RELATIONSHIP AMONG EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, DEVIAN'T WORKPLACE BEHAVIOR AND JOB PERFORMANCE: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

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Abstract

The purpose of the study is to examine the relationships among emotional intelligence, deviant workplace behavior, and job performance. Emotional intelligence and deviant workplace behavior was measured by the Emotional Quotient Index and Multidimensional Scale respectively while job performance was assessed by Tsui et al.’s Job Performance Scale. Data for this study were collected from 201 employed MBA students studying at four private universities in Chittagong, a port city of Bangladesh. They were asked to rate their supervisors’ emotional intelligence, deviant workplace behavior, and job performance with the help of self-administered questionnaires. In data collection, this study used convenience sampling. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics, bivariate correlation, and regression analysis. Results indicated a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and deviant workplace behavior (r = -.52**), and deviant workplace behavior and job performance (r = -.45**). Emotional intelligence was found to correlate positively with job performance (r = .58**). The main implication of the study is that emotionally intelligent employees exhibit higher job performance and a lesser tendency to take part in deviant workplace behavior. The other implication is that supervisors should use their emotional intelligence competencies to improve their own and others’ job performance. The most important limitation of the study was that it used convenience samples, which might limit the generalizability of the results. Future research directions are also discussed.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, Emotional Quotient Index, deviant workplace behavior, job performance.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The topic of emotional intelligence (EI) has generated a great deal of interest among both researchers and academics as it offers a new perspective in the study of emotions. It represents a set of core competencies for identifying, processing and managing emotions (Matthews, Zeidner, Roberts, 2007). It has been argued that EI is twice as important as IQ (Goleman, 1995). On the other hand, deviant workplace behavior (DWB) is voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and, thus, is perceived as threatening the well-being of the organization or its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). It has become the center of interest of an increasing number of research studies (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Robinson & Bennett, 1997; Robinson & Bennett, 2000). Accordingly, managers are ever conscious about their employees’ job performance. Not a single issue related to job performance is being overlooked by modern managers as they try to satisfy stakeholders to capture the maximum market share in their respective business. Hence, the role of EI in both DWB and job performance should be recognized. It is an important competence for improving individuals’ job performance and minimizing workplace deviant behaviors.

Research findings suggest that people with high levels of EI engage less in deviant behaviors (Eisenberg, 2000; Petrides, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004) than those with low EI. Negative emotional reactions have been shown to predict a wide array of undesirable outcomes such as tension, turnover, decreased productivity, and even workplace violence (Bagozzi, 2003). Conversely, positive emotional reactions have been linked to numerous desirable outcomes such as increased productivity and job satisfaction. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) argue that high levels of EI can promote effective coping by decreasing the extent to which individuals ruminate on negative events, by promoting emotional disclosure, and by increasing individuals’ proclivity to seek social support after negative events occur. Similarly, Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel, and Hooper (2002) suggest that people with high EI tend to deal with their negative emotional reactions in ways that promote a productive result. The essence of their argument is that people high on EI are able to cope with stressful events and, therefore, have less extreme emotional reactions to such events.

Accordingly, it has been suggested that emotionally intelligent individuals perform their jobs better than individuals with low EI (Goleman, 1998a; 1998b; Watkin, 2000). Research findings have indicated that EI contributes to work performance (Brotheridge, 2006; Cherniss & Adler, 2001; Goleman, 1998; Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000). Although the ingredients for excellent performance are technical skills,
IQ and EI, EI is more significant than the others for jobs at all levels. Goleman (1998b; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002) has reported that EI is positively related to a person’s leadership quality, performance, and effectiveness. Other evidence has suggested that EI is essential for effective performance (Cooper & Sawaf, 1998; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Salovey & Shiyte, 1997). Some researchers (George & Brief, 1996) have theorized that job performance is influenced by the employees’ ability to use emotions to facilitate performance. Employees could use both positive and negative emotions to their advantage to improve job performance (Sy, Tram, & O’Hara, 2006).

On the other hand, DWB is considered negatively responsible for minimizing job performance. A number of studies report that not only do employees involved in deviance hamper their own performance, but their activities also create dissatisfaction among their co-workers, which leads to poor job performance (Bensimon, 1997; Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Coccia, 1998; Webb, 1991). Harper (1990) found that 33% to 75% of workers have engaged in behaviors such as vandalism, sabotage, unwanted absenteeism, and outright theft, which impacts on job performance and ultimately results in losses for the company. Muafi (2011) reported that workplace deviance had negative effects on individual performance. The prevalence of workplace deviance is therefore costly to both organizations and individuals (Bennett & Robinson, 2003), and as a result today’s modern managers, researchers, and industrial psychologists have turned their attention to minimizing deviant behaviors due to their negative consequences on job performance.

Despite the range of studies discussed above, there has been relatively little empirical research that examines the relationships among EI, DWB, and job performance in Bangladesh. Although, Bangladeshi scholars, researchers, and academics have a great interest in EI, empirical research on this topic is mostly absent here. This research gap has induced the researchers to undertake the present study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Emotional Intelligence

EI is a topic of growing interest among academics and researchers (e.g. Clarke, 2006; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004; Gardner & Stough, 2002; George, 2000; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Miller, 1999; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Rahim, Psenicka, Oh, Polychroniou, Dias, Rahman, Ferdausy, 2006; Rahman, Ferdausy, & Uddin, 2012; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Singh, 2007). Goleman (1995) made the concept popular.
among researchers, practitioners, psychologists, and general readers with the publication of his best selling book “Emotional Intelligence”. The notion of EI has also appeared in a number of other popular books (Cooper & Sawaf, 1998; Salerno, 1996; Segal, 1997), and magazine and newspaper articles (Bennets, 1996; Henig, 1996). However, it was Salovey and Mayer (1990) who first coined the term “emotional intelligence” drawing on research such as Gardner’s (1983) concepts of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences, Wechsler’s (1940) proposition of non-intellective abilities and Thorndike’s (1920) concept of social intelligence.

2.1.1. Definition of EI

The continued interest in the field of EI has resulted in as many definitions as there are people who have attempted to define it. Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first to define the term EI as “a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action” (p. 189). This definition consists of three types of abilities: i) expression and evaluation of emotion, ii) regulation of emotion and iii) using emotions in decision making process. A similar definition was given by Bar-On (1997) as “an array of emotional, personal, and social abilities and skills that influence an individual’s ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures” (p. 14). Again, Goleman (1998b) defined EI as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships” (p. 317). This indicates that EI is related to a number of non-cognitive skills, abilities, or competencies that can influence an individual’s capacity. Thus, EI can be defined as the ability to perceive and understand emotions, to regulate and organize emotions and, to generate and manage emotions so as to enhance thinking and promote intellectual growth.

2.1.2. Components of EI

Despite criticism, it has been suggested that the EI of an individual can be measured by using different EI instruments available in the literature, such as, TMMS (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey & Palfai, 1995), EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997), ECI (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 1999), EQI (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000), SUEIT (Palmer & Stough, 2001), MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002), EQI (Rahim et al., 2002), WEIP (Jordan et al., 2002), TELQue
(Petrides & Furnham, 2003), EIS (Wong, Law, & Wong, 2004), and AES (Schutte, Malouf, & Bhullar, 2009). This study uses the “Emotional Quotient Index” (EQI) developed by Rahim et al., (2002) to measure five components of EI. The five components are i) self-awareness, ii) self-regulation, iii) motivation, iv) empathy, and v) social skills. These components are the re-characterization of original elements of EI suggested by Goleman (1995). It is a 40-item instrument designed to measure subordinates’ perceptions of their respective supervisors’ EI. The descriptions of these five components are presented as follows:

2.1.2.1. Self-awareness:

According to Goleman (1995, 1998a, 1998b), Goleman et al., (2002) self-awareness is the foundation for the rest of the components. It is the ability to recognize which emotions, moods, and impulses one is experiencing and why. It is associated with emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. Goleman (1995, 1998a, 1998b) argues that it is not only related to an individual’s psychological insight and self-understanding; it also plays a key role in determining how an individual exhibits behaviors and interacts with others. Indeed, individuals who are highly confident, self-efficacious, and aware of their emotions promote attributions of high performance (Gardner & Avolio, 1996). Prior research has shown that a person with high levels of self-awareness can master his/her destiny effectively (Bandura, 1986, Frankl, 1992).

2.1.2.2. Self-regulation:

Self-regulation is the ability to handle feelings as they are being experienced, and it encompasses managing techniques such as knowing when to comfort oneself and when not to let every emotion overcome one’s being (Goleman, 1995, 1998a, 1998b). It is associated with self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, and innovation. Goleman et al., (2002) contend that individuals with emotional self-control find ways to manage their disturbing emotions and impulses and even to channel them in useful ways. It has been proposed that self-emotional control and self-monitoring are related to high performance (Gardner & Avolio, 1996; Shamir, 1991).
2.1.2.3. Motivation:

Motivation comprises an individual's motives or needs, sense of hope and optimism, and self-efficacy (Goleman, 1995, 1998a, 1998b). According to Rahim et al., (2002) a self-motivated person remains focused on goals and objectives despite setbacks, operates from hope of success rather than fear of failure, and accepts change to attain goals. The need for power, need for achievement, and need for affiliation provide a strong impetus for self-motivated individuals (McClelland, 1987). Charismatic individuals exhibit high levels of self-motivation based on strong convictions and beliefs as well as faith and hope in a better future (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

![Goleman's Pattern of Emotional Intelligence](image)

2.1.2.4. Empathy:

Empathy provides emotional support to people when needed, and understands the links between the emotions and behaviors of other people (Rahim et al., 2006). Burns (1978) states that the striving for self-esteem and evolution of a sense of human empathy work in harmony to bring out a potential for high performance. Empathy is associated with understanding and developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity, and political awareness (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004).

2.1.2.5. Social skills:

This is the ability to manage emotions in others to solve interpersonal conflicts for which there may be no logical solutions. It includes socio-economic skills, which are necessary to analyse and understand human relationships, negotiate disputes, resolve conflicts, influence popular opinion, and exhibit considerate and cooperative behaviors (Goleman, 1995, 1998a, 1998b).
1998b). Bass (1990) and Yu Kl (2007) opine that social skills are important for exhibiting effective individual performance. In addition, some researchers suggest that individual performance depends on the emotional traits of the concerned person (Bass, 1990; Shamir et al., 1993; Yu Kl, 2007).

2.2. Deviant Workplace Behavior

DWB is voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and, in doing so, threatens the well-being of an organization or its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Employee deviance is voluntary in that employees either lack the motivation to conform to normative expectations of the social context or become motivated to violate those expectations (Kaplan, 1975). Organizational norms consist of basic moral standards as well as other traditional community standards, including those prescribed by formal and informal organizational policies, rules and procedures (Feldman, 1984). Researchers have given these behaviors many different names including workplace deviance, counterproductive behavior, antisocial behavior, and workplace incivility (Robins & Judge, 2009).

2.2.1 Types of deviant workplace behavior

A large number of organizational phenomena can generally be described as deviance. In this study, we have adopted Robinson and Bennett's (1997) definition and typology of workplace deviance: employee deviance is a voluntary behavior that violates the norms of an organization, which may ultimately threaten the well-being of the organization, its employees, or both (Robison & Bennett, 1997). These authors propose four types of workplace deviance: production deviance, property deviance, political deviance, and personal. Descriptions of the four categories of DWB are presented as follows:

2.2.1.1 Production deviance occurs when employees violate the standards of quality and quantity while producing goods or services. Although considered a minor form of deviance, production deviance may be quite costly to an organization. Examples of production deviance include wasting resources, setting unrealistic expectations regarding product performance, or intentionally working slowly (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

2.2.1.2 Political deviance occurs when employees exhibit favoritism for certain stakeholders (e.g. customers, co-workers, or suppliers), thus placing
others at a disadvantage. Political deviance may include undercharging preferred customers, compromising company secrets, and gossiping. Such favoritism may generate costs to the organization which result from inconsistent service quality, dissatisfaction, and perceptions of unfairness (Robinson & Bennett, 1997).

2.2.1.3 Property deviance involves the acquisition or destruction of company property without company approval. Employees may engage in property deviance by stealing products, padding expense accounts, or expending sales support resources on unqualified customer prospects. The unauthorized acquisition, or theft, of inventory and other resources has obvious negative effects on an organization’s bottom line (Bennett & Robinson, 2003).

2.2.1.4 Personal aggression involves hostile or aggressive behavior. This form of deviance can harm an organization’s reputation and have serious negative consequences for the targeted individuals. Personal aggression includes various types of intimidation tactics, such as, sexual harassment, verbal abuse, and threats of physical harm (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

2.3. Job performance

There is no universally accepted definition of performance. Different authors take different paths to define it. Hellriegel, Jackson, and Slocum (1999) define performance as the level of an individual’s work achievement after having exerted effort. Whetten, Cameron, and Woods (2000) believe that performance is ultimately an individual phenomenon with environmental variables influencing performance primarily through their effect on the individual determinants of performance - ability and motivation. Rotundo and Sackett (2002) define performance as those actions and behaviors that are under the control of the individual and contribute to the goals of the organization. An effective performance measurement system ought to cover all aspects of performance that are relevant to the existence of an organization and the means by which it achieves success and growth (O’Regan, Ghobadian, & Sims, 2005).

Different types of performance have been discussed in the literature. These include team performance (Feyerherm & Rice, 2002; Koman & Wolff, 2008; Rapisarda, 2002), job performance (Carmeli, 2003; Cote, Cristopher, & Miners, 2006; Dries & Pepermans, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002; Sy et al., 2006),
and management performance (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002). This study aims to focus on the job performance of the employees of the organization.

Job performance is a commonly used performance indicator in the workplace. It most commonly refers to whether a person performs his or her job well. According to Campbell (1990) and his colleagues (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993), job performance is an individual level variable. In other words, it is something a single person does. A number of studies (e.g., Heilman, Block, & Lucas, 1992; Pearce & Porter, 1986; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997; Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez, 1998, Williams & Anderson, 1991) have suggested several factors to measure job performance. According to the preceding authors, it can be measured by quantity, quality, and accuracy of work; employees’ efficiency and standard of work; employees’ striving for higher quality work, achievement of work goals, and so on. Because Tsui et al.,’s (1997) job performance scale includes most of the factors, it was chosen for use in the present study.

3.0. DEVELOPMENT OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

3.1. Emotional intelligence and deviant workplace behavior

Researchers have found that individuals with high levels of EI are able to control themselves and refrain from partaking in misbehavior that would harm the organization they work for. A number of research studies have revealed that higher scores of EI are associated with higher quality interpersonal relationships (Brackett, Warner & Bosco, 2005); academic performance and social competence (Brackett, Rivers, Shiftman, Lerner & Salovey, 2006); and important workplace outcomes such as stress tolerance and peer and/or supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation (Lopes et al.,2006). On the other hand, a low level of EI may be a key factor in a variety of deviant behavior (Eisenberg, 2000). Liau, Liau, Teoh, and Liau (2003), for example, found that lower EI is linked to deviant behaviors among secondary school students, and lower EI scores are linked to drug abuse, excessive drinking and deviant behavior in male college students (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004). Berko and Lovinday (1998) estimate that 90% of our actions and activities are actually sense-related and only 10% are based on thoughts, logic and reasoning. Based on the above discussion, the first hypothesis of the study was developed as follows:
3.2. Emotional Intelligence and job performance

Emotionally intelligent individuals adjust to their inner signal and recognize how their feelings affect them and their job performance (Goleman et al., 2004). They can be candid and authentic, are able to speak openly about their quantity, quality, and accuracy of work, and strive for efficiency and standard of work (Goleman et al., 2002). It has been found that senior managers with high EI performed their jobs better (Carmeli, 2003). Emotionally intelligent people are also adaptable, transparent, trustworthy, innovative, and conscientious about adapting to new challenges to perform their jobs well (Goleman et al., 2004). It has been claimed that more emotionally intelligent engineers were top performers than their peers (Goleman 1998b). In addition, employees with high EI have high personal standards that drive them to constantly seek performance improvements, to set measurable and challenging work goals to create better possibilities for the future (Goleman et al., 2002; Slaski & Cartwright, 2002). Furthermore, empathetic managers are able to get along with people of diverse backgrounds and to tune in to a wide range of emotional signals, letting them sense the felt emotions in a person or group to maintain the quantity, quality, and accuracy of particular assignment (Rahim & Marvel, 2009; Goleman et al., 2004). Finally, socially skilled people find practical ways to overcome barriers to change to carry out the tasks (Goleman et al., 2002; Rozell, Pettijohn, & Parker, 2006). Hence, the second hypothesis has been proposed as follows:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between EI and job performance measured by the working MBA students.

3.3. Deviant workplace behavior and job performance

Deviant behavior is directed against the organization but focuses specifically on reducing the efficiency of work output. Leaving early, taking excessive breaks, intentionally working slowly, wasting resources are examples of DWB which lead to poor job performance (Boye & Jones, 1997; Robinson & Bennett, 2000). Destroying or misusing an organization’s property, sabotaging equipment, accepting kickbacks, lying about hours worked, and stealing from the company, among others, are responsible for reducing the job performance
of the employees (Harper, 1990; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Robinson & Bennett, 2000). Showing favouritism increases inequity among the workers, blaming co-workers, gossiping about co-workers, and competing non-beneficially increase job dissatisfaction, which indirectly induces poor job performance (Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Similarly, sexual harassment, verbal abuse, stealing from co-workers, and endangering co-workers are examples of DWB which affect job performance negatively (Hurrell, Worthington, & Driscoll, 1996; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). When workers experience poor health and well-being in the workplace, they may be less productive, make lower quality decisions, and be more prone to be absent from work (Boyd, 1997; Brown & Peterson, 1994; Price & Hooijberg, 1992). Hence, the third hypothesis is as follows:

*Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship between Deviant Workplace Behavior and job performance measured by the employed MBA students.*

A hypothetical model was developed to exhibit the relationships between the components of EI and the job performance as follows:

![Hypothetical Model](image-url)

**Figure 2: Hypothetical Model**

**Note:** EI = emotional intelligence; DWB = deviant workplace behavior; JP = job performance; (-) = Negative relationship; (+) = positive relationship.
4.0. RESEARCH METHODS

4.1. Participants

Data for this study were collected from 201 working MBA students who were asked to rate their supervisors’ EI, DWB, and job performance. They were working at different organizations while studying in evening MBA programs at four private universities in the large city of Bangladesh during the study. The respondents were classified into three categories namely: higher-level, mid-level, and lower-level. Each respondent was given the autonomy to rate his/her supervisor, i.e. the person to whom he or she had to report. The organizations were classified into several categories, such as, manufacturing, merchandising, financial services, education, healthcare, service industry, and others. The respondents were assured that any information provided would be kept confidential and used only for academic purposes.

The respondents ranged in age from 24 to 44 years, with a mean age of 30.24 (SD= 4.93) years, and 131 (65.2%) were male while 70 (34.8%) were female. They had known their supervisors for a mean of 2.93 (SD= 2.87) years while the average tenure was 4.38 (SD= 3.69) years. The top, middle and lower level categories represent respectively 14.9%, 72.6%, and 12.5% of the participants. The respondents were well educated, as 71 (35.3%) had completed bachelor degrees while 130 (64.75%) had postgraduate studies. In terms of organizational units, 31 (14.9%) belonged to manufacturing, 28 (13.9%) to merchandising, 31 (15.4%) to education, 25 (12.4%) to health, 32 (15.9%) to finance, 26 (12.9%) to services, and 28 (13.9%) to other industries.

4.2. Survey instruments

The study adopts the following measures to collect data from the participants.

4.2.1. Emotional Quotient Index

EI was measured using the EQI developed by Rahim et al., (2002; 2006). The instrument measures the subordinates’ perceptions of their respective supervisors’ EI by means of 40-items, which produces a scale to measure the five components of EI. The five EI components of the EQI are: i) self-awareness, ii) self-regulation, iii) motivation, iv) empathy, and v) social skills. The items are measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 7 (Strongly Agree) to 1 (Strongly Disagree). A higher score indicates a greater EI of a supervisor.

The EQI is an observer-report instrument of EI normed on 1,395 respond-
ents from seven countries (US, Bangladesh, Hong Kong, Greece, Portugal, China, and South Africa). Rahim et al. (2002) reported that reliabilities for the components or subscales of the EQI range from .58 to .95 across these seven countries. The reliability of the EQI for the current study was .95.

Sample items for the EQI instrument were ‘My supervisor is well aware of his or her moods (self-awareness), ‘My supervisor remains calm in potentially volatile situations’ (self-regulation), ‘My supervisor stays focused on goals despite setbacks’ (motivation), ‘My supervisor provides emotional support to people during stressful conditions’ (empathy), and ‘My supervisor handles emotional conflicts with tact and diplomacy’ (social skills). The five components consisted of 8 items each. The mean score of EQI was obtained by totalling the scores of the five EQI components and dividing them by the number of components (five).

### 4.2.2. Deviant workplace behavior

DWB of the employees was measured with the selected items adapted by Appelbaum, Iaconi, and Matousek (2007) from the Robbinson and Bennet’s (1995) Multidimensional Scale (MDS) of deviant behavior. In this particular study, the MDS uses 20-items to produce a scale to measure the four types of deviant behavior. The four types of DWB behaviors are: i) production deviance, ii) property deviance, iii) political deviance, and iv) personal aggression. The items are measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 7 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). A higher score indicates higher engagement in DWB by an employee.

Sample items for the MDS were ‘My supervisor enjoys excessive time for tea breaks and lunch’ (production deviance), ‘My supervisor sabotages office equipment’ (property deviance), ‘My supervisor shows favoritism, gossip with co-worker in office-time’ (political deviance), and ‘My supervisor harasses the co-workers’ (personal aggression). The four components consisted of five items each. The mean score of MDS was obtained by totalling the respective number of MDS component scores, consisting of five items each, and dividing them by the respective number of components. The reliability of the MDS scale reported by Bennett and Robinson (1997) was 0.89 while for the current study it was found to be 0.95.

### 4.2.3. Job performance

Six items adapted from Tsui et al. (1997) were used to measure the job
performance of the supervisors. Sample items were ‘My supervisor’s quantity of work is much higher than average’, ‘My supervisor’s quality of work is much higher than average’ etc. The response scale ranged from 1, ‘strongly disagree,’ to 7, ‘strongly agree’. During the development of the job performance scale, the reliability reported by Tsui et al., (1997) was .89. The reliability of the job performance scale for the current study was also .89. The mean score of job performance was obtained by totalling the six job performance item scores, and dividing them by the number of items (six).

4.3. Data collection procedure

This study used convenience sampling to select respondents. 300 working MBA students from four private universities were selected, and the authors spent four separate days collecting data from the 300 participants. The students, who were in class at the time of data collection, were briefed about the purpose of the survey and then copies of printed survey materials were given out for them to fill in. The students took forty minutes on average to complete the survey. Due to some constraints, it was not possible to collect an equal number of responses from each classroom or university. Finally, a total of 201 (67%) usable responses were received. The raw data were entered into an Excel file for summarization, and then imported into the SPSS statistics 16.0 data editor for statistical analysis.

4.4. Reliability of scales and validity of data

Reliability reflects the consistency of a set of items in measuring the study variables/concepts. It illustrates the individual differences concerning the amount of agreement or disagreement on the concepts or variables studied. In this study, reliability measurement is important to verify the consistencies of the items used in EQI, DWB, and JP scales. The most widely used method to measure the reliability of a scale is Cronbach’s alpha (Cooper & Schinder, 2001; Field, 2005; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2003; Malhotra, 2002; Page & Mayer, 2000). Cronbach’s alpha value ranges from 0 to 1, but a value of more than 0.60 is required for the scale to be considered reliable (Cronbach, 1951; Malhotra, 2002). In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha of the EI, MDS and job performance scale for the current study were 0.95, 0.95, and .89 respectively. Therefore, these three instruments were highly reliable for data collection.

Validity refers the extent to which differences in observed scales scores
reflect true differences among objects on the characteristics being measured, rather than systematic or random error (Malhotra, 2002). In this study, the authors considered only criterion validity, which denotes that criterion variables (i.e. demographic characteristics, attitudinal, and behavioral measures) were collected at the same time.

5. RESULTS

The mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) calculated for the EQI, MDS and job performance are presented in Table 1. The mean and standard deviation for EQI was consistent with previous research (Ferres & Connell, 2004; Rahim et al., 2002; 2006; Rahman et al., 2012). Correlations between the components of EQI, typology of MDS, and job performance are also presented in Table 1.

Table 1 shows that there was a significant negative correlation between
EQI and MDS and a significant positive correlation between EQI and job performance. A moderate negative correlation was also found between DWB and job performance. EQI was found to relate negatively with DWB ($r = -0.52$, $p < 0.01$) but positively with job performance ($r = 0.58$, $p < 0.01$). There was also a negative correlation between DWB and job performance ($r = -0.45$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, all three hypotheses were supported by the results.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Covariates</th>
<th>Co-efficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Value of $t$-statistic</th>
<th>Value of $R^2$</th>
<th>Value of $F$-statistic (ANOVA)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EQI</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDS</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JP</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>4.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A review of the Table 2 indicates that only 2%, 3%, and 1% of the variance in EQI, MDS, and job performance, respectively, could be explained by socio-demographic characteristics (e.g. gender, age, tenure, education, and position), none of which was found to be significant. This result reveals that a large portion of variance in EQI, MDS, and job performance remains unexplained. The presence of unexplained variance suggests that there were other potential or implied variables that account for variations in EQI, MDS, and job performance.

Table 3:

Summary of Regression Analysis regarding EQI and Types of MDS and JP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of MDS and JP (Explained Variance)</th>
<th>EQI (Predictor)</th>
<th>Co-efficient</th>
<th>S.E. ($)</th>
<th>Value of $t$-statistic</th>
<th>Value of $R^2$</th>
<th>Value of $F$-statistic (ANOVA)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PD1</td>
<td>-0.91</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>-9.40**</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>88.43**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD2</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>-7.16**</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>51.29**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD3</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>-7.42**</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>55.06**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>-6.66**</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>44.44**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JP</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>10.08**</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>101.79**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N= 201; EQI= emotional quotient index; MDS=multidimensional scale; PD1= production deviance; PD2= property deviance; PD3= political deviance; PA= personal aggression; & JP= job performance
Examination of Table 3 demonstrates that about 31%, 21%, 22%, and 18% of the variance in PD1, PD2, PD3, and PA, respectively, was explained by EQI while 34% of the variance in job performance was explained by EQI. This finding indicates that there might be other potential predictors that contribute to explaining the variances in DWB and job performance.

6.0. DISCUSSION

The present study aims to examine the relationships between EI, DWB, and job performance, as measured by working MBA students.

The first purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between EI and DWB. Hypothesis 1 stated that there will be a negative relationship between EI and DWB measured by the respondents. The results of the current study support this hypothesis. Thus, individuals with higher EI are less likely to be involved with DWB. This negative relationship is consistent with the propositions of previous studies (Berko & Lovinday, 1998; Brackett et al., 2004; Eisenberg, 2000). The result of the current study also offers support for the theoretical argument that EI may be an important aspect in reducing an individual’s deviant behavior.

The second purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between EI and job performance. Consistent with hypothesis 2, the relationship between EI and job performance, as measured by the participants, was found to be positively correlated. This positive relationship is consistent with the assumptions of previous studies (Carmeli, 2003; Goleman et al., 2002; 2004; Rozell et al., 2006; Slaski & Cartwright, 2002). It may be that individuals who are high in EI are likely to exhibit superior job performance. This tentative understanding is made based on the theoretical assumption that EI may be a precursor of high job performance.

The final purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between DWB and job performance. Hypothesis 3 stated that DWB will be negatively related to job performance, as measured by the subjects. The results of the current study support this assertion. The negative relationship is consistent with the propositions of previous studies (Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Boye & Jones, 1997; Hurrell et al., 1996; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002). The findings of the present paper also provide support for the assumption that DWB may be a prior indication of poor employee job performance, which needs to be minimized.
References:


Brotheridge, C.M. (2006). The role of emotional intelligence and other individual difference variables in predicting emotional labor relative to situational demands. Psicothema, 18, supl., 139-144.


