between self-monitoring and trustworthiness. This indicates that people generally do not trust a high self-monitor but the distrust is not necessarily due to bad feelings toward him or her. They may like or dislike a high self-monitor. In other words, self-monitoring largely relates to the cognitive component, rather than the affective component, of trust. Taken all these together, we may conclude that high-EI individuals and high self-monitors are different not only in their long-term impressions of trustworthiness but also in the paths of attaining those impressions.

This study may give support to previous claims that emotions and trust are possibly related. First, Jones and George (1998) have alleged the fluctuations in emotions signal changes in the experience of trust. High-EI individuals may exhibit less fluctuated emotions during personal interactions due to their competence in the awareness and regulation of emotions. This may in turn signal a more steady experience of trust with others. Low-EI individuals, on the other hand, may display fluctuated emotions and provide mixed signals to others concerning the quality of trust relationship. This can be the reason for that in our study, high-EI individuals were found to be more trustworthy than low-EI individuals. Second, Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (2007) have argued the possibility that emotions may have a long term effect on the cognitive evaluations of others' trustworthiness. Their reasoning builds on the premise that the experience of emotions may lead a trustor to update the prior perception of the trustworthiness of a trustee. Even after the emotions dissipate, the effect on the cognitive evaluations remains. Since our results show that EI and trustworthiness are significantly and positively related in the long-run, it seems that the argument — long-term cognitive evaluation of trustworthiness is affected by experience of emotions — is supported.

Other findings in previous studies may also find support in our results. In a study of charasmatic leadership, Kirkpatrick & Locke (1996) have found that a leader's charismatic communication style does not have any impact on others' trust in the leader. In their experiment, a professional actor was hired to display nonverbal charismatic behaviors to some groups but not to others. The nonverbal charismatic behaviors included using hand gestures, making eye contact, and displaying animated facial expressions when speaking. It turned out that trust in a leader did not relate to such charistmatic behaviors. In the light of our results, we argue that people are skeptical about a person who is displaying charistmatic behaviors because they fear the person could be a high self-monitor. The negative relationship we found between self-monitoring and trustworthiness suggests that eventually low self-monitors are more trustworthy than high self-monitors. Since high self-monitors are more likely than low self-monitors to exhibit charistmatic behaviors at the beginning, one may cast doubt on the trustworthiness of an unacquainted person who is charismatic. This explains further why charismatic behaviors have negligible impact on others' trust.

Given high self-monitors' chamelon nature and their untrustworthiness in the long run, we raise some questions concerning the social value orientation. The decomposed games method has found that about sixty percent of individuals are prosocial and the results have been consistent over time (Van Lange, Agnew, Harinck, & Steemers, 1997; Van Lange, Otten, De Bruin, & Joireman, 1997). However, in light of our results, we argue that the proportion of prosocial individuals may have been over-estimated. High self-monitors exhibit prosocial tendency and tend to use any means to polish their image whenever possible (Flynn et al., 2006). Actually, they are proself and not regarded as trustworthy. It follows that the decomposed games method can be misused by high self-monitors as an instrument to demonstrate their prosocial image. Nonetheless, additional evidence is needed to vertify such possibility.

Finally, our results indicate that the most trustworthy person in the long run should be the one who is emotionally intelligent but not chamelon-like. This gives support to the argument that self-leadership enhances trust. Self-leadership is a process through which people lead themselves and control their own behaviors through the use of behavioral and cognitive strategies (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Within the behavioral strategies, a self-leading individual knows how, why, and when one behaves in certain ways (Boss & Sims, 2008). This is similar to a high-EI individual who achieves the same purpose of controlling behaviors through the awareness, regulation, and use of emotions. On the other hand, self-leading individuals are less likely to be influenced by others in decision-making (Neck & Houghton, 2006). In other words, they are seldom directed by others. As a result, a person who engages in self-leadership may exhibit both high-EI and low self-monitoring qualities and is perceived as more trustworthy.

Management Implications

High-EI individuals and high self-monitors may initially have much in common, nonetheless their respective impact on an organization will be substantially different in the long run. Our results demonstrate that in the long run others' perception of one's trustworthiness will enhance if the latter is a high-EI individual, but will deteriorate if the latter is a high self-monitor. It follows that if a position requires a leader to solicit long term trust from team members, a high self-monitor may not be suitable for such a position.

This is because team-members led by a high self-monitor are less likely to view their leader as trustworthy when they know him or her more deeply.

In fact, there is evidence indicating that supervisors nowadays are more resistant to self-monitoring tactics (Miller & Cardy, 2000), than in the past when high self-monitors tended to achieve more promotions (Kilduff & Day, 1994). This is understandable because there have been evidence suggesting that high self-monitors tend to change their employers more frequently (Kilduff & Day, 1994) and their long-term commitments are in addition questionable (Snyder & Simpson, 1984; Day et al., 2002; Wright et al., 2007). However, the task to identify high self-monitors is not easy. High self-monitors' public performing dimension may be spotted by others much earlier than their other-directedness dimension. This may explain why high self-monitors are likely to be chosen as leaders due to initial group interactions (Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991).

Nonetheless, our results suggest that to identify high self-monitors, peer-rating may be crucial. Those who work closely with a high self-monitor may be better able to expose the latter's self-monitoring attributes. A study has found that high self-monitors receive different ratings from different raters in performance appraisals, whereas low self-monitors receive consistent ratings (Miller & Cardy, 2000). These results, combined with our own, lend support to the 360 degree multi-rater performance review process. The ratings of an individual by peers are more likely to reveal whether the individual is a high self-monitor or a high-EI individual than ratings purely done by supervisors alone.

Referring to the hiring process, we recommend that the management should adopt an interviewing team with several interviewers rather than a sole interviewer in order to lower the possibility of mistaking a high self-monitor for a high-EI individual. Since high self-monitors are other-directed, it will be more difficult for them to impress several interviewers at the same time, especially when the interviewers are incompatible with one another. In such a case, interviewers are likely to form inconsistent opinions about the attributes of a high self-monitoring interviewee.

The significant relationship between EI and trustworthiness implies that emotion management abilities may contribute to an individual's trustworthiness image. Proponents of the strictly cognitive approach about trust argue that the effects of emotions on trust are only temporary (Schoorman et al., 2007). However, our results suggest that emotions may have a significant impact on trust in the long run. Since those who are better at emotion regulation are found to be more trustworthy, it follows that the minimization of negative emotions such as outburst of anger is likely to have a positive consequence to trust in a relationship. This implies that it may be worthwhile for an organization to invest resources to enhance the emotion-regulation ability of its staff. A recent study has demonstrated that emotion management abilities can be trained and improved through the use of short lectures, role plays, group discussions, readings, and personal diary (Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, & Hansenne, 2009).

Limitations

Nonetheless, one must be cautious in the interpretations of our findings. First, our findings cannot rule out the possibility that one may actually mistake a high self-monitor to be a high-EI individual. This is possible as far as a high self-monitor can successfully hide his or her other-directedness behaviors from other people. However, since most of the target persons nominated in our study have been known by the participants for at least one year, this possibility is somewhat reduced.

Second, one may question the generalizability of the results with regard to gender because in our sample about 81% of the participants were female. Nevertheless, we have found the relationships remain significant even after the gender factor has been controlled for. Furthermore, there may be some benefit for having more female participants as they have been found to be more empathetic (Toegel, Anand, & Kilduff, 2007). In other words, they may be better able to distinguish true emotions from masked emotions, which are commonly used by high self-monitors.

Future Research

As previous studies have shown the similarities between EI and self-monitoring, and this study demonstrates the differences, it will be constructive to investigate what triggers others to recognize the differences between high-EI individuals and high self-monitors. We propose a longitudinal study to be carried out to see when and how people change their evaluations of a high self-monitor over time.

Since high self-monitors show less commitment in the long-term and are regarded less trustworthy, the early discovery of their existence may prevent an organization from rewarding the wrong person.

Conclusions

There has been an argument that emotional intelligence is just a substitution for the construct of self-monitoring (Mehra & Schenkel, 2008). However, our findings demonstrate that in the eyes of ordinary people, a high-EI individual and a high self-monitor could be two different types of persons, at least in the long run. Our results show that when one is known by others deeply, one's trustworthiness is positively related to the perceived EI but negatively related to the perceived self-monitoring attributes. In short, our findings support the claims that emotional intelligence has a positive impact on a trust relationship.

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