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The Relationship Between Counterproductive Work Behavior and Emotional Intelligence Among Leaders in Corrections

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Walden University
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Abstract

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John F. Caraway

MP, Walden University, Minneapolis, 2022

MS, Troy State University, Dothan, Alabama, 2002

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

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Abstract

The need for soft skills in corrections and law enforcement continues to be polarized in the media, and the courts, costing organizations billions in litigation and, in some cases, costing the lives for which the individuals have sworn to protect. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study aimed to examine the relationship between counterproductive work behavior (CWB) and emotional intelligence (EI). The research questions focused on the relationship between CWB and EI among leaders in corrections with age, gender, education, and veteran status as control variables. The relationship between a leader's CWB and their EI was not known. The theoretical framework included Goleman's theory of EI. The sample group comprised 94 correctional leaders across the United States and at every leadership level. A leader must have had at least 24 months of experience equivalent to the GS-9 level or above, excluded from the bargaining unit, and have supervised at least one subordinate employee. Seventy-nine participants were deemed eligible for the study. Data from a self-reported questionnaire utilizing workplace demographics, the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale, and the Spector and Fox Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences. The hypotheses were tested by conducting a simple and multiple linear regression and a means comparison. The findings were significant and determined that there is a relationship between CWB and EI among leaders in corrections. The findings will assist in employees' recruitment, development, training, and emotional well-being by focusing on individual EI competencies that can mitigate CWB and create positive social change in their work and personal life.

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Dedication

First, I would like to give honor and dedicate this work to God and thank him for giving me the strength, academic vision, and perseverance to become a lifelong learner. Secondly, I dedicate it to those who came before me and future correctional professionals. I am forever grateful the men and women in corrections that became part of my family, who bleed blue, to my colleagues in the Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Prisons, all those at whatever organization, and to everyone else I did not mention by name but contributed in some fashion to my success; I particularly honor those who completed my questionnaire, which ultimately led to the completion of this dissertation. Thank you!

It is my sincere hope that the contributions of this research will allow the future leaders who will come after us to truly examine the need for and importance of the soft skills needed in corrections and law enforcement and see them as a strength and not a weakness.

Acknowledgments

The obtaining of this doctorate, although a personal accomplishment, started out as a challenge of continuous learning and professional excellence to my daughter Kamilla Caraway-Riley, who threatened to one up me after she achieved her bachelor's degree. It would not have been possible if not for God's grace, her competitive nature, and love for education. I would like to thank my mother, Mary Jane Caraway, who did not live to see the fruits of her labor but taught me the value of hard work and being the best at your profession, whether it be a sanitation worker or senior executive staff member. I want to acknowledge the sacrifice support, faith, and love from my wife, Kim Caraway, who prayed for me when I was not even praying for myself. Our 37 plus years of marriage have allowed us to grow older in age, wiser in knowledge, spiritually in our faith, and closer to God.

My sincere thanks to my fellow veteran and Chair (Dr. Morris) for working with me and guiding me through this journey. A special thank you to the other committee member Dr. Anthony and Dr. Jain for their support, patience, and guidance in my transition from student to doctoral candidate, to colleague, and doctor.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Over time, Emotional Intelligence (EI) has gained a foothold and relevance among researchers and professionals (Sanchez-Gomez & Breso, 2020). EI competencies, among other variables, are becoming significantly necessary to understand and predict work behavior in the marketplace. A leader must have cognitive and emotional skills to achieve adequate performance in any organization. EI allows individuals to analyze their environment and make the best decision, thus leading to better performance (Sanchez-Gomez & Breso, 2020). Bar-on (2006) noted that the concept of emotional intelligence was first published in the early 1900s by Edward Thorndike as the ability to build bonds and form relationships. Even in the early stages of Thorndike, some researchers believed that EI could improve employee performance.

Psychologists Mayer and Peter Salovey (1990) birthed the idea of managing a person's emotions. The idea behind EI was the belief that this skill would allow someone to understand the emotions of oneself and those of others to discern and use the information to facilitate change and improve performance. Mayer and Salovey (1990) developed a 16-step developmental model for children and adults to help them better understand new ways of thinking and managing their emotions. The authors divided the model into four branches: managing emotions to attain specific goals; perceiving emotions in oneself and others accurately; understanding emotion, emotional language, and the signals conveyed by emotions, and using emotions to facilitate action.

Miao et. al. (2018) asserted that the influence of EI training is an especially relevant topic in the work environment. The EI competency training of leaders can complement a leader's style, influence performance, and possibly mitigate misconduct. A leader needs to understand the personality characteristics that contribute their effectiveness in different cultures.

Pozo-Rico and Sandoval (2019) noted that the EI Competencies (EIC) of a leader are linked to effectively predicting task performance and citizenship behavior. Evidence has mounted concerning EI being able to influence job performance, well-being, job satisfaction, less stress, burnout, and employee turnover. Many organizations such as hospitals, education institutions, and corrections have begun implementing EI training. Brou (2022) determined a leader's intelligence is a combination of their expertise in the related field and EI, which includes emotional awareness. Jewett (2018) defined EI as the ability to identify and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others. Robinson et. al. (2019) described the term *work-related EI* as an EI measure for the workplace using scenarios that highlight emotional events and processes. Van Oosten et. al. (2019) described the term *organizational climate* as the characterization of a set of properties or the natural feel of the work environment. According to Al Ghazo et. al. (2019), the work environment can have either a direct or indirect effect on the behavior of a person. The shared perception can create a psychological state that can motivate organizational citizenship or perpetuate negative counterproductive work behavior (CWB). A healthy organizational climate creates a space of mutual respect, trust, limited conflicts, and low turnover.

Shang et al. (2021) described the term *organizational citizenship behavior* as discretional work above the official position description. The person freely chooses to do work that is not required and is generally not rewarded. Al Ghazo et. al (2019) asserted that when organizations invest in resources to grow their employees personally and professionally, a feeling of gratitude can develop. The employee may feel obligated to perform above and beyond, which benefits the organization. The author analyzed data from 271 participants and linked career growth to organizational citizenship behavior. The research confirmed that employees perceiving a stronger connection to the organization through career growth are more likely to display behavior beneficial to the organization rather than an individual (Al Ghazo et al., 2019).

The term *CWB* is employee behavior that does not align with the organization's goals (Raman et al., 2016). Spector and Fox (2006) defined CWB as any intentional behavior that hurts or causes harm to a person or the organization. The competencies and development of a leader's EI are critical to organizational success. EI can play a significant role in a leader's success. EI skills can complete a leader's traits, skills, and styles, improve performance, and reduce CWB. Van Oosten et al. (2019) noted training and development cost billions of dollars to develop programs focusing on equipping leaders and maintaining their competitive advantage. The author's study highlighted that there was an average increase of 14 percent in organizational investments on leadership development programs and in recent years, a total of more than $15 billion has been spent to develop programs like EI and establish the popular trend of executive coaching. The authors explored the relationship between a leader's emotional and social competency

(ESC), the coaching relationship, and key outcomes. The findings linked ESC and executive coaching to having a significant impact on work engagement, performance, and CWB.

Forsyth et al. (2020) asserted that influential organizations should focus more on EI and social skills to increase competencies that can benefit their performance, improvement, and growth. The authors used the DISCflex to periodically evaluate a leader's behavioral tendencies. This leadership assessment tool gives the leader an understanding of their EI competencies and how their natural behavioral patterns influence behaviors. The report generated by DISCflex makes leaders aware of their weaknesses and helps them develop competencies that improve their ability to manage emotional situations. Mahmood et al. (2019) found that career development is significant to both individual and organizational growth and the achievement of performance goals. Employees who embrace career development are encouraged to start with a positive career attitude, which improves work performance. This strategy is individual-focused. Career development enhances both individual and organizational performance by affording employees training opportunities. Career development allows the employee to build a career path offering upward mobility.

Chapter 1 will include the overall rationale and background for this comprehensive study. The introduction will be noted, as well as the problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions, hypotheses, theoretical foundation, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, limitations, and the significance of the study.

Background of the Study

There are many social exchanges in the relationship between the leader and follower, and EI can help the leader drive the other person's emotions positively or negatively. Emotional intelligent leaders can help themselves and others recover from emotional distress. Emotional distress has been a source of deficient performance and CWB (Mfikwe & Pelser, 2017). According to Brou (2022), a leader's emotions can be viewed as vulnerabilities. Many leaders suppress their feelings by not openly expressing them in the work environment. The suppression of one's feelings can lead to miscommunicating signs of emotional disconnect, mistrust, or non-transparency. In contrast, Moon (2021) found that emotionally intelligent leaders found strength through showing vulnerability and authenticity as a leader.

Miao et al. (2018) discussed the need to understand the personality characteristics contributing to a leader's effectiveness in different cultures. A leader's EI competencies and characteristics or traits contribute to the emergence of their leadership style, influencing their effectiveness and predictability in the workplace. A leader's EI can effectively predict employee task performance and citizenship behavior. EI can significantly complement a person's leadership style and management development. The influence of EI competencies training on an employee's CWB is relevantly unknown but a critical topic in today's work environment.

Problem Statement

The problem in this quantitative study was that CWB and dysfunctional workplace attitudes are costly to many organizations costing billions of dollars annually

and leading to widespread low morale, employee turnover, health, and well-being problems among employees (Aydin & Tastan, 2019). Leaders with high competence levels of EI may be able to better discern and manage their emotions and those of their workers to mitigate CWB. CWBs in employees are problematic for organizations trying to keep a competitive advantage (Yadav & Rai, 2020). According to Kundi and Badar (2021), 84% of employees experience social conflict with a coworker, and approximately 50% have had weekly conflicts for over two years. Counterproductive workplace behaviors negatively affect the employees' attitudes, health, well-being, work performance, and nonwork life relationships. Dirican and Erdil (2020) noted there are limited studies concerning the effects of EI on positive and negative discretionary behaviors. Although researchers have investigated the topic, we do not know the relationship between CWB and EI versus employee performance. There is a gap in the literature with limited knowledge examining the relationship between CWB and the EI among leaders in corrections. Researchers have recommended future studies to differentiate the influence among the components of EI and the relationship to CWB (Yadav & Rai, 2020).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB and the independent variables of EI, age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in corrections. According to Regus, an agency that provides a global workforce in the most recent economic downturn, many employees reported work-related stress and burnout. Of their

workforce, 71% experienced stress-related illness due to financial struggles. With the high demand of having to do more with less, employees may be on the edge of burnout, which also contributes to CWB. A leader's emotions can significantly affect CWBs. Changes like a new work assignment, unrealistic deadlines, and political pressures can place high demands and increase employees' stress levels in the marketplace (Yadav & Rai, 2020). These exchanges will cause leaders and followers to experience multiple emotions. The competencies of an emotionally intelligent leader may allow them to recognize their own emotions and those of others to effectively manage workplace situations. Further, the emotional intelligent leader may be better able to repress their feelings and provide support to others. The repressing and managing of their emotions can cause a state of emotional labor (Gómez-Leal et al., 2022).

Research Questions and Hypothesis

Many modern organizations have started to embrace the leader's EI as a fundamental skill in the management process. The dependent variable of CWB may be affected by the independent variables of EI and other characteristics such as age, gender, education, and veteran status. The use of EI not only focuses on the leader's values but is receptive to their followers' emotions. Researchers have linked resonant, servant, and transformational leadership styles to better workplace labor relationships and positive collective energy. The leadership styles complemented with EI training can result in better performance and mitigate CWB (Makkar & Baesu, 2018). The research question (s) that guided the study are as follows:

RQ1. What is the relationship between CWB measured by the Spector and Fox (2006) CWB Checklist (CWB-C) and EI measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections?

H01: There is no significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and EI as measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections.

H1. There is a significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and EI as measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections.

RQ2. What is the relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections?

H02: There is no significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections.

H2. There is a significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status of leaders in Corrections.

Theoretical Foundation

This study's theoretical framework includes Goleman's (1995) theory of EI, which first gained popularity in his book *EI: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, in which he linked EI to prosocial behaviors. Goleman's (1998) EI theoretical framework focused

on a person's Emotional Quotient (EQ), known as the skill set of competencies utilized to manage an individual's feelings towards performance and work. Mayer and Salovey (2004) described the key components of a leader's ability to consistently demonstrate and maintain influence toward their follower as EI. Goleman's (1995) theories expanded on Mayer and Salovey's (1990) prior work, which grounds this study. Mayer and Salovey (2004) defined *EI* as a person's ability to perceive, appraise, and express emotions; the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (p.10). In the simplest terms, emotionally competent personnel can regulate their emotions consistently. This framework aligned EI between an emotional and cognitive system, a fundamental component of personality. Spector and Fox (2006) defined *CWB)* as behavior that damages the organization or other members, which includes all actions done to harm. These actions included, but were not limited to, avoiding work, incorrect task performance, physical aggression, verbal hostility, sabotage, and theft.

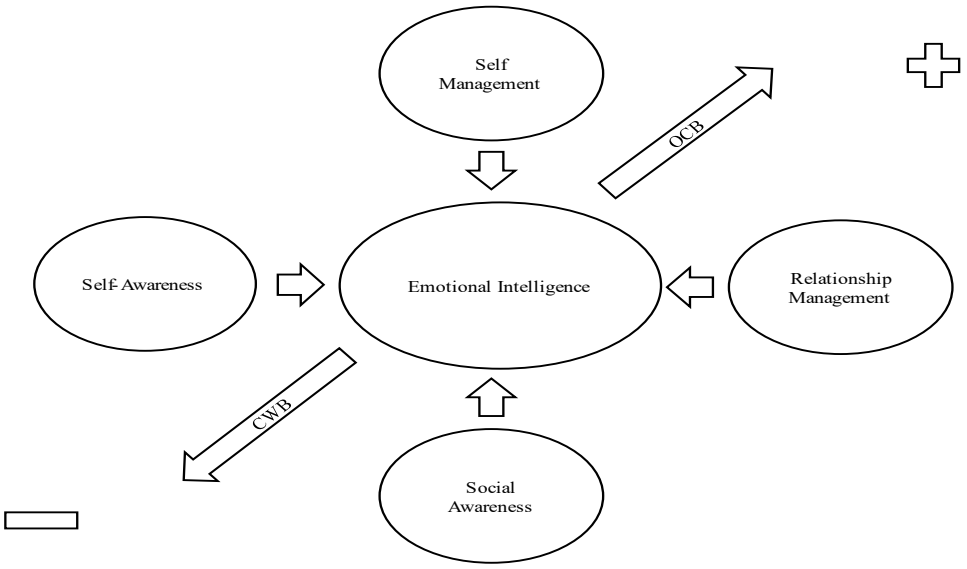
In addition, the emotional contagion theory examined a leader's influence on a subordinate's employees' behavior. Emotional contagion transfers an individual's emotions to others without awareness (Karamer et al., 2014). Past literature found evidence that a leader's behavior could shape their employee's performance (Jia & Cheng, 2021). The logical connections between the framework and the nature of the study include Goleman's (1995) theories, which expanded on the prior work of Mayer and Salovey (1990). Mayer et al.'s (2016) model highlighted the four-branched ability of

essential skills: perceiving and using emotions to facilitate thinking and thoughts, understanding emotions, using that information to enhance performance, and relationships by managing emotions to promote professional and personal goals.

Due to a global and diverse workforce, understanding the use of EI, among other competencies, is becoming necessary to understand the complex work environment. EI allows individuals to analyze their environment and make the best decisions, thus leading to better performance (Sanchez-Gomez & Breso, 2020). Goleman's (1998) EI theory asserted that a person's Emotional Quotient (EQ) can help manage individuals in the workforce. Goleman pinned the components of EI as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. As displayed in Figure 1, the theoretical framework indicates the higher the EI competencies in the four domains, the more likely a person would be to engage in good organizational citizenship behavior and less likely to engage in CWB or misconduct. There will be more details in Chapter 2.

Figure 1

Theoretical Framework Model



Nature of the Study

This study used a quantitative correlational design, which included multiple linear regression, to examine the relationship between CWB and EI, age, gender, education, and veteran status. A regression is a linear prediction model that uses one or more independent variables to predict a dependent variable's values. Multiple regression builds on bivariate regression by adding more predictor variations to the equations. Multiple regression estimates how several independent variables affect one dependent variable; similarly, correlation measures the association between the variables (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2020**)**.

The targeted population included correctional professionals in multiple states and federal facilities. There were 55 participants needed for the study as determined by the G-

Power test. The correctional professionals must have had a minimum of 24 months of service. For purposes of the study, a leader is a member or former management member at the GS-9 level or equivalent, excluded from the bargaining unit, and must have supervised at least one subordinate employee. The primary data were collected by having the participants complete a demographic workplace questionnaire, the Wong and Law (2002), EI Scale (WLEIS), and the Spector and Fox (2006) CWB-C.

The Wong and Law Emotional (2002) Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) measures the appraisal and expression of the emotion of oneself, the appraisal and recognition of emotion of others, the regulation of emotion in oneself, and the use of emotion in facilitating performance. The CWB-C by Spector and Fox (2006) was used to measure various CWBs towards organizational goals. The demographic workplace questionnaire captured the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status. The data were de-identified, and only numbers identified the participants. I analyzed the data using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). A correlation and regression analysis examined the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB and the independent variable of EI, age, gender, education, and veteran status.

Definitions

Ability-Based EI: The champions of the ability-based concept defined EI as a set of cognitive abilities used to regulate and process emotional information (Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 2016).

Counterproductive Work Behavior: Fox and Spector (2006) defined CWB as any intentional employee behavior that negatively impacts the organization and its members.

It is considered employee behavior that does not align with the organization's goals (Raman et al., 2016).

Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist: The CWB Checklist (CWB-C) by Spector and Fox (2006) is a self-reporting tool used to measure various negative work behaviors that are not beneficial to the organization's goals. The CWB-C used in the research was comprised of 45 items describing behavioral reactions and the frequency of such behaviors.

Emotional Intelligence: The definition of EI is the ability to identify and manage one's emotions and the emotions of others. Wong and Law (2002) defined EI as a set of closely related abilities possessed by an individual to appraise and express the emotion of oneself and others to facilitate performance.

Emotional Labor: The definition of emotional labor is used to describe the efforts needed to manage the way a person expresses their feelings (Bracket, 2019).

Mixed Model Perspective: The mixed model definition does not discriminate between EI and the broader concept of social intelligence but views them as one Emotional-Social Intelligence concept (Bar-on, 2006).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Discretionary work behavior are those behaviors that facilitate effective operations within the organization. These behaviors are not required and are not typically rewarded (Shang et al., 2021).

Organizational Climate: The feel of the workplace or work environment is the climate. Climate is a set of assessable properties of the workplace. The workforce either

directly or indirectly recognizes these properties but influences their behavior (Maamanri & Majdalani, 2017).

Wong and Law EI Scale (WLEIS): This is a four-dimensional scale used to assess four concepts of the components of EI such as self-emotion appraisal, the emotional appraisal of others, the use of emotions, and the regulation of emotions (Wong & Law, 2002).

Work-Related EI: An EI measure for the workplace that uses scenarios that highlight emotional events and processes (Robinson et al., 2019).

Veteran: A person who has served on active duty in any branch of the United States Military and has been discharged or released from active duty (Parker et al., 2019).

Assumptions

The proposed study made three assumptions. First, I assumed that all participants will be candid in their responses to the Demographic Workplace Questionnaire, the WLEIS and the CWB-C. According to Patten (2001), when researchers use anonymous questionnaires, participants tend to give politically correct answers to questions. As analyzing EI competencies and responses to the demographic worksheet is the foundation for the study, a lack of candor can skew the research. Secondly, there is the assumption that the participants have met the criterion. To participate in the study, a leader was required to have a minimum of 24 months of experience. The leader's level of supervision must be equivalent to the GS-9 level or above, excluded from the bargaining unit, and must have supervised at least one subordinate employee. Third, I was a former senior executive in corrections and may have introduced EI and served in many of the

participant's chain of command. There were numerous participants that were familiar with the researcher. As a research instrument, I must be careful to recognize and not allow any bias in soliciting participants and interpreting the data.

Scope and Delimitations

The quantitative method with a correlational design was the appropriate choice to examine the relationship between CWB and EI, age, gender, education, and veteran status. The study's theoretical framework was logically based on Goleman's (1995) work, which expanded the theories of Mayer and Salovey's (1990) work by focusing on a person's emotional quotient (EQ; a person's skill set of competencies utilized to manage the emotions of themselves and others towards performance and work). There is a significant amount of literature concerning the relationship between leadership and the effects of EI on employee performance. However, Dirican and Erdil (2020) noted there are limited studies concerning the effects of EI on positive and negative discretionary behaviors or CWB. The limited studies have created a gap in the literature on the effects of EI competencies on a leader's CWB.

I utilized the Wong and Law EI Scale to measure each participant's EI. The participants' CWB will be measured by Spector's CWB-C. The control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status will be extracted from the demographic workplace questionnaire. The data were uploaded to the Statistical Package for Social Science, which will allow the researcher to conduct a multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB and the independent variables of EI, age, gender, education, and veteran status. The convenience sampling technique was used

to offer the most inclusive access to those leaders in corrections. According to Lee-Jen et. al. (2014), when conducting a quantitative study, the larger the sample size, the more statistical power is produced.

The targeted population was 75 current and former correctional professionals across the United States. The tentative selection of the population sample of leaders in corrections, which in some cases, are considered law enforcement officials, was chosen because of the limited research in this highly stressful and scrutinized profession. According to Pletzer et al. (2020), CWB is commonly used interchangeably with workplace deviance, which violates a set of organizational goals costing billions of dollars in litigation, lost production, and can threaten the well-being of the employee, organization, and individuals they are sworn to protect. The goal of the researcher is to achieve data triangulation using the WLEIS, CWB-C, and demographic workplace questionnaire. Burkholder et al. (2016) asserted that triangulation can assist in validating and improving the trustworthiness of the data used in the research. Triangulation is when the researcher uses more the one source to verify the basis of the research. Triangulation implies three, but it could also mean multiple. The proposed research topic may be able to assist organizations in developing training curriculum to help mitigate CWB, improve performance, and increase employee's mental and physical well-being.

Limitations

There were several potential limitations, including the site selection and access to the data. The department of Justice Federal Bureau of Prisons (BOP) has a formal process, and a department called the Office of Research and Evaluation (ORE), which

has a representative on the BOP's Institution Review Board (IRB) for approval of research. The recruitment of participants inside the BOP was a barrier. The BOP will not give civilians or former employees access to the local area network or provide email addresses of potential participants. Currently, this component of the Department of Justice is under scrutiny concerning what the media and members of Congress have called a failure to deal with the Covid-19 Pandemic, staffing shortages, and employee misconduct or CWB. The negative media pressure could be an untimely barrier to getting research granted on this topic. With scrutiny of the leadership and top government officials, participants' responses may not be totally accurate and politically driven.

Another barrier could be the American Federation of Government Employees (AFGE), which is the Union that represents members of the bargaining unit. The AFGE Labor Union is the exclusive representative of all non-bargaining or non-management employees. The AFGE Labor Union will have to review the survey before deployment. When deploying anonymous questionaries, participants tend to give politically correct answers to questions. There is no way to know if the participant will be candid. Therefore, surveys could be self-biased (Patten, 2001). To address the barriers, I contacted former subordinate employees in leadership positions within the organization and gain support for the study. The participants will be limited to management officials to minimize the potential barrier of the AFGE. The informed consent and the completion of the workplace survey will allow the applicants to self-report much of the needed information in the organization's database.

The secondary site selection was the social media platform of LinkedIn, a professional network where current and retired correctional professionals meet. With these individuals being on a public platform the state or federal government bureaucratic regulations are not applicable. The researcher will be able to access these potential participants through a developed professional network. The researcher invited potential applicants to participate in the study through a professional network within LinkedIn. I solicited volunteer participation in the study by posting an informational flyer informing them of the details of this study and providing them with a link to SurveyMonkey, which will administer the anonymous questionnaire that included a workplace demographic questionnaire, the WLEIS, and the CWB Checklist (CBW-C). Lastly, my own potential bias was not a limitation; however, I worked for the Bureau of Prisons as a Senior Executive Staff member for 28 years and as the former Deputy Assistant Director of Human Resource Management, assisting with introducing and implementing EI Training in the Federal Bureau of Prisons in 2008.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant because EI can help provide individuals with resilience and manage destructive emotions, improve relationships in the workplace, self-efficacy, optimism, and job satisfaction (Goleman, 2012; Joseph, 2015). Work-Related EI is an EI measure for the workplace using workplace scenarios that highlight emotional events and processes (Robinson et al., 2019). CWB is employee behavior that does not align with the organization's goals (Raman et al., 2016). The lack of EI training can negatively impact organizations' deficient performance and CWB. Villanueva (2020) states that a person's

well-being is a cognitive function. The well-being of a person can reflect their evaluation of life's OWB and CWB, which can be an indicator of the well-being of a person. EI is the ability to identify and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others to achieve positive results (Jewett, 2018). Social intelligence is a person's ability to discern other emotions and feelings to communicate effectively (Goleman, n.d.). Top-level executives have realized the significance of recruiting and developing emotional and social intelligence for employees to gain and maintain a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Forsyth et al., 2020). EI training will also carry over into the personal lives of those accruing the training, helping them make a positive social change in their work environment and personal relationships.

Significance to Theory

This study examined the relationship between counterproductive workplace behaviors and EI competencies, which adds to the limited research in the area. Organizations have begun to understand the importance of developing employees' emotional and social intelligence. This knowledge can improve individual and organizational performance and mitigate CWB (Forsyth et al. 2020). Stress management programs can be developed and implemented to increase wellness and EI competencies that positively affect the employee's physical health and ability to manage stress. Workplace stress has contributed to sleep deprivation or lack of sleep, obesity, and other physical health conditions. Individuals with high levels of EI are known to have a positive outlook on life and well-being. (Jain, 2018).

Significance to Practice

The study had a significant implication for reducing employee stress and CWBs, including misconduct, and promoting positive organizational citizenship behavior. Human Resource Development areas could host training to improve abilities in the components of EI and social skills such as empathy, stress management, and communication. EI competency training can help an organization build a healthy work environment by increasing helping behavior and reducing harmful behavior (Dirican and Erdil, 2020). Organizations that use emotional and social intelligence build a positive work environment that promotes trust with their employees (Forsyth et al., 2020). Leaders must be continuously aware of their emotions. This continuous awareness can mitigate the possibility of using the dark side of EI to manipulate others. Being able to master the use of EI has been linked to increased job satisfaction, employee retention, and the overall creation of a better work environment.

Significance of Social Change

The social skills competency of EI can also help individuals make positive social changes in their personal lives and in the community. EI training will also carry over into the personal lives of those accruing the training, helping them make a positive social change in their work environment and personal relationships. Positive social change is a sense of obligation to our society. We explore the past and present to help develop social skills by focusing on improving human and social conditions. When we expand our knowledge to advance our communities, improve our organizations, and understand and

create culture, we can create positive social change to benefit society and understand humankind.

Summary and Transition

The cornerstones and evolution of EI laid the foundations and the influence of EI in the workplace. EI was defined but without unity, which created different schools of thought; this is the ability-based model or the inclusion of character traits that became known as the mixed model. The leader's EI competencies may impact the leader's CWB, organizational climate (OC), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Earlier studies have linked EI competencies and performance. EI, self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills were defined. Before introducing EI into the Bureau of Prisons, I am reminded of a former Senior Executive that referenced the soft skills needed in corrections. The Bureau of Prison's management has not been able to easily define and develop these soft skills in the context of a correctional environment. Leaders with higher levels of EI may be better prepared to deal with emotional distress in the workplace, leading to a positive work environment and performance (Dixit & Singh, 2019; Goleman, 1995; Kundi et al., 2021; Loi et al., 2021; Makkar & Basu, 2018; Mayer et. al., 2016; Sanchez-Gomez & Breso, 2020).

Behaviors in the workplace are contagious, and moods, emotions, performance, and conduct can influence others by either good modeling of OCB or a bad example of CWB. In the workplace, a leader's negative behavior is more likely to cascade throughout the organization than their charismatic leadership style. A toxic leader is characterized by abusive, authoritarian, narcissistic, unpredictable, and self-promoting

behaviors. These leaders have a destructive impact on organizational performance (Al Zaabi et al., 2018). Organizations can develop the employee's EI competencies. Goleman's (2002) definition of EI encompassed four components: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Cherry (2021) noted that the concept of managing emotions gained popularity as the organization began developing its employees' leadership skills.

This study examined the relationship between CWB and EI, age, gender, education, and veteran's status. Chapter 2 will include details of EI from a biblical perspective, an outline of the literature review search strategy, and an exploration of the theoretical framework outlining a more descriptive section on Goleman (1995), Mayer and Salovey (1990), and Caruso's (2016) ability-based and mixed models of EI, CWB, and emotional contagion in the workplace. The literature review will include recent literature surrounding discretionary workplace behaviors and EI. This chapter will also include research on an employee's discretionary work behavior, which either forms positive organizational citizenship behavior or negative CWB. Further, I will define EI and its constructs. The chapter will include the models of EI and the instruments considered for measuring the studies participant's EI. Lastly, the literature review will include information regarding the Contagion Theory and the development of EI competencies.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In this study, I examined the relationship between EI and counterproductive behavior among leaders in corrections. The research topic I chose explored correctional leaders who are considered law enforcement in the Federal Government (i.e., leaders in corrections). CWBs in employees are problematic for organizations trying to keep a competitive advantage (Yadav & Rai, 2020). The problem is that a leader's emotions can significantly affect CWBs. Work environment changes like a new work assignment, unrealistic deadlines, and political pressures can place high demands and increase employees' stress levels in corrections. CWB and dysfunctional workplace attitudes are costly to many organizations costing billions of dollars annually and leading to widespread low morale, employee turnover, health and well-being problems among employees, and litigation (Aydin & Tastan, 2019).

With the high demand of having to do more with less, employees may be on the edge of burnout, which also contributes to CWBs (Yadav & Rai, 2020). According to Arief and Anom (2022), there is a relationship between stress, trait EI and CWB. The presence of stress in the workplace has long been a cause of CWB. Employees with the characteristics of trait EI can help mitigate CWB and create a positive less stressful social interaction. Organizations can use the information from this study to implement recruitment strategies and developmental training to create a positive work environment. The implication for positive social change may be the development of increased EI will

help reduce stress, improve physical and mental wellness, improve personal and professional relationships, and mitigate CWB in the workplace.

The use of EI is biblical. Scripture found (John 8:1-11) in the Bible, one of the oldest known books, tells the well-known story of Jesus presenting to the teachers of the religious Law. The Pharisees caught a woman in the act of adultery. The Pharisees placed her in front of the crowd to be judged and stoned to death for her sins, quoting the Law of Moses as justification. Then they asked Jesus, what say you? Using today's vernacular, the Pharisees were engaging in counterproductive behavior designed to trap Jesus into saying something against the Law. The Pharisees demanded that he answer. Jesus began to write something in the sand, and the Pharisees continued to demand that he answer the question. Finally, Jesus stood up from his writing and said, "But let he who is without sin cast the first stone." He then calmly returned to his writing in the sand. The story goes on to say that the Pharisees and others dropped their stones and left one by one until no one was left. In this biblical story, Jesus demonstrated several EI competencies such as self-awareness, self-regulation, and empathy to influence organization citizenship and mitigate CWB (*King James Bible,* 1769/2017, John 8:1-11).

EI Cornerstones

Many of our greatest thinkers, such as Aristotle (ca. 360 BC) and Plato (ca. 360 BC), have tried to define intelligence and the effects of emotions on others. In the 1920s, Charles Darwin was the first to notice another type of intelligence, and coined the term social intelligence, but Thorndike was the first to define the term (Maarmari & Majdalani, 2017; Al Ghazo et al., 2019). Theorists like Howard Gardner (1983), Mayer

and Salovey (1995), and Goleman (1998) expanded the cornerstones of EI. Gardner (1983) embraced the theory of multiple intelligences divided into two categories: interpersonal and intrapersonal, noting that a person's interpersonal ability allows individuals to work well with others, while the intrapersonal ability allows a person to identify and respond to feelings within themselves. Mayer and Salovey (1995) suggested an intersection of two personality components of EI, the cognitive and the emotional system. The topic of EI gained popularity when Goleman (1995) expanded the work of Mayer and Salovey (1990) by focusing on a person's emotional quotient (EQ)

This chapter includes an examination of peer-reviewed literature and the constructs of EI to be used in the study. The section includes a general overview of EI, the two models of EI, and offer a hypothesis of the potential influence of EI competencies on organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive workplace behavior. The chapter concludes with the development of workplace EI and competencies.

Literature Search Strategy

The search strategy for the literature review included peer-reviewed, empirical articles, books, and journals. The articles were accessed through the online databases ProQuest, Business Sources Complete, PsycArticles, PsycINFO, Business Source Complete, and Google Scholar. The keyword search used the following: l*eader, EI, competencies, organizational citizenship behavior, CWB, deviant work behavior, conduct, misconduct, corrections,* and *government*. The literature review examined references and data sources from 2017 to 2022, or 5 years, and contains limited seminal work conducted 30 years or more. I considered numerous methods in conducting this

literature review to include empirical, meta-analysis, and narrative. To tell a short story, I chose the narrative method, which will allow the reader to gain more than one perspective on some topics.

Theoretical Foundation

In this study, I employed the framework of the EI Theory for the theorists of the 1900s, theorists such as Howard Gardner (1983), Mayer and Salovey (1995), and Goleman (1998) studied EI. Theorists like Charles Darwin in the 1920s was the first to notice that there was another type of intelligence, and coined what is known as social intelligence. However, it was Thorndike who first defined the term social intelligence (Maarmari, B.E., & Majdalani J. F., 2017). At first, the concept of EI did not garner support as an accepted phenomenon. It was not until Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligence that embraced the theory of multiple intelligence being made up of interpersonal and intrapersonal categories that the new concept was accepted. A person's interpersonal ability allows individuals to work well with others, while the intrapersonal ability allows a person to identify and respond to feelings within themselves. According to Mayer and Salovey (1995) there was an intersection of two personality components of EI, the cognitive and the emotional system. EI was defined as the ability to process emotional data efficiently and consistently, including regulating emotions within oneself and others. The intelligence standards apply to the use of cognitive performance and emotional reactions. According to Wood (2020) EI is an ability with a criterion applied to solving problems which leads to the question of which EI competency is more effective?

The logical connection between the framework and the nature of the study includes Goleman's (1995) work that expanded the theories of Mayer and Salovey (1990) by focusing on a person's emotional quotient (EQ) and gained even more popularity for the new phenomenon of EI. Mayer et al.'s (2016) model, which included the four-branched ability of essential skills of EI: perceiving and using emotions to facilitate thinking and thoughts; understanding emotions; using that information to enhance performance; and relationships by managing emotions to promote professional and personal goals. Goleman's (1998) EI (EI) theory asserted that a person's Emotional Quotient (EQ) can assist management of individuals in the workforce. Goleman pinned the components of EI as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. EI, among other competencies, is becoming necessary to understand and thrive within the work environment, as it allows individuals to analyze their environment and make the best decisions, thus leading to better performance (Sanchez-Gomez & Breso, 2020).

Literature Review

There are many social exchanges, and EI can assist the leader and drive a person's emotions into a better or worse state. The concept of leaders using EI to influence their followers' behaviors has been recorded as early as the fourth century BC with great philosophers like Plato, Aristotle, and Jesus. These philosophers, and Jesus in the form of man, helped society shape a large part of the world's view on emotions and reason (Zhang, 2016). Emotionally intelligent leaders can help themselves and others recover

from emotional distress. Emotional distress often leads to poor performance and misconduct (Mfikwe & Pelser, 2017).

Discretionary Work Behavior, Leadership Style, and EI

Influential leaders must be able to empathize with their followers. Without this ability, a leader will respond without EI and may use the wrong tone in their voice, creating a negative interaction (Gandolfi et al., 2017). Workplace interactions are relational environments that will cause positive and negative work behaviors. Discretionary work behaviors will form organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) or CWB. OCB is the positive actions of an employee that contribute to the organization's effectiveness. In contrast, CWB is the negative actions of an employee meant to cause harm to another individual or the organization. The leader's EI can significantly contribute to how these discretionary work behaviors play out in the workplace (Dirican & Erdil, 2020).

Goleman (1998) asserted that interpersonal skills are essential to effective leadership. Maarmari and Maidalani (2017) noted that for an organization to remain competitive and be self-sustaining, the company must hire, retain, and develop leaders with EI traits. Leaders with EI can be better prepared to manage themselves and their subordinate employees and create a positive work environment. Transformational leaders' characteristics are known for being enthusiastic and confident (Jensen et al., 2019b). Further, communication skills are a leader's most vital attribute. This skill is used to communicate their vision and the direction of the organization. This charismatic leadership style can influence people (Gandolfi et al., 2017). According to Jensen et. al.

(2019b), there are three successful aspects of a transformational leader's style: (a) the transformational leader is a visionary who develops the organizations goals, (b) is masterful in telling the story, and (c) intentional in their efforts to sustain a long-term shared vision. The research question examined the influence of organizational factors and individual characteristics on the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. This research suggested that the impact of transformational leadership can be stronger or weaker depending on the subordinate's characteristics.

Hussein and Yesiltas's (2020) used transformational leadership as a mediator to evaluate the relationship between the variable's EI, CWB, and organizational commitment. In contrast Zakaria et. al. (2020) noted in their study that transformational leadership was not significant concerning the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

In Hussein and Yeliltas (2020) study, the authors used the Trait Meta Mood Scale for measuring EI; the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to measure transformational leadership. A conglomerate of modified scales measured CWB and a workplace questionnaire to measure organizational commitment. All of the measures were self-reported by the participants. The researcher evaluated the construct validity by using a factor loading analysis. The factor measured well above the minimum threshold of 0.5. Cronbach's Alpha was more significant than the 0.7 threshold requirement to validate the data. The findings showed that transformational leadership had a positive effect on the reduction of CWB. As the units of measurement increased in transformational leadership,

there was an increase in organizational commitment and a reduction in CWB among the participants.

Abelha da Costa and Cavazotte (2018) ascertained that transformational leadership allowed individuals to inspire their followers by utilizing effective communication that encourages commitment, trust, and job satisfaction. Executive leadership have noticed that the right leadership style is critical for organizational performance. The author noted that transformational leaders have a more substantial influence on employees' attitudes and behavior. The author examined the influence of organizational factors and individual characteristics on the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The study confirmed transformational leaders' positive effects on employee job satisfaction. The authors also recommended further research on the relationship between transformational leadership, individual characteristics, and effectiveness. Gandolfi et. al. (2017) also highlighted how the resonant leader creates a favorable working climate where trust, mutual respect, friendship, and where support takes priority. A resonant leader can empathize with the group's emotions. Leadership styles focus on group interaction and individually deal with the team member's needs. Alshammari,et al. (2020) and Ding and Yu (2021) found in their studies that leaders with higher EI have greater competencies in communication and use initiative-taking and authentic leadership styles. The transformational leader's characteristics are reflected in the findings.

Turk and Wolfe (2019) used the triangulation data method by using Goleman's (1998) Four Quadrant Model of EI, Reivich and Shatt's (2002) seven abilities of

resilience, and Boyatzis and Mckee's (2005) concepts of resonant leadership to triangulate the data needed for their study to examine the relationship between resonant leadership, EI, and resilience in school principals. Boyatzis and Mckee (2005) noted that resonant leaders are known for being individuals who manage their own emotions and those of others to succeed. Turk and Wolfe (2019) found that principals who displayed EI skills, abilities of resilience, and resonant leadership employed the skills of self-awareness, awareness of others, compassion, empathy, and other skills needed to initiate, utilize, and sustain resonant leadership. Those school principals showing a lower level of EI displayed a low percentage of hope, optimism, and empathy. The study concluded by noting that there was an increasing demand for school administrators to develop their EI skills. These skills have become increasingly important to acquire in the recruitment phase and maintain as continuing education. The author noted that developing training to support and maintain professional relationships must be offered in the workplace.

When directing subordinates at the initial stage of the decision-making process, the leadership style is critical in delivering all the factual information. Miao et al., (2021) described servant leadership as a leader with characteristics who put the needs of the follower and stakeholders ahead of their needs. A servant leader is a good steward of the organization and the resources. The characteristics of a Servant Leader are listening, empathy, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to people's growth, and community-building. This leadership style serves others and places others' needs above their own (Gandolfi et al., 2017). Bank et al. (2018) asserted that authenticity and interpersonal relations are focal points of the servant leadership style.

Mayer et al. (2004) defined EI as a person's perceived emotions, use of emotions to facilitate, and understanding of emotions to support and manage themselves and others. Literature has linked EI and servant leadership with the notoriety associated with effective leadership (Banks et al., 2018).

Jensen et. al. (2019b) noted that the transactional leader motivates subordinates by rewarding high performance and reprimanding low performance. The leader uses sanctions to influence their followers to attain self-interest while obtaining organizational achievements. According to Moon (2021), because of their management style, their coercive decisions are met with employee resistance at a much higher rate than other leadership styles. The transactional leader's style proved to be more statistically biased and less creative with their employees. This leadership style is based on the coercion of rewarding the employees for high performance and can often lead to their loss of creativity and motivation. The leader experiences more mixed emotional exchanges of employees debating their case and attempting to influence their leader (Moon, 2021).

The spiritual intelligent leader has been defined as a vehicle to connect with the divine using compassion and wisdom gained through the practice of self-awareness. Intelligence with a desire to align personal growth with a higher purpose; thus, intelligence becomes spiritually guided and will strengthen the desire to connect and achieve (Watson et al., 2018). Widvanwati and Karwini (2019) asserted that spiritual intelligence can influence creative thinking by altering a rule combining intellectual and EI which facilitates analytical and constructive decision-making process. World-renowned author Stephen Covey (2005) elevated the significance of spiritual intelligence

for organizational leadership and individuals by making spiritual intelligence one of the eight disciplines in his book *The Eighth Habit by Stephen R. Covey* (Watson et al., 2018, Covey, 2005).

Spirituality in the workplace can be difficult to comprehend because words can mean different things to many people. Some people put God at the center of their spirituality. Other people focus on workplace spirituality which refers to finding the purpose and meaningfulness of their lives and relationship with others in the work environment (Singh et. al., 2022). Watson et al. (2018) examined the relationship between the spiritual intelligence of leaders and employee engagement. There appears to be a research gap in the literature exploring spiritual intelligence in leadership from the leader's perspective and how employees respond or engage. The research question was well-framed and examined the correlation between a leader's spiritual intelligence and employee engagement. The study had specific questions and hypotheses: Does spiritual intelligence in leaders correlate to employee engagement? Spiritual intelligence in leaders does not correlate to employee engagement. Spiritual intelligence in leaders does correlate to employee engagement. The author's research was well aligned, as indicated by the research questions and two hypotheses above. The participants in the study spanned over two organizations but within the same region. There were 80 potential participants, with 71 final participants. The participation rate for the study was considered a strength of the research, with an 89% response rate. The cultural definition of spiritual intelligence may have hampered the willingness of employees to engage in the topic of religion. The participant's willingness to engage was a significant limitation of the study.

The interview question concerning spiritual intelligence should have been disconnected from religion and viewed more as an inspirational way to motivate employee engagement. The study's results revealed no significant relationship between a leader's spiritual intelligence and employee engagement (Watson et al. 2018).

Flynn (2021) asserted that the laissez-fair leadership style delegates control of the work environment to their followers. The Leader is emotionally detached and uninvolved with their followers. Laissez-fair is a type of leadership where group members make all decisions and are responsible for the goals of their division. This type of leadership style does not work in all environments. Laissez-fair has proven effective in areas where the employees are highly trained and self-directed, such as science laboratories. In contrast, Agotnes et. al. (2021) noted that research have described the laissez-faire style as a leader's careless approach characterized by the hands-off or lack of leadership when needed.

The research of Ahmed Zakaria et al. (2020) focused on the impact of leadership on organizational citizenship behavior and the moderation role of EI. Leadership styles affect the performance and conduct of the person, followers, and the organization. For companies to survive in a competitive global market, employees must go beyond basic job requirements. The article defined *organizational citizenship behavior* as an employee's discretionary behavior. The employee's behavior, in this case, is not rewarded, but goes above and beyond the call of duty. Other studies have linked employees' OCB to the emotional contagion theory. The contagion theory hypothesizes that one employee can transfer the behavior to another (Li et al., 2019).

A person's leadership style and ability can build relationships and promote employees' engagement above and beyond their voluntary work behaviors. The author investigated the influence of leadership styles such as democratic, autocratic, and transformational leadership on an employee's organizational citizenship behavior (Ahmed Zakaria et al.,2020). The author used the Wong and Law (2002) EI assessment tool and found that the leader's EI was positively related to job satisfaction and employee engagement. The autocratic leadership style was not significant in showing a positive relationship to OCB, but when moderated by EI, the findings were significant.

Zakaria et. al. (2020) noted that autocratic leadership when moderated by EI promotes high employee performance, but only for the short term. Democratic leadership has a significant relationship with OCB. The democratic leadership style shared more of a relationship between the leader and subordinate which kept them more engaged. The findings revealed a significant correlation between the democratic leadership style and OCB without the moderating role of EI. In contrast, the transformational leadership styles have mixed reviews concerning the relationship between transformation leadership and OCB. The article was limited by the author only researching three leadership styles, but the influence of EI was significant across all leadership styles. The author acknowledged the limitation of failing to explore the relationship between EI and misconduct, which is CWB supporting the literature gap (Ahmed Zakaria et al., 2020).

Over the past five years, there has been increased studies concerning the effects of negative leaders on organizational performance (Park et al., 2020). Syabruddin et al. (2022) ascertained that leadership can significantly affect employees. A leader sets an

example for others to follow. This relational process can shape an organization depending on the level of leadership. In the Twenty-First Century, leadership will face the challenge of understanding and balancing new administrative policies and legal requirements. A leader's influence and negative behavior can deteriorate individual and organizational performance. Over the years, many terms have described a leader's destructive behavior, but toxic leadership best describes this dark side of leadership.

Syabruddin et al. (2022) investigated the effect of toxic leadership on CWB. Toxic leadership is the abusive, authoritarian, narcissistic, self-promotion, and unpredictable behaviors of individuals in positions of authority. The study collected data from 457 participants in various public organizations in Indonesia. Toxic leadership is more behavior inclusive than other destructive and dysfunctional leadership types. These behaviors can include abusiveness, inequity treatment of employees, and lack of integrity. Toxic leadership can cause negative effects on employees' mental health and performance. Dobbs and Do (2019) examine the relationship between toxic leadership and organizational cynicism in the U.S Military environment. The authors used seminal work in the literature review to synthesize their collection of work on toxic leadership. The research linked the variables of gender and race as a possible mediator affecting the follower response to the leadership style. Behery et. al. (2018) also examined the relationship between toxic leadership organizational citizenship but used the employee's commitment and trust as mediators. The quantitative correlational study used multiple regression to analyze data from the 660 respondents. In most cases, the toxic leaders are highly competent and effective but also create an unhealthy work environment. The

finding indicated a significant negative relationship between toxic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, the findings were also in line with other literature linking positive OCB to trust, commitment, and procedural justice and distributive justice or fairness.

Dodds and Do (2019) noted that cynicism is a key contributor to employee CWBs. The effect of a toxic leadership can slowly deteriorate the morale of their followers and stifle organizational effectiveness and fairness within the organization. Syahruddin et. al. (2022) found that the positive organizational citizenship effects of the charismatic leader is in contrast to the negative contagious behavior of the toxic leader's influence. CWB can be cascaded downward depending on the level and the effectiveness of the leader. In the study, the author examined the triggering effect of toxic leadership on CWB. The study's findings showed a correlation between toxic leadership and turnover intentions. The turnover intentions had a significant positive impact on CWB.

Jeong and Lee (2022) examined the relationship between customer mistreatment and organizational citizenship. The authors viewed customer mistreatment as the adverse treatment that employees received from customers. According to Balaji et al. (2020), 96 percent of employees felt mistreated by customers. The behavior included insulting and aggressive behavior by becoming irritated or impatient. In other cases, customer mistreatment may lead to CWB and a reduction in organizational citizenship behavior. Both of these behaviors are voluntary. Organizational citizenship behavior has led to employee creativity, increased performance, and productivity. As a result of customer

mistreatment, employees can suffer depression caused by low self-esteem (Yao et al., 2021).

Low self-esteem can trigger stressors. Stressors can occur due to a lack of resources and emotional recovery (Snyder et al., 2020). The article stressed the importance of recruiting and selecting employees who can deal with workplace interpersonal stressors. Goleman (2002) referred to a person's use of EI as their ability to overcome impulses and manage moods during frustrating times. In the author's study, there were 319 participants, with 44.5 percent women and 55.5 percent men. Over 73 percent of the respondents graduated from the university, with 27 percent having a lower level of education (Jeong, J. & Lee, J.H., 2022).

The researcher used the EI Scale Wong and Law (2002) to assess the respondence EI. These demographics and EI assessment tools were of great benefit to this study. The findings in the study revealed that customer mistreatment caused their organizational citizenship to decrease. There was also a positive correlation between customer mistreatment and depression. The depression was weaker in employees with higher levels of EI (Jeong, J. & Lee, J.H., 2022).

EI, CWB and Emotional Contagion

Shoaib and Baruch (2019) found that organizational employees' perception of the lack of organizational justice triggered deviant behavior. Organizational justice is a person's perception of procedural and distributive justice in the workplace. The employee's perception of the lack of fairness can translate into CWB. The terms *CWB, deviant work behavior,* and *unethical behavior* are often used interchangeably, but cannot

be limited to theft, cheating, or other misbehavior in the organization. Spector and Fox (2006) defined *CWB* as any intentional behavior that hurts or causes harm to a person or the organization.

According to Hopkins and Deepa (2018), the National Business Ethics Survey reported that CWB involved 60 percent of management employees. The majority of CWB involve ethical judgment and a decision-making process. Unethical decision-making leads to CWB and can harm an organization. The emotions of leaders plays a significant role in their ethical judgment and decision-making. There are many interactions in the workplace where leaders will need emotional and ethical qualities to guide their decision-making. Zhao et al. (2021) found that mental fatigue can cause stress linked to deviant work behavior. EI can assist in managing these internal feelings by finding constructive ways to reduce tension, deescalate workplace disputes, and provide empathy when support is needed.

Hopkins and Deepa's (2018) study investigated the possibility of a direct relationship between EI and ethical judgment. The participants were from two business schools in India and the United States. The demographics included 77 participants from the USA and 23 from India, accounting for a 50 percent participation rate. The participant's average age for the study was 25 years. The researcher used the Emotional Quotient Inventory (Multi-Health Systems, 2011) to assess the participant's EI. The multidimensional ethics scale (MES) assessed the participants' ethical judgment by having them respond to three brief ethical scenarios.

The author used gender and age as control variables in the study. The findings revealed a strong relationship between EI abilities and the relativism ethical perspective. EI and decision-making components were significantly related to the relativism ethical perspective.

Ismail and Rasheed (2019) also noted that a leader's ethical ideology and EI will influence their ethical judgment. The leader's moral compass can be directed by idealism and relativism. Idealism in the workplace can be described as the employees' concern and care for others. Relativism in the workplace can be described as to the degree a person rejects the norms and commonly known moral rules. Hopkins and Deepa (2018) noted the practical implication of their study was that organizations can shift their focus on developing training programs that will highlight the awareness of ethical judgment. These types of training programs can lead to ethical mitigation and accountability. The author also noted that there were limited studies on EI and ethics.

Makkar and Basu (2018) in their study stressed that factors such as workload are critical contributors to counterproductive workplace behavior in India's banking sector. The author defined *work-related stress* as the stress related to the workplace. The study mainly examined the moderating influence of stress related to the job. India's banking sector has been considered one of the more challenging work areas.

The participant's workplace behavior, job stress, and EI were measured. The research found a significant negative impact between EI and negative work behavior. Morales-Rodriquez and Perez-Marmol (2019) noted in their study that EI and stress can be mitigated through stress-coping techniques which improved an individual's well-

being. Makkar and Basu (2018) also concluded that a negative correlation existed between the EI variables, deviance in workplace behavior, EI, and job stress. These results meant that job stress and deviant workplace behavior decreased when a person's EI increased.

Arief and Anom (2022) found in their study that numerous stressful conditions in the workplace can trigger CWB. A person's attitude and the resilience in handling job stress can determine a positive or negative outcome. The person's characteristics, and personality traits will influence these outcomes in the workplace. The purpose of their study was to ascertain the effect of stress on CWB. In addition, the authors examined the effects of trait EI and person-organization fit on job stress and CWB. The author hypothesized and found that a person will be less stressed, if they perceive that they are a good organizational fit. The researcher analyzed the data from previous studies in the leading industry of Indonesia. The correlation showed a negative relationship between trait EI and job stress. Additionally, the correlation showed a negative relationship between a person's perceived organization fit and job stress. However, the study did not show a relationship between job stress and CWB (Arief and Anom, 2022). This was in contrast to Penny and Spector (2008) that found an employee's perception of organizational stressors can translate into negative emotional distress and trigger CWB.

Villanueva et al. (2022) found that a person's well-being is a cognitive function and reflects their evaluation of life organizational well-being (OWB) and CWB can be indicators of a person's well-being. The use of EI, perceived stress, and how a person feels about themselves is significant to a person's well-being which can affect their

organization's citizenship. Soomro et. al (2019) also noted the workplace conflicts can introduce stress to the work environment and trigger CWB. Villanueva et al. (2022) used a qualitative study and a hierarchical regression model to analyze comparative data. The study examined the contribution of traits EI, self-esteem, and perceived stress to an individual's well-being. The author's findings revealed that the higher the level of EI and self-esteem, the lower the stress level reported in the study. The study's findings linked trait EI, self-esteem, and perceived stress to predictors of well-being (Villanueva et al., 2022; Escamilla-Fajardo et al., 2020, Villanueva et al., 2019).

Kundi et al. (2021) highlighted the benefit of using EI to deescalate stressful workplace situations and mitigate CWB. This author's study revealed that EI can be a mediator between workplace conflict and the unregulated emotional turmoil which can lead to CWB. Researchers have linked interpersonal conflicts to causes of significant health conditions and well-being. These adverse effects can carry over into the employee's personal life. In contrast Yadav and Rai (2020) examined the impact of workplace stress and CWBs by using EI as a moderator. The article focused on the numerous psychological aspects of stress: negative emotions can lead to counterproductive workplace behaviors. The study defined *chronic stress* as a person's continuous exposure to stress, which is characterized by emotional vulnerability, negative emotions, hyperactivity, and tendencies to experience psychosomatic symptoms. The study used the Wong and Law (2002) WLEIS to measure the EI of the 350 participants. Yadav and Rai (2020) confirmed that the psychological effects of stress in the workplace are negative emotions that can trigger counterproductive workplace behavior. This article

focused on the moderating role of EI on stress in the workplace. The finding showed that the participants with higher EI displayed less work deviant behavior, which is CWB.

Meisler et. al. (2019) noted that the perception of organizational politics in the workplace can trigger CWBs such as burnout, job dissatisfaction, and turnover. An employee's perceptions can shape their harmful intention CWB. *CWB* was defined in this study as when a disgruntled employee attempts to intentionally harm others or the organization because of their perception of workplace politics. Raman et. al. (2016) defined *CWB* as any employee behavior that does not align with the organization's goals. Meisler et al. (2019) examined the relationship between the perception of organizational politics and CWB. The authors focused on hostility as a mediator in the relationship with age and gender as control variables. The author's hypothesis is that the higher a person's perception of workplace politics, the more likely they are to engage in individual CWB (I-CWB) and organization CWB (O-CWB). The authors also hypothesized that hostility positively mediates I-CWB and O-CWB. Hostility touches on a wide range of acts, including anger and antagonism. Hostility can lead to the employee's perception of being mistreated and receiving disproportionate compensation. The findings revealed that the higher a person's perception of workplace politics, the more likely they were to engage in both I-CWB and O-CWB. The mediation results were that hostility was positively associated with I-CWB and O-CWB. The study's implication allows employee development to implement training on intervening variables that can mitigate CWB (Meisler et al., 2019).

According to Dixit and Singh (2019) EI can be one of the most effective tools within a healthy organization. Using EI can strengthen relationships and trust and foster organizational commitment. Research has linked EI's influence on positive attitudes, promoting organizational citizenship, and mitigating CWB. The authors focused on three variables in the study. The first was EI. Goleman (1998) described EI as a significant skill for competent leaders. The second variable was CWB which is the intentional actions to cause harm to an employee or the organization's goals. CWB includes many work behaviors, from being late for work to stealing company property. The third variable is organizational citizenship which is employee behavior that goes above the routine daily task and assignments (Dixit & Singh, 2019)

Dixit and Singh (2019) explored the moderating influence of EI on organizational citizenship and CWB. The research collected data from 110 participants working in organizations in the northern region of India. The age and gender of the participants ranged from 25 to 40 years, including 59 males and 51 females. A scale designed by Dalip Singh collected EI. The Counterproductive Checklist by Spector (2009) measured the employee's CWB, and their organization's citizenship behavior was captured using a scale by Fox et al. (2006). The finding revealed a positive correlation between EI and organizational citizenship. The higher the employee's EI, the more likely they were to engage in organizational citizenship. The results also showed a negative correlation between EI and CWB. The lower the employee's EI, the more susceptible they were to engage in CWB. Dixit and Singh (2019) revealed that other factors such as stress, emotional exhaustion, and perceived fairness could trigger CWB.

Khosravi and Hassani (2022) explored the effect of EI on suicidal patients with borderline personality disorders (BDP). The ultimate CWB is suicide in the workplace. There has been an increase in health concerns dealing with borderline personality disorders. The suicide rate among diagnosed patients is up to 10 percent, 400 times that in our general population. The suicide rate among high-risk individuals and those patients with borderline personality disorders (BDP) has increased. According to Daros and Williams (2019) there have been numerous psychopathological studies to investigate how BDP individuals cope with their emotions, but little research has been done on the effects of EI on people with borderline personality disorders.

Mayer and Salovey's (2004) ability-based model defined EI as the individual's capacity to process emotional information to enhance cognitive activities. This EI ability-based model has four abilities perceiving, using, managing, and understanding emotions. Emotional dysregulation has long been a method advocated for people with BPD. Daros and Williams (2019) study analyzed information from 218 participants, with 109 having BDP and 109 healthy participants serving as a control group. The participants were subjected to clinician interviews and completed self-report measures of their suicidal behavior, self-esteem, depression, and other BDP symptoms. The findings of this study revealed that people with a higher level of EI were perceived to manage their emotions better than those with low EI. In support of the previous study Khosravi and Hassani (2022) found that participants with suicidal thoughts EI can directly or indirectly be related to suicidal prevention and help depressed patients in a therapeutic role. The

authors recommend conducting further studies concerning EI and poor mental health related to suicidal outcomes.

Li et. al. (2019) noted that emotional contagion is the transferring of one individual's emotions in the workplace to another. In the context of workplace behavior, the term emotions are used loosely, including a person's mood or how a person is feeling. Contagion can also transfer trait-like emotions, mimicking a person's general tendencies. The emotional contagion theory allows for two transfer pathways between employees' primitive emotional contagion and the conscious cognitive process. Primitive emotional contagion is a fast, automatic, continuous, and synchronous process of imitating and feedback. Conscious cognitive is a more deliberate process by which people come to know the feelings of individuals to gather information about how they should behave or even feel in some cases. Jia and Cheng (2021) also investigated and confirmed the supervisor and subordinates' relationship regarding the susceptibility to emotional contagion. This study also looked at the transfer of emotional contagion by non-verbal communication such as eye contact, facial expression, and body posture. Liu and Boyatzis (2021) asserted that because stressors can trigger CWB, we can infect others with our stress through emotional contagion.

Jia and Cheng (2021) found that a supervisor who displays higher nonverbal communication are more supportive of their subordinates. The supervisor and subornation relationship in the workplace is a leading source of unhealthy workplace emotions. The leader's behavior can influence their subordinates' task completion, job satisfaction, and perceived competency and credibility. The gender of an individual can

also affect how they receive nonverbal behavior and emotional response. Studies have linked the nurturing characteristic to women more than men. Therefore, researchers hypothesized that women may be more susceptible to emotional contagion because of their nurturing and attentive characteristics toward others. Li et al. (2019) also asserted that workplace CWB is contagious. The behavior may be intentional or unintentional because of various underlying causes and motivations. An organization or societal disregard for rules, goals, and values leads to CWB. This study defined *CWB* as the negative result of a complex interaction between a person and the environment. The individual's reasoning about the environment and expected outcomes drive the individual's behavior. Leaders with destructive behaviors can deteriorate the organization from within, affecting the employment relationship and the whole mechanism contributing to CWB.

In contrast, Jie and Cheng (2021) study adopted a research project that examined nonverbal immediacy, workplace emotions, and employee communication motives. In addition, 669 Midwest university participants took an online survey. The demographic of the study includes 213 males, 377 females, and seventy-nine who did not select biological sex. The participants' professions ranged from officials or managers, professionals, technicians, sales workers, and administrative support staff. The findings revealed that non-verbal communication such as eye contact or facial expression and posture were the primary sources that improved emotional support perception. Therefore, a supervisor with positive non-verbal expression could reduce the emotional work and make their subordinates feel less tense in the workplace. The authors also found that

facial mimicry, an unintentional imitation of behavior, can be a social contagion for employees to share many other emotions or behaviors. Lastly, in the areas of the effects of gender, the study found that females' use of non-verbal gestures was more effective in improving the emotional subordinate's situation than their male counterparts. In the simplest terms, the study revealed that facial and body expressions and understanding gender differences are essential to communicating emotions.

CWB and Age, Gender, Education, and Veteran Status

There are many factors that contribute to an individual either engaging in organizational citizenship behavior or counterproductive workplace behavior. Szostek (2019) examined the relationship between gender, age, education, position, and the tendency to either engage in CWB or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Fox and Spector (2006) defined *CWB* as any intentional employee behavior that negatively impacts the organization and its members. Shang et al. (2021) described organizational citizenship behavior as discretionary work behavior completed over and above what is required. The research collected data from 535 participants through an online questionnaire of active workers in Poland. Fox and Spector's (2009) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist measured the participant's organizational citizenship behavior. Spector et al. (2006) CWB Checklist measured the participant's CWB. The findings noted that women commit CWB less than men and display OCB more than their male counterparts. The participant's age was a significant factor positively correlating to OCB and negatively with CWB. The higher the individual's education, the less likely they were to engage in CWB and more likely to engage in organizational citizenship

behavior. Additionally, the higher the position, the less likely the individuals were to be engaged in CWB and the more likely they were to be engaged in organizational citizenship behavior.

Lipinska-Grobelny (2021) ascertained that CWB is not a side effect of the changing labor market. In society, conflicts, aggression, and violence are unfortunate but part of a social process. Like societies worldwide, there are no countries or organizations without CWB. The CWB acts of intentional and unintentional vandalism, harassment, theft, and leave abuse can be a financial drain on any organization. Understanding the causes of CWBs can assist organizations with developing effective mitigation methods to reduce these harmful acts. The study aimed to explore the relationship between organizational climate and CWB. The author used the participant's gender as a moderator in the study. There have been several studies that found men are more aggressive than women. The authors hypothesized that CWB is a reaction to stressors in the workplace.

The theoretical framework of the study is from Spector and Fox's (2006) Stressor-Emotion Model. Organizational Climate is the feel of the workplace or work environment. Climate is a set of assessable properties of the workplace. The workforce either directly or indirectly recognizes these properties but influences their behavior (Maamanri & Majdalani, 2017). The Organizational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) by Kolb was used to assess the feel of the workplace. The study used the CWB Checklist by Spector et al. (2006) to access the participant's CWB. The author used Cronbach's alpha to determine the reliability of the CWB-C. The factor levels oscillated from 0.69 to 0.93, which is above the threshold (Lipinska-Grobelny, 2021).

The study analyzed the data from 230 participants. The age of the respondents was 19 to 67 years. Male participants represented 105 participants, and 125 females were the remaining respondents. The variables of organizational climate showed a solid relationship to organizational citizenship and support for leadership. The finding showed that the higher the rating of organization climate, the lower the rates of CWB. The finding revealed that compared to women, men displayed a stronger tendency to engage in CWB (Lipinska-Grobelny, 2021).

Pletzer (2021) found that literature supports the theory that mature employees of more age may be less likely to be involved in CWB than younger employees. The author acknowledged that there appears to be a gap in the research as to why. The meta-analysis included eighteen correlations between age, CWB, and organizational citizenship behavior. The research used the control variables of age, gender, education, and work experience. The participant's ages ranged between 20.61 to 50.71 years. The median age for the study was 36.71 years of age. The author hypothesized that education increases the employee's confidence and allows them to self-regulate their emotion in the event of a workplace conflict. The article revealed that men are less likely to report engaging in personal conflict than their female counterparts. Kundi et al. (2021) examined the relationship between EI and gender. The study investigated gender as a moderator of interpersonal conflict and CWB. The finding revealed that a three-way interaction with the higher levels of EI, the female were less likely to experience interpersonal conflict and CWB.

In a study Ju et. al (2019) noted that men were more impulsive than women but had more situational control, which allowed them to reframe from being drawn into interpersonal conflicts. Pelzer's (2021) study definitely revealed gender differences. The findings confirmed that women with a higher level of EI were less prone to being involved in CWB. Additional findings in the study indicated that employees with higher EI had less of an emotional reaction than those employees with lesser EI. This study's practical implication will allow organizations to implement intervention strategies and programs to reduce stress and mitigate CWBs.

Working in corrections can be highly stressful and emotionally challenging, mainly due to managing an offender population. The offenders are serving time for crimes committed and often are uncooperative. Prison and other government agencies have responded by recruiting military personnel, believing their prior military experience would benefit the organization (Trigg, 2021). Logan et al. (2022) found that hiring veterans was considered an asset but can also be a liability. Many organizations have long recognized that military veterans entering the workforce exhibit attributes of leadership, patience, and discipline. Military personnel who have experienced combat may also be prone to posttraumatic stress disorder. In addition, the highly stressful correctional environment has experienced a similar rate of posttraumatic disorders to that of the military.

As defined for this research, a *veteran* is a person who has served on active duty in any branch of the United States Military and has been discharged or released from active duty (Parker et al., 2019). Military life can be pretty stressful with the country in

peacetime or war. The job requires the individual to build relationships and work closely with other personnel from multiple cultures. These characteristics are similar to some EI components (Krishnakumar et al., 2019).

The military personnel must maintain a state of readiness in the event of war. To maintain a state of readiness, military personnel are required to undergo numerous training exercises above and beyond their regular job, which builds work-related EI. Organizations develop their employees' work-related EI by using training exercises or scenarios highlighting emotional events and processes (Robinson et al., 2019). Krishnakumar et al. (2019) examined 152 active-duty personnel using scenario-based measures focused on workplace emotional occurrences. The authors hypothesized that personnel who developed higher work-related EI would experience positive work performance, organizational citizenship, and less CWB. The study aimed to determine the influence of EI on military performance. The military assessed the participant's workplace EI using the North Dakota Emotional Abilities Test (NEAT) by Krishnakumar et al. (2016) and military records to assess job performance, discipline, or CWB.

The findings revealed that the military personnel displaying higher scores on the emotional knowledge portion of the NEAT performed higher than those with lower scores. There was a significant relationship between that personnel with higher NEAT scores and positive organizational citizenship behavior. Evidence shows that work-related EI benefits the military, and those EI skills can transfer to the civilian sector (Krishnakumar et al., 2019).

EI the Construct

The topic of EI has been in serious debate by many social and organizational psychologists. The debate centered around whether EI was too difficult to define by the terms of the dimensions or should the term intelligence just be a dimension (Mayer et al. 1997; Law et al. 2004) According to Law et al. (2004) in their study title *The Construct and Criterion Validity of EI and Its Potential Utility for Management Studies*, the champions supported the view that EI is a different form traditional personality traits and mental ability. The EI construct could be used to understand and support numerous psychological and managerial phenomena. The authors had a threefold purpose for the study. First, the authors planned to review the definition and domain of EI. Once properly defined, the researcher would advocate that EI is different from personality dimensions. Secondly, the authors plan to create a new EI scale around the new definition of EI and demonstrate the effectiveness of the scale to measure distinct personality dimensions. Third, the authors wanted to establish the predictive validity of the use of EI in a social and organizational setting (Law et al., 2004).

The multitrait-multimethod (MTMM) analyses examined the construct validity of EI. To differentiate between the two forms of EI the author used the rating of self and others in the study. The authors used a series of hierarchical regressions to show the predictive power of EI over the others, work outcomes, and personality dimensions. Wong and Law (2002) were not the first to study the definition of EI.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the first to associate the term EI in reference to a person's ability to manage their emotions. These authors defined EI as "the

subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one's thinking and action" (p.189) , . In conceptual being of EI, researchers had minor difference in their definitions by including motivation, non-ability dispositions, traits, personal and social skills.

Bar-On (1997), the developer of a widely used EI scale used social skills in his definition. Unlike the other champions of EI who developed different EI-related scales to measure the new construct. Davies et al. (1998) develop their four-dimensional definition form literature but did not develop a measure. Davies et al. (1998) definition was very similar to Mayer and Salovey that outlined the four basic areas of EI: (a) the appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself. This is a person's ability to decern their deep emotions and express the feeling naturally. A leader that possess this ability is believed to able to sense and decern their emotion above average, (b) the appraisal, and recognition of emotion in others. A leader with this ability can better perceive and understand their subordinates' emotions. These leaders are sensitive to the emotion of others and predict their subordinate emotional responses, (c) the regulation of emotions in oneself. This ability allows a person to regulate their emotions and recover quicker from emotional distress, (d) the use of emotion to facilitate performance. A leader with the ability can use their EI constructively to facilitate better performance (Davies et al., 1998).

Wong and Law (2002) used Davies et al. (1998) definition during the development of their EI measure which encompassed multiple views of EI. Davies et al.

(1998) was one of the first to conduct research examining all of the existing scales used to measure EI. The findings revealed that the majority of the scales had salient cross-loading on the personality dimensions. Wong and Law (2002) using Davies et al. (1998) work examined the definition and the domain of the EI construct. This research led to a new scale that showed mental abilities and predicted job performance.

Nwanzu et al. (2020) described leaders with EI as those who can display an ability to understand and manage emotions such as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. These components of EI allow people to demonstrate caring behavior, which helps build relationships. Caring behavior allows individuals to be aware and recognize the emotions of others but understand how their actions will shape the recipient. The ability of a caring person to decern the needs of an emotionally distressed person and provide support can minimize CWB.

Brou (2022) noted a leader's workplace EI is their expertise in the field and the level of competencies in their emotional skills, known as emotional quotient. Leaders with this skill set can step back and mentally evaluate a situation and think before reacting, allowing them to make better decisions. The EI construct was born by Salovey and Mayer (1990), the concept of EI being a cognitive ability set apart but connected to general intelligence. Their idea was that a person's intelligence involved understanding their emotions and those of others. These emotions have been deemed a process to decern, interact and manage the reaction of other moods and to make critical decisions. EI is the ability to process emotional data efficiently and consistently, including regulating emotions within oneself and others. Leaders' cognitive performance and

emotional reactions apply an intelligence standard. EI as an ability with a criterion applied to solving problems led to the question of which EI competencies are more effective (Mayer & Salovey, 1995)?

EI Competencies and Subcomponents

When using EI, a person may practice intentional acts of self-awareness, empathy and social awareness, and effective communication or social skills, all components of EI (Coleman & Elizabeth, 2021). Gardner (1983) described multiple intelligence as an individual personal intelligence based on interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. Personal Intelligence is a person's EI competencies (Nanda & Randhawa, 2019). Purdhani and Saxena (2020 defined emotional competencies as a set of skills that enhances the easiness of a person's ability to recognize, interpret, and respond to emotions within themselves and others in a constructive manner. These soft skills competencies help to defuse a situation or lead and guide others effectively. Confident leaders can develop the resilience of these competencies to a greater extent than others.

Goleman's (1995) EI theory linked an individual's emotional competency to career success. Goleman (1998) pinned the components of EI as (a) self-awareness, (b) self-management, (c) social awareness, and (d) relationship management**.**

Self- Awareness

Self- Awareness is the knowledge of having a deep understanding of a person's own emotions, sleekness, strengths, needs, and motivations. This component was highlighted thousands of years ago by the Delphic oracle who gave the world the advice to "know thyself. Goleman (1995) pinned this as the first component, which is

appropriate. Leaders must know themselves before they can understand others. When people are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, the strengths of others do not feel threatened by other strengths in those areas but can see them as benefits to their weaknesses (Goleman, 1998; Bower et al., 2018). The practice of a leader being self-aware develops a leader's competency by forcing the self-examination of their core values, managing emotional triggers, and rationalizing stressors. Leaders who consistently practice self-awareness understand their strengths and limitations (Martin, 2019).

Self-management

Self-management is the ability to keep biological impulses in check, which drive our emotions. Self-management is an intrapersonal competency for which a person conversates with themselves. Leaders who can self-regulate can harness and redirect their emotions positively. Leaders with higher self-regulation competencies can better control their biological impulses and create a work environment with a sense of trust and fairness (Bower et al., 2018). Brou (2022) pinned four behavior competencies that leaders need to develop to increase the self-management competencies of EI: achievement, adaptability, emotional self-control, and transparency. Bower et al. (2018) noted that achievement drive is a subcomponent of EI and under this domain which is another word for motivation. Motivation is what drives a leader to achieve success above the norm. The expectation to achieve and high expectations of others in the workplace drives an effective leader. These leadership traits allow a person to share their intrinsic passion,

more significant than any extrinsic job reward, with others in the workplace. Leaders who attract personnel with these traits will build an organization committed to excel.

Social Awareness

Social awareness allows a leader to adapt socially and make an emotional connection in their environment. Individuals with these social awareness skills are more able to show empathy by recognizing and understanding the feelings of others. These employees can better empathize and provide support to employees and clients at times of need. Soft skills can help employees in correction build hope and trust, which are traits lacking behind bars (Brick et al., 2020). Soft skills are sub-components of this construct. Employees can use their skills in multiple work environments (Martin 2019).

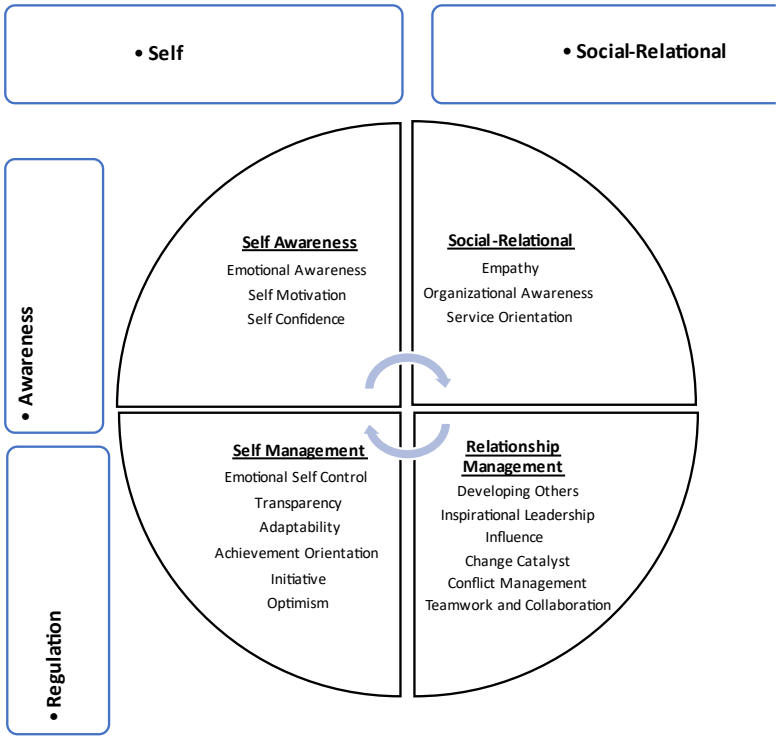
Relationship Management

In order to manage relations in the workplace, a leader must have good social skills to manage relationships and motivate people in general. A leader with good social skills knows the art of being friendly with a purpose. A person with good social skills can have the gift of talking with all different culturally diverse people. Leaders with this competency will build up an extensive network by rarely isolating themselves in small groups. The intentional casting of the wide net will allow a leader with this competency to build a relationship and potential allies for possible help in the future (Bower et al., 2018). Their cognitive behaviors of being able to show emotions such as empathy when needed and energetic enthusiasm to motivate employees will help them to be more socially accepted, which builds rapport and gains people’s trust (Janke et at., 2020).

Empathy is one of the main characteristics of a person's EI style and being able to empathize with their followers is critical in the marketplace. A leader without this ability may respond without using EI with the wrong tone in their voice, creating an adverse reaction (Gandolfi et al., 2017). Empathy is a leader's intentional and thoughtful consideration of the feelings of others. With the increased globalization and the multicultural workforce, empathy has become increasingly necessary for leaders in making decisions. Cultural differences in the workplace require a deeper understanding of past and present cultural differences. The leader does not take on the person's feelings but displays thoughtful consideration. The display of empathy goes beyond words but includes body language, which can be a message without words. The practical competencies of this component allow leaders to improve their organization (Bower et al., 2018). (See Figure 2, the Four Domains of EI.

Figure 2

Four Domains of EI



Models of EI

Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences birthed the notion that interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence could manage a person's emotions and laid the foundational groundwork for the contemporary theories of EI. Wood (2020) noted that there are disparities across the models, but also a degree of commonality, with most identifying key facets drawn from (1) personal traits such as adaptability, self-esteem, self-motivation, and (2) social characteristics, including empathy, assertiveness, social

and relationship skills; and (3) emotional attributes like emotional expression, management, and regulation.

McClenllan et.al. (2017) noted that most scholars share the fundamental concept that EI uses the components of the mind linked with emotion rather than just a rational application of a person's intelligence. This fundamental difference led to a division in the formulation of the two primary models of EI. Some scholars argued for the strictly emotional ability-based model, while others championed the mixed models encompassing intelligence and personality. Hodzic et al. (2019) ascertained that the trait and ability EI models are the two most commonly used in recent literature. Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four-branch ability model acknowledged the differences between a person: perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions. The trait EI approach viewed EI as a higher emotional disposition on the hierarchical level but below the personality traits of individuals. The mixed approach did not discriminate when defining EI by including noncognitive characteristics like social skills.

Ability Model of EI

Mayer and Salovey (1993) were the primary defenders of the ability-based school of thought. They defined EI as an ability or set of competencies that could allow a person to deal with emotions and others effectively'. An EI skillset could allow a person to discriminate among their emotions and then use the information to guide their thinking and actions. EI also included verbal and nonverbal communication and used this skill set in decision-making and problem-solving. Mayer et. al. (2000) revealed that key behavioral components added to the model are understanding emotions, reflectively

regulating emotions, assimilating emotion in thought, and perceiving and expressing emotions (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000, p. 269).

Dirican and Erdil (2020) examined how discretionary workplace behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior and CWB were influenced by ability-based EI. The study used employees from fifty public universities. Cultural diversity in management is essential due to exchanging positive and negative emotions in a diverse work environment. Miao et al. (2018) stated that EI can influence employee behaviors and significantly shape the work environment. Turnispeed (2018) asserted that an employee's emotions significantly affect the workplace because emotions are critical in forming human behavior. There are four dimensions of EI with distinctive abilities self-emotion appraisal, other's emotional appraisal, use of emotions, and regulation of emotion (Wong and Law, 2002; Law et al., 2004; Dirican and Erdil, 2020).

The first dimension of ability-based EI is the self-emotion appraisal. This competency will allow individuals to appraise, decern, understand and express their emotions effectively. This dimension is listed first because people must know themselves to influence behavior to convey their emotions to others (Law t al., 2004; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Recognizing others' emotional appraisal is the second dimension of ability-based EI. To be able to perceive the emotions of others, empathically relate, and support them in a time of need is referred to as empathic accuracy. Empathy is a critical skill in building relationships in the workplace. This skill allows a leader to perceive and understand the feelings of their subordinates, peers, and supervisors around them. The

third ability-based dimension is the use of emotions. (Law et al., 2004; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Law et al. (2004) ascertained that this competency can facilitate performance by allowing individuals to direct their emotions to constructive decision-making. This ability can effectively allow individuals to deploy and exchange emotions in real-time, adapting to cognitive activities in different situations. This skill set allows an individual to practice continuous improvement by constantly striving to get better. The fourth ability-based dimension is the regulation of emotions. This competency allows an individual to better control and recover from emotional tensions and distress in the workplace. This skill set allows individuals to mitigate adverse and reinforce positive emotions (Law et al., 2004; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The findings of Dirican and Erdil (2020) showed that all the abilities-bases dimensions of EI contributed to improving organizational citizenship behavior and mitigating CWB. The school of thought behind the ability model focuses primarily on the maximum performance of individuals. The ability model used writing skills assessments that interpreted emotional information versus equations (Bucich and MacCann, 2019; O'Conner et al., 2019).

Trait or mixed Model of EI

Goleman (1995) viewed emotional competence as a learning capability that allows an employee to perform work in an outstanding manner. Goleman's performance-based model centered on five skills, of which three were personal competencies and two social competencies: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. McClellan et. al. (2017) noted the trait or mixed model encompasses an approach

that measures the broader view of competencies or traits. This broad concept of social intelligence do not differentiate known as emotional-social Intelligence. This model is known as the mixed model because, the model encompasses mental abilities, personality, and character skills (Maarmari, B.E., & Majdalani, J. F., 2017).

The trait perspective mode viewed EI as a cluster of stables with lower personality traits. The characteristics within oneself, such as self-perception and behavior tendencies, are considered trait EI (Bucich & MacCann, 2019; O'Conner et al., 2019). The trait approach was not theory-driven and then evaluated in the usual manner. Trait EI was empirically driven and then theorized. The ability model was used to create a self-report instrument and then evaluated. Inspired by Goleman's work Petrides and Furnham (2001) identified that the participants in their study had a high correlation between self-reported EI and personality traits. This study led to the new term trait EI. The trait model of EI remains the most current theoretical framework of EI. In contrast, EI is a set of stable characteristics recalled from a person's experiences. Trait EI has four domains: well-being, emotionality, sociability, and self-control (see figure 3) (Sambol et al., 2022).

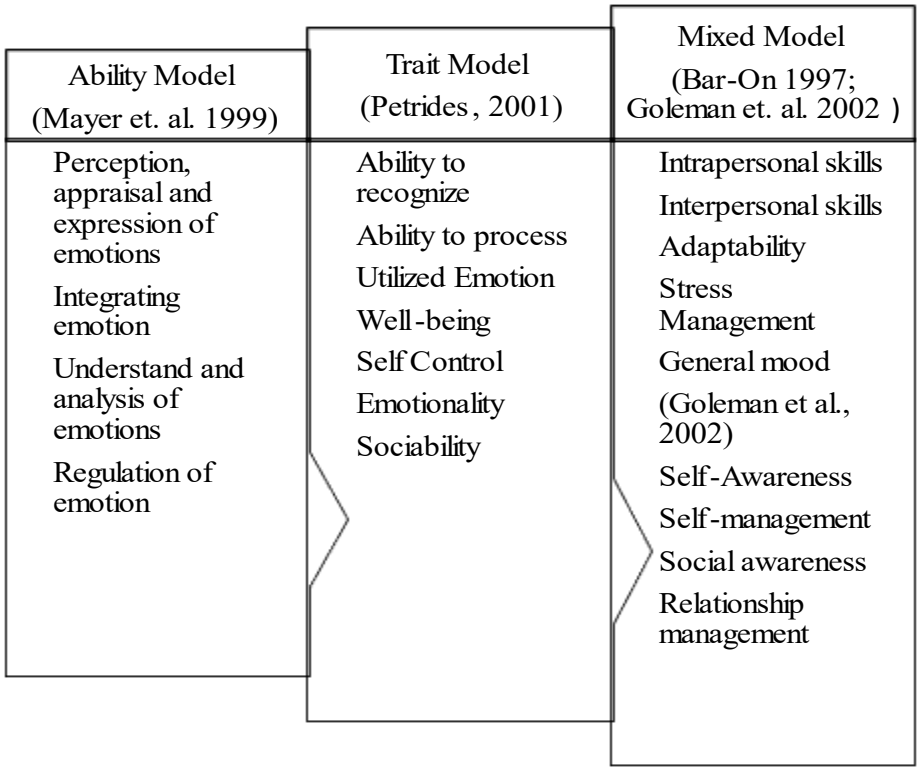
With the recent celebrity setbacks in mental wellness, suicide programs and the increase in mental health and emotional wellness have taken center stage. Organizations can see the benefits of happy employees who are more productive in the workplace. Overwhelmingly, the focus of public management is on organizational performance, which causes neglect of other critical topics such as employee health and well-being (Hameed et al., 2022). Nanda and Randhawa (2019) presented their insight into well-

being by focusing on three dimensions: job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, emotional exhaustion and their relationship to EI. Organizational relationships foster workplace attitudes that will affect a person's well-being, either positive or negative, and lead to good organizational citizenship or CWB. In a review of the literature, three categories of well-being have emerged psychological well-being, physical well-being, and social well-being.

Under psychological well-being, there are other dimensions, such as affective well-being. This dimension considers the number and complexity of the positive and negative interactions. Work-related well-being can include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and emotional exhaustion. Work fatigue or exhaustion is a significant indicator of work fatigue or the lack of being emotionally well. The study's findings reveal that numerous components of well-being were related to multiple behaviors such as performance, turnover, OCB, and CWB (Nanda & Randhawa, 2019).

Figure 3

Models of EI



Instruments Measuring EI

Using EI to manage and lead is still relatively new in the research world. Bar-On (1997) developed the Bar-On EQ instrument with 133 items without any outside validation. This instrument has 133 items unrelated to EI, such as critical thinking and social skills. Before this measure, Goleman (1995) developed a 30-item trait Meta-Mood Scale to measure EI, later shortened to ten items. These tools had no reported prior validation prior to their use. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1997) developed their initial 400-item Multifaceted EI Scale (MEIS). The detailed MEIS takes 2 hours to complete the

four hundred required responses (Wong & Law, 2002). There appear to be three main competing instruments for measuring a person's EI the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso EI Test (MSCEIT) and the Reuven Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), and the Wong and Law (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS).

Mayor and Salovey (2002) developed the ability-based test known as the MSCEIT, which appears to be one of the most used assessment tools to measure the four branches of their intelligence theory. The MSCEIT measures the four branches of Mayor and Salovey's (1990) EI Theory: perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions. The four dimensions are measured by presenting two tasks to the participants, using a five-point Likert scale encompassing correct and incorrect multiple responses. This self-reported assessment consists of 141 items with an estimated completion time of 30-40 minutes (Lluna et al., 2021).

The initial instrument selected for the study was the Bar-On EQ-I (1997). The EQ-I was the first measure developed based on the mixed model known as the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), which combined a person's ability and personality traits and then defined EI. The EQ-i has been translated into more than thirty languages, allowing participants to self-report behavior measures that generate an estimate of their emotional and social intelligence. This self-reported assessment provides short sentences like questions and answers to participants using a five-point Likert scale. The EQ-i takes approximately 30 minutes to complete. The EQ-i has internal consistency and test validity, using correlation to evaluate the relationship between the variables (Lluna et al., 2021).

Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) is four dimensions of EI, the appraisal and expression of the emotion of oneself, the appraisal and recognition of emotion of others, the regulation of emotion in oneself, and the use of emotion in facilitating performance. These four dimensions are measured using sixteen items in four relational subscales. The format is like the other tools, but instead of a 5-point scale, uses a 7-point Likert scale encompassing a range of responses from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*). The overall EI score is the average of the self-reported responses given by the participants. This self-reported assessment consists of sixteen items with an estimated completion time of 10-15 minutes (Law et al. 2004). Given the study's emphasis on the influence of EI competencies on CWB, the WLEIS will focus on the expression of the participants' emotions and only takes half the time to administer compared to the Bars-on EQ-i. The widely used WLEIS will also allow the researchers to gain data related to the significant components of EI. Therefore, the researcher's use of the WLEIS instead of the Bar-on-EQ-i assessment tool is appropriate for this study.

Instruments Measuring CWB

There are numerous instruments that could be used to measure CWB. CWB is any intentional employee behavior that negatively impacts the organization and its members (Fox & Spector, 2002). Raman et. al. (2016) defined CWB as any employee behavior that does not align with the organization's goals. Bennet and Robinson (2002) developed a two-dimensional scale used to measure interpersonal and organizational CWB. The author defined CWB as a voluntary abnormal behavior that threatens the well-being of an individual or the organization. There are two dimensions of CWB which are interpersonal

and organizational. Interpersonal deviant behavior is intended to directly affect the individual. Organizational deviant behavior is where the individual targets the organization. Bennet and Robinson's (2002) scale consisted of nineteen items with 7 items measuring interpersonal CWB and 12 items measuring organizational CWB. The 5-point Likert scale ranged from "never " to "always".

Dirican and Erdil (2020) examined the relationship between ability-based EI and CWB by using the Bennet and Robinson (2002) scale. The validity of the instrument was measured by using the Cronbach's alpha which measured the CWB=I at .69 and the CWB-O at .70 which is above the 0.5 acceptable limits. Spector et. al. (2006) CWB Checklist (CWB-C) is a tool used to measure various negative work behaviors that are not beneficial to the organization's goals. The CWB-C comprises forty-five items describing behavioral reactions and the frequency of such behaviors. The CWB-C allows the participant to self-report their response on a five-point scale ranging from 'never' to 'every day'. Tallied responses to specific questions and higher scores indicate greater levels of CWB.

Developing EI Competencies

Lewin et al. (1939), an accomplished psychologist, and his team led a paradigm shift in leadership. In their seminal work, the group acknowledged that leaders could be made and not just born for the most part. Ehsan et. al. (2018) research described the emotionally intelligent leader as friendly, agreeable, sensitive, and with soft skills. The dark side of leadership lower traits of an emotionally intelligent leader linked lower EI to

the dark side of a leader. Some leaders still display Dr. Jekeil and Hyde's emotional traits, who are very emotionally intelligent and tyrant.

Organizations will have to develop a cultural strategy to meet the social demands of a potentially divided workforce. In Goleman's (2004) book *What Makes a Great Leader*, to be effective, a leader must-have EI to influence others to assist in achieving their goal and ideas. With the lack of a leader's EI competencies, their ideas cannot become a reality. Leadership's EI directly affects organizational culture. According to Turner et al. (2018), leadership programs must focus on a wide range of relational interactions among stakeholders rather than individual positional or general training. Developmental programs should address self-management, social exchange, and task facilitation at a minimum. The documentation of developmental training should be equally crucial to the training. Forsyth et al. (2020) cited evidence that a person's behavioral tendencies can be measured and developed using tools like the DISCflex. The lack of EI training can negatively impact an organization's competitive advantage through poor employee performance and CWB.

According to Ehsan et al. (2018) organizations should better define a leader's success to be more aligned with the organization's success. Emotionally intelligent leaders who create and build diverse, inclusive relationships with high ethical and moral standards are likely to be high achievers. Leaders who lack EI and are only motivated by financial gains may encounter short-term wins but are more likely to have longer-term challenges resulting in decreased performance and CWB. Shrivastava et al. (2022) noted that developing leadership is critical to global competency and leading a multicultural

organization. EI and communication skills are essential to building trust, professionalism, and leading people. These skills are often overlooked until much later in career development Turner et. at. (2018) asserted that leadership development has become one of the fastest-growing trends. Organizations must give leaders in today's sophisticated global setting the exposure to programs that will give them the tools and knowledge needed to adapt to environmental, economic, and innovative changes. These skills are critical to leadership development programs to focus on in dynamic work environment. There are three minimum areas that developmental programs should address: self-management, social exchange, and task facilitation. The documentation of developmental training should be equally crucial to the training. Leadership programs must focus on a wide range of relational interactions among stakeholders rather than individual positional or general training.

Mao et al. (2021) examined how EI training can promote resilience among leaders. Resilience allows the person to maintain a collective state of balance in the workplace and rebound from stress and difficult situations. Mattingly and Kraiger (2019) also noted that developmental training can heighten EI and resilience. Mao et al. (2021) study consisted of a pre and post-test and two phases of training. The phase I initial training was administered over 30 days, with the intervention group receiving EI training two times a week. In phase II, the intervention group received training once a week for 11 months. The control group over both phases received regular departmental briefings. One hundred nurses participated in this study. The Wong and Law (2002) EI Scale was used to measure their EI, and the Connor-Davison Resilience Cale was used to measure

resilience. The control group scored much lower on the WLEIS, and the resilience scale registered very little change. The intervention group showed a significant increase in EI, resilience, and a reduction in work-related stress. This study links training to developing a leader's EI and influence. EI competency training can complement a leader's style and natural leadership traits (Mao et al., 2021).

Ruzgar (2019) in their study cited the common point of view of supporters of the Great Man Theory is that to become a great leader, a person should possess some traits at birth. In the Great Man Theory, the leader influences people, which gives them power over them. According to Thomas Carlyle's Great Man Theory, the history of humanity, some great men possess particular and specific gifts from God by birth. These traits are impossible to gain later by experience. I do not totally disagree with the great man's theory; a leader can be born with specific leadership traits. However, experience is developed by training and life experiences can be used to develop these traits. EI can play an essential role in developing leadership skills, organizations, and the individual's performance, possibly mitigating CWBs. Forsyth et. al. (2020) linked the development of EI to tools like the DISCflex instrument, which assesses a person's behavioral tendencies.

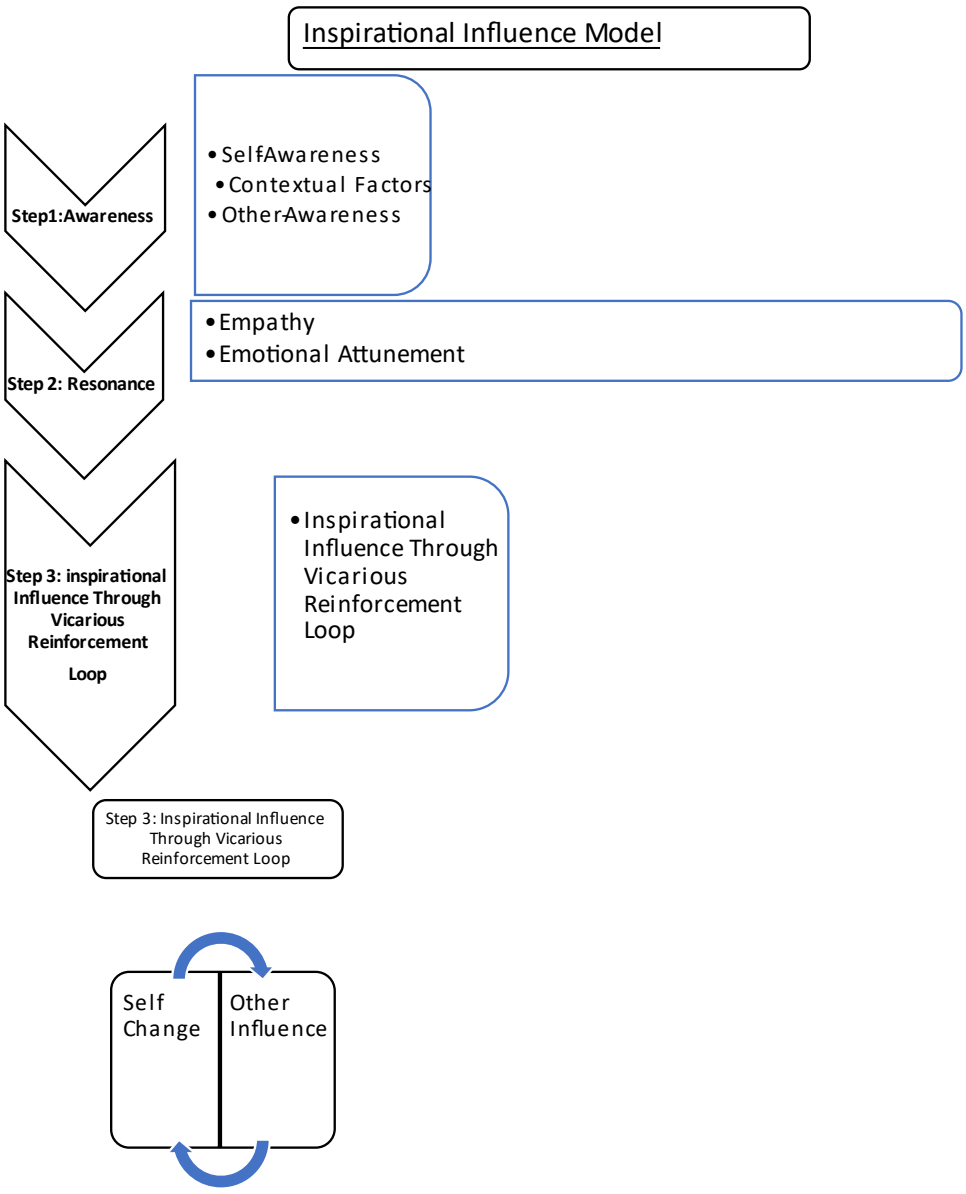
According to Forsyth et. al (2020) the DISCflex is an instrument that can help leaders build EQ by giving the individual personal reports of their relationship between their natural behavior on behavioral choices. This report is the leader's behavior language and can be used to develop EI competencies. The DISCflex allows the leader and others to assess work behavior and situations. The report covers a wide range of questions designed around multiple work scenarios that the leader dealt with in the work

environment. The DISCflex generates a report through three perceptual lenses. The empathy components of a leader's EI can be developed by not only seeing but understanding how others view them and why. The DISC Report can help leaders become self-aware, develop, and balance their EI competencies and, like a rainbow in the sky, be a calming effect by adapting to different situations. Ehsan et. al. (2018) noted the effectiveness of leadership is too often measured by financial performance. The measure of financial performance is important but is not the only measurement of success. In many cases, increased performance and mitigated CWB can be a byproduct of an emotionally intelligent leader.

McClellan et al. (2017) proposed a model that primarily focused on positive EI benefits instead of the negative aspects. The model displays the relationship between positive emotions and some transformational leadership components. In contrast, the model focused on the role played by positive emotions. The model illustrated creating a mechanism that leads to vicarious reinforcement loops and focuses on the positive aspects of EI (see figure 4). Using this model to visualize the three elements helped the authors describe the alignment between the elements and illustrate each element's importance in overall organizational performance. Using a vicarious reinforcement loop, the model illustrated the relationship between positive emotional competencies, leadership, and development.

Figure 4

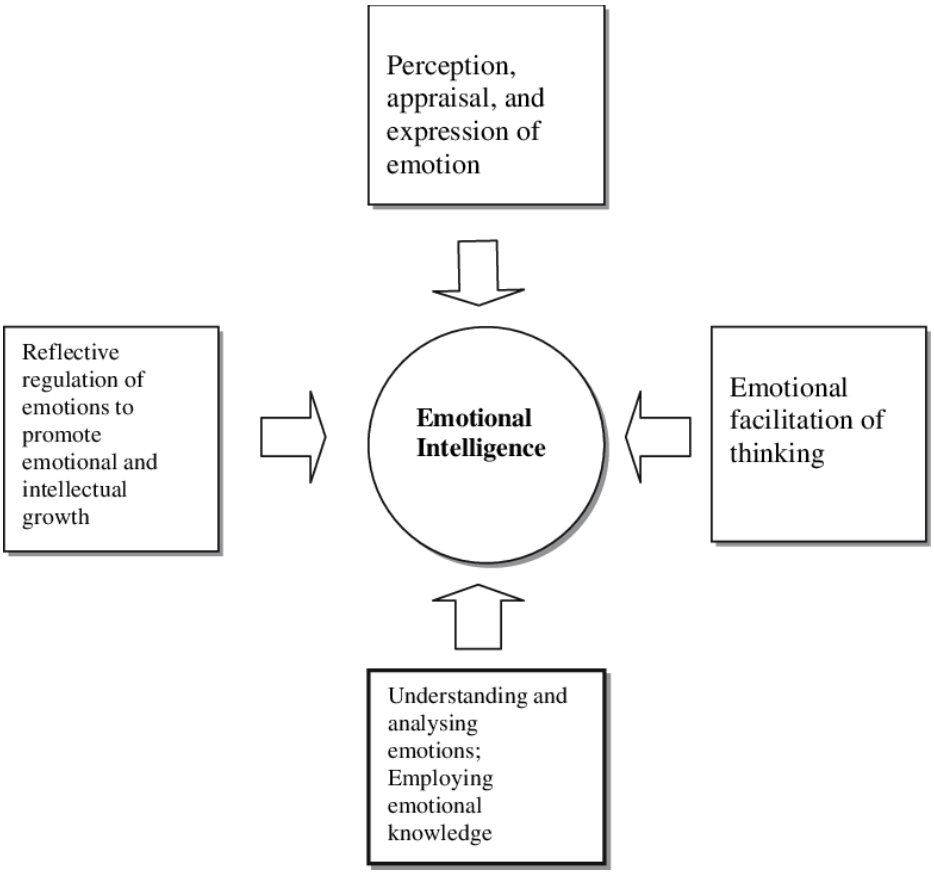
Inspirational Influence Model



Hodzic et al. (2018) asserted that within the last ten years, EI has become a significant psychological construct in the workplace. This research linked a leader's high EI to an employee's health, well-being, increased academics, and work performance. The authors examined a multilevel meta-analysis to determine whether enhanced training could develop a person's EI. These EI training were called interventions for the study. The study analyzed the three approaches to EI. The two most commonly used approaches in research are trait EI and ability EI and the mixed model as described by Bars-one's emotional-social Intelligence (2006) and Goleman's (1995) model on emotional competencies. The analysis consisted of twenty-four studies. These studies did not all agree with the conceptual definitions of EI, but a common denominator was the development of EI competencies through training or intervention. The findings revealed that the training based on the ability models had a significantly higher effect than the trait model. The length of the intervention impacted the size of the training effect. The most effective interventions focused on the ability model as conceptualized by the four-branch model by Mayer and Salovey (2004) *see figure five*. The psychological construct of EI is significantly related to health outcomes and well-being in everyday life.

Figure 5

The Mayer and Salovey Four Branch Model



Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter, I reviewed how EI has become relevant in the workplace and the personal management of negative emotions. EI, among other variables, is becoming significantly necessary to understand in the work environment. EI could have a mitigating effect on CWB. There appears to be minimal research on the relationship between CWB and EI versus performance. In addition, research on the specific competencies of EI components has been researched much less than research on a person's total EI. We do not know the relationship between CWB and EI among

correctional leaders. In their study, Yadav and Rai (2020) suggested that further research is needed to differentiate the influence among the components of EI and the relationship to workplace deviant behaviors. This study will investigate the relationship between CWB and EI, age, gender, education, and veteran status. Chapter 3 presented the research design, site convenience sample, instrumentation, and procedures to facilitate the data collection.

Chapter 3: Research Method

This study examined the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB and the independent variables of EI, age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in corrections. The previous chapter highlighted some research on the relationship between EI, OCB, and CWB. Most studies focus on the individual EI measure as a whole instead of the influence of the components of EI. There remains a lack of research on the effects of the components of EI and the leader's competencies that may be able to mitigate CWBs.

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the design, methodology, and the instrumentation used to collect and interpret the data from the participants. The recruitment method and platform utilized to facilitate data collection was also described in this chapter. This quantitative research design included correlation and regression to evaluate the research questions and hypothesis. The instruments, the demographic workplace questionnaire, the WLEIS, and the CWB-C enabled the data to be extracted and used in statistical procedures. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to perform the statistical analysis. I examined the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB measured by the CWB-C and the influence of the leader's EI competencies measured by the WLEIS. I also examined the possible effects of age, gender, education, and veteran status control variables. This chapter will include an outline of the procedures protecting the participants' rights.

Research Design and Rationale

The specific research design included a quantitative, correlational, cross-sectional questionnaire using multiple regression to examine the relationship between the independent variable of EI and the dependent variable of CWB. A demographic workplace questionnaire will be used as a self-reporting instrument to control age, gender, education, and veteran status variables. Regression is a linear prediction model that uses one or more independent variables to predict a dependent variable's values (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2020). The overall EI measure and the competencies of the components will be analyzed to determine if there is an effect of certain EICs on CWB.

Multiple regression builds on bivariate regression by adding more predictor variations to the equations. Therefore, multiple regression estimates how several independent variables affect the dependent variable of CWB. The correlation measures between the variables may be able to show the relationship between the independent variable of CWB and the dependent measure of EI.

The CWB Checklist (CWB-C) was used to capture a wide variety of CWBs that are not beneficial to the organization's goals. The CWB-C has forty-five items describing behavioral reactions and the frequency of such behaviors. This self-reported assessment consists of 45 items with an estimated completion time of 10-15 minutes. The CWB-C's higher scores indicate greater levels of CWB (Spector et al., 2006). The WLEIS developed by Wong and Law (2002) was used to measure the dependent variable of EI. The WLEIS has four dimensions of EI, the appraisal and expression of the emotion of oneself, the appraisal and recognition of emotion of others, the regulation of emotion in

oneself, and the use of emotion in facilitating performance. The participant's four dimensions were measured using sixteen items in four relational subscales using a 5-point scale. There was a wide range of responses. The overall EI score was self-reported by totaling the average of the self-reported responses given by the participants. This self-reported assessment consists of sixteen items with an estimated completion time of 10-15 minutes (Law et al. 2004).

Given the study's emphasis on the influence of EI competencies on CWB, the WLEIS focuses on the expression of the participants' emotions and only takes half the time to administer as compared to the Bars-on EQ-i. The WLEIS will also allow the researchers to gain data related to the significant components of EI and was appropriate for this study. The quantitative approach's research goal to answer the research question utilized a correlational design with a multiple regression analysis. Multiple regression was used to measure the possible relationship between the variables of CWB and the participant EIC.

The WLEIS is a trait EI measure. Wong and Law (2002) asserted that a measure's validity relates to organizational citizenship and CWB. The WLEIS measured the EI of the participants in four-dimensions: self-emotional appraisal or SEA, emotional appraisal or OEA, use of emotion or UOE, and emotional appraisal or OEA (Wong and Law, 2002). I used the correlational approach based on its effectiveness in determining the relationships. According to Frankfort-Nachmias et al. (2020), using correlation would be appropriate because correlation measures the association and strength of a relationship between variables.

Methodology

This section includes the steps taken in this quantitative study to address the research problem. The research described the population and the sampling procedures, research design, instruments used, and procedures for the participants. This section closed with the analysis plan, threats to validity, and ethical considerations.

Population

The Federal Bureau of Prisons is the largest component of the Department of Justice in the most extensive correctional system, with 122 federal facilities in the United States. The prison system has 37,820 employees working in various regions throughout multiple states across the United States (Hagan et al., 2021). Current and former employees are the targeted population for the study. A *population* is a significant unit with similar characteristics. According to Franfort-Nachmias, and Nachmias a study it define by containing three aspects: (a) content, (b) extent, and (c) time. In this study, the sample from the target population was seventy-nine leaders in corrections across multiple states, federal, and private facilities located within the United States.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

I applied the convenience sampling technique to the study. Convenience sampling offered the most inclusive access to those leaders in corrections who are willing to participate in the research. The participants in convenience sampling were more accessible, which was a benefit. In quantitative studies, the larger the sample size, the more the statistical power increases. Convenience sampling is a commonly used technique in qualitative and quantitative studies (Lee-Jen et al., 2014).

The use of convenience sampling, a non-probability sampling method, is the most used method in psychology as it is the most approachable and easily accessible to the researcher. There are limitations to convenience sampling, however, as qualitative data is susceptible to research bias and influences data validity. The research sample should represent the general population, which is often not achieved with convenience sampling (Staetsky, 2019). A recruitment criterion will select the participant for the study. Using a criterion will minimize the variability of the dependent variable of CWB (Franfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). As defined by the study, a leader must have a minimum of 24 months of service. The leader's level of supervision must be equivalent to the GS-9 level or above, excluded from the bargaining unit, and they must have supervised at least one subordinate employee. The best way to determine a sample size is by incorporating a power analysis with an adjustable desired statistical power. Breakwell et al. (2009) found that when considering a minimum sample size of 100 to 150 participants, multiple factors were considered. The G* power is a statistical test determining the appropriate sample size for a study. The G* power analysis generates an a priori analysis to determine the appropriate sample size. The power analysis is the probability of determining the effect; by definition, the effect has the power to reject the null hypothesis if it is false. Utilizing the G* Power will ensure minimal sampling errors in the research using multiple regression.

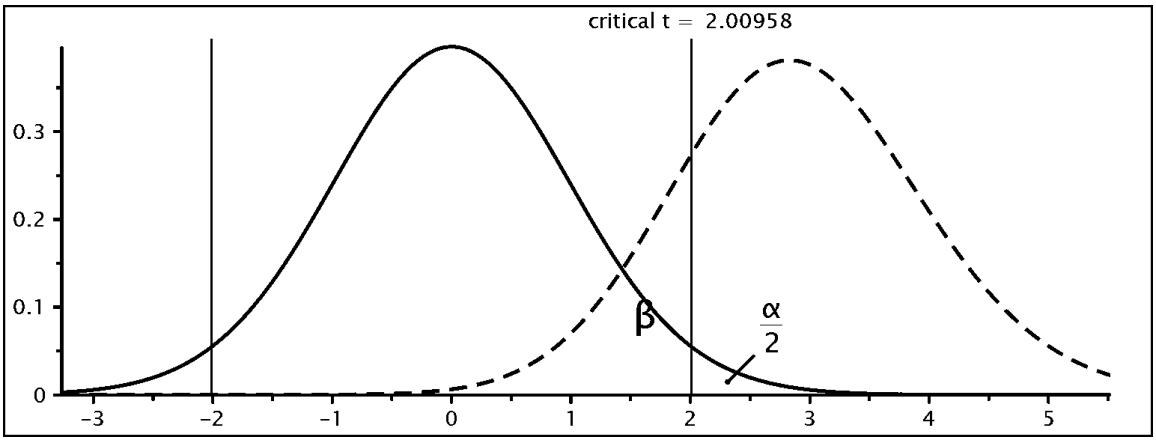
The G* Power analyses address linear and multiple regression when determining the suggested sample size (Faul et al., 2007). The G* power analysis will use a two-tailed test involving a non-directional hypothesis with values of less than or greater than the

value. The alpha (*a*) is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis. The effect size of the population was set at .15 to detect a small effect. The alpha level is at the .05 level. The power level is at 0.80, with the number of predictors set at 5. The total sample generated was 55. The G* power actual power is 0.8038932. The analysis has recommended a sample population of fifty-five participants. Additionally, there is an 80 percent probability of rejecting the null hypothesis, if not true (Faul et al., 2007). To account for the possible shortage, the sample was increased to seventy-five participants.

Robinson et al. (2019) conducted a similar study and calculated a similar sample size of eighty-five. The study examined the relationship between workplace EI and deviant work behaviors. The author estimated that a sample size of 85 would provide adequate power (.80) to detect a medium effect size (r = .3). I increased the number of the sample size to ninety-one to account for a possible shortage. See Figure 6, which provides the analysis of the G* Power.

Figure 6

G Power Analysis*



Power Summary

t-tests - Linear multiple regression: Fixed model, a single regression coefficient

Analysis: A priori: Compute required sample size

Input: Tail(s) = Two

Effect size $f^2 = 0.15$

α err prob = 0.05

Power (1-β err prob) = 0.80

Number of predictors = 5

Output: Noncentrality parameter δ = 2.8722813

Critical t = 2.0095752

Df = 49

Total sample size = 55

Actual power = 0.8038932

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection (Primary Data)

The primary participants targeted for the study were leaders in corrections working at state and federal prisons across the country. The LinkedIn platform became the primary source for recruiting participants. An informational flyer was posted to the popular site and then participants were linked to a SurveyMonkey which landed them directly on consent form and then to the questionnaires. The electronic link from SurveyMonkey allowed participants to complete the questionnaire from their cell phone or other mobile device which expedited the process. The informational flyer posted on LinkedIn explained the study's purpose, outlined the information to be collected, defined anonymity for the research participants, and seek voluntary participation. The informational flyer posted to the LinkedIn platform made the participants aware of their rights to privacy and safety concerning their participation in the study. A toll-free crisis hotline was listed in the instruction in case of any physical or mental discomfort from participating in the study. The information flyer and consent form also provided each participant with a description of how the data will be collected and managed. The flyer explained that by accessing the link or scanning the QR code and completing the questionnaires that these actions were explained as constituting consent to the study.

According to Hoda et al. (2022), LinkedIn has become one of the most used sources of recruitment and selection among social and professional networks. Social network sites have grown to more than 4.2 billion users in the last ten years. A Pew Internet Research Center study ascertained that Facebook is the most used social media site, and LinkedIn is number three. LinkedIn and Facebook users manage their content

and can share information with their network, making them potential participants. This snowball effect allows their network of connections to view the solicitation for convenience sampling (Hoda et al., 2022).

Social media sites have become practical tools in the area of research. Using the LinkedIn platforms as a recruitment source will allow easy access to a wide range of participants who are already in a large correctional professional network. The recruitment of individuals already on these social sites eliminated bureaucratic red tape of gaining permission from multiple layers of organization management. Using these social sites made the participant's messages available to their contacts and creates an avenue for automatic snowball sampling (Hoda et al., 2022).

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The Cronbach's alpha will assess the reliability and internal consistency of the two scales test used in this study. According to McNeish (2018), the Cronbach Alpha is a widely used and most cited source in psychological research. Therefore, the Cronbach alpha will be the primary tool to assess the reliability and validity of the scales used in the study. All participants will complete a demographic workplace survey, the WLEIS, and the CWB Checklist (CWB-C). A request for approval to use the assessment tools was sent to the authors and approval was granted (see Appendix F & G).

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic workplace questionnaire captured the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status. The Demographic workplace questionnaire was reviewed only to include those whose answers to the question "Are you a current or past

management official excluded from the bargaining unit and supervised at least 1 subordinate employee"? The responses [Current Employee] [Past or Retired Employee] or [I have never supervised anyone]" answer which will make them not eligible for the study. For the researcher to determine their status as a veteran, there was a question that determined the participant's status as a veteran. "Are you a Veteran who served in any branch of the military for over 180 days and honorably discharged or released from active duty "? The participant will answer "yes" or "no."

To determine the participant's gender and education level. The participants were prompted to the question, what is your gender? male [] or female []. The participant's education level will be assessed by them answering the following. Please check the box that best reflects your education level. I have completed high school or the equivalent []; some college []; associate degree []; bachelor's degree []; master's degree []; doctorate degree []. There will be a question to determine the participant's age. The participants were asked the question, what is your age? [] 18 to 24, [] 25 to 34, [] 35 to 44, [] 45 to 54, [] 55 to 64, [] 65 to 74, [] 75 or older. A survey with missing data may face exclusion from the study. The demographic questionnaire will take less than 1 minute to complete.

Wong and Law (2002) EI Scale

The WLEIS uses the four dimensions of EI, the appraisal and expression of the emotion of oneself, the appraisal and recognition of emotion of others, the regulation of emotion in oneself, and the use of emotion in facilitating performance. These four dimensions are measured using 16 items in four relational subscales. The format is

similar to the other tools, but instead of a 5-point scale, uses a 7-point Likert scale encompassing a range of responses from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*).

Law et al. (2004) identified multiple EI-related scales of measure developed by several champions of the new construct. Davies et al. (1998) was one of the first to conduct research examining all of the existing scales used to measure EI. The findings revealed that the majority of the scales had salient cross-loading on the personality dimensions. Wong and Law (2002) using Davies et al. (1998) work examined the definition and the domain of the EI construct. This research led to a new scale that showed mental abilities and predicted job performance.

A study performed by (Al Ghazo et al., 2019) examined the effects of organizational citizenship as a mediator between the variables of EI and CWB. The targeted population consists of administrative employees at nine Amman, Jordan universities. The author used the WLEIS to measure the 304 participants' four dimensions of EI. The Cronbach's alpha was used on the WLEIS to assess the scale's reliability and internal consistency for the study. Cronbach alpha achieved reliability and validity by demonstrating a significant level of 0.92, which is well above the 0.5 acceptable limits. The findings revealed that the EI measured by the WLEIS could significantly impact CWB and organizational citizenship.

Yu and Takahashi (2020) explored how EI predicts organizational citizenship behavior and CWB. The study used job satisfaction and work engagement as mediators. The targeted population consists of employees in the mainland of China's public and non-public organization all with formal higher education. The author used the

convenience sampling the select 540 participants over 26 provinces in China. The author used the WLEIS (2002) to assess the 540 participants' EI. The WLEIS was a self-report and used a seven-point Likert-type scale. The author highlighted the validated used of the WLEIS in prior studies but recognized the possible limitation with number of items contained in the assessment. The study ascertained that by using the WLEIS, there was a moderation effect of EI on CWB.

CWB Checklist

The CWB Checklist (CWB-C) measures a wide variety of negative work behaviors that are not beneficial to the organization's goals. The CWB-C uses 45 items to describe behavioral reactions and the frequency of such behaviors. There are self-reporting responses as choices formulated on a five-point scale ranging from 'never' to 'every day. The totals of the answers to the questions and higher scores indicate greater levels of CWB (Spector et al., 2006).

In a study by Lipińska-Grobelny, (2021), the author used Spector et al. (2006) CWB checklist examined the relationship between organizational climate, specific characteristics, and gender. Using an anonymous questionnaire sent to 230 participants in the study. The demographics were 105 male and 125 female participants ranging from 19 to 67 years of age. The Helsinki Declaration and principles were used in the development process to regulate the study. The administering of the CWB-C was used to measure the participant's CWBs in the work environment. The checklist was translated into Polish and consisted of the original 5-dimensions with 32 items to assess unethical and unproductive work behavior. The researcher conducted an exploratory factor analysis

(EFA) to estimate the measure's consistency. The researcher interpreted the EFA results and found four factors: abuse, sabotage, theft, and organization withdrawal, confirmed for internal consistency. The Cronbach alpha assessed the internal consistency and reliability of the study. The Cronbach alpha has an excellent record dating back to the 1950s. According to McNeish (2018), Cronbach Alpha is a widely used and the most cited source in psychological research. The CWB-C in the study achieved internal consistency and reliability by using Cronbach's Alpha with a significant level of 0.92, which is well above the 0.5 acceptable limits (Lipińska-Grobelny, 2021).

In Al Ghazo et al. (2019), the authors examined the effects of organizational citizenship as a mediator between the variables of EI and CWB. The targeted population consists of administrative employees at nine Amman, Jordan universities. The author also used the Counterproductive Workplace Behavior Checklist (CWB-C) developed by Spector et al. (2006) The instrument assessed five dimensions of CWB which included abuse, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal, The Cronbach's alpha was used on the CWB-C to assess the scale's reliability and internal consistency for the study. Cronbach alpha achieved reliability and validity by demonstrating a significant level of 0.70, which is at the 0.7 acceptable limit indicated the scales use is dependable for its intended measure.

Data Analysis Plan

The data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 28.0.1 for Windows 10. I used a Correlational design to examine the relationship between the variables. After receiving the data, I scrubbed and cleansed for potential erroneous and missing information. In addition, I used multiple linear regression analysis

to examine the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB as measured by the CWB-C and independent variables of EI measured by the WLEIS, age, gender, education, and veteran status. The anonymous demographic workplace questionnaire captured the inclusion criteria before being entered into SPPS and provided the data for the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status. Questionnaires with missing information were removed or deleted from the database.

The research question (s) which that guided the study:

RQ1. What is the relationship between CWB measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox , 2006) and EI measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections?

H01: There is no significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox , 2006) and EI as measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections.

H1. There is a significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox , 2006) and EI as measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections.

To evaluate RQ1, I employed a simple linear regression analysis which examined the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB and the independent variable of EI. The use of Cronbach's Alpha tested the instrument's reliability. In addition, Durbin Watson and Person's Correlation was used to examine the relationship between the leaders' CWB and ET by testing for the strength and direction of the correlational relationship.

RQ2. What is the relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox , 2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections?

H02: There is no significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox , 2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections.

H2. There is a significant relationship between CWB as measured by Spector and Fox (2006) CWB checklist, age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections.

To evaluate RQ2, I employed multiple linear regression analysis to examine the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB and the independent variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status. Multiple regression builds on bivariate regression by adding more predictor variations to the equations. Therefore, multiple regression estimates how several independent variables affect the dependent variable. The researcher tested the multiple regression assumptions in SPPS by checking the regression model for homoscedasticity, multivariate normality, and no multicollinearity. The test for homoscedasticity used a scatterplot to test and display the results.

Threats to Validity

The word validity is related to the concept of truth; in research, valid findings accurately describe or reflect the phenomenon under the study. Many considerations are necessary to promote valid findings in research; These include understanding whether (a) the method of data collection in the quantitative study enables the researcher to answer

the specific research questions, (b) the type(s) of data collected questionnaire, assessment tools such as the WLEIS and CWB-C will enable the researcher to answer the questions, (c) the sample of data collected enables the researcher to address a target question, (d) the assessment tools and the researcher asked the participants questions that were appropriately aligned to the research question, and (e) the researcher included enough participants to gather the information for the study. The concept of validity broadly reflects the idea that research findings reflect the actual phenomenon, and the tools of measurement appropriately assess what they were intended to measure. (Burkholder, 2016).

External Validity

Convenience sampling was selected to recruit the participants for the study. There is a benefit of using this approach because the approach attracts a larger sample size and is beneficial where participant may be difficult to attract. However, using convenience sampling increases the risk of selection bias by the researcher and participant bias by the participant to generalize the data (Creswell, 2014). Because of recent national media attention concerning employee misconduct or CWB in the Federal Bureau of Prisons, there could be a fear of participants by the employees and the organization. Another potential external threat to validity is the perceived time the completion of the instruments will take for the applicants to complete. The most significant external threat to validity is the online self-report of the Wong and Law (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS), the CWB Checklist (CWB-C, 2004), and the Demographic Workplace Questionnaire. Additionally, the use of online questionnaires can result in nonresponsive

bias. To minimize this threat, an additional posting of the informational flyer will be posted to the LinkedIn platform as a follow-up contact after 15 days.

Internal Validity

In a quantitative methodology, the research relates numerical data to research findings. In this case, validity indicated whether the measuring instrument accurately reflects the behavior measures in the data. The researcher obtains validity when data is a meaningful and appropriate interpretation of the data gathered from the analysis instrument (Surucus & Maslakci,2020). Whiston (2012) asserted that validity is when the researcher can gather the appropriate data by the tools use as the instrument of measure. Numerous potential mediators and moderators in the work environment could threaten internal validity. Mediation occurs when the possibility of an intervening variable passes through the independent to affect the dependent variable, which is known as mediation. There are numerous approaches to performing a mediation analysis. If directed by the research, the Baron and Kenny approach, a four-step process that provides two paths to the dependent variable will be utilized. Multiple regression is the last step in analyzing mediation using the Baron and Kenny approach. Moderation occurs when the relationship between two variables depends on a third variable Moderation can tell the researcher whether the strength of the relationship between the predictor variable and the dependent variable changes based on the value of a third variable (Walden University, LLC. Producer 2017r).

Construct Validity

Construct validity is when the research instrument appropriately measures or assesses the data, behavior, concept, or idea for the intended measure (Surucus & Maslakci, 2020). Validity can be diminished by a measures lack of reliability. To the degree that the researcher used a scale that consistently and accurately measured the phenomenon, the tool achieves construct validity (Burkholder et al., 2016).The researcher will utilize the Wong and Law (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) and the CWB Checklist (Spector & Fox , 2006) in this study. Both have demonstrated their reliability in measuring EI and CWB.

Research performed by Kundi and Badar (2021), the study examined how interpersonal conflicts enhance the propensity of CWB. The author examined how a person's EI could be affected depending on their gender. The author measured the EI of the employees using 12 items of the WLEIS, which encompass self-emotions, others' emotions, use of emotions, and regulation of emotions. In this study, each subscale used four items to measure the corresponding component of EI. There were 193 participants in the study. The Cronbach's alpha was used on the WLEIS to assess the scale's reliability and internal consistency for the study. The Cronbach alpha achieved reliability and validity with a significant level of 0.87, which is well above the 0.5 acceptable limits. As measured by WLEIS, EI was negatively correlated with interpersonal conflict, meaning the lower the EI, the higher the likelihood of being involved in an interpersonal conflict. The conclusion is that the WLEIS proves to be statistically valid.

Ethical Procedures

As with any developed and civilized society, scientific procedures include the regulation of ethics and ethical behavior. The goal of the Institutional Review Boards is to set up protection within organizations with rules and regulations to govern research activity (Shivadas et al., 2021). The need for the types of review boards has gained importance from our mistakes and misconduct of the past. The world governing body published the Nuremberg code in 1947 due to the unethical experiments by Nazi scientists on human subjects. The Nuremberg code focused on ensuring the following: a) the need for informed consent and limiting research involving humans, b) the anticipated benefits should outweigh the risk, c) qualified scientists, should only conduct research, d) the research should avoid physical and mental suffering and, e) avoid human research that may result in disability or death (Shivadas et al., 2021; Ghooi, 2011; Weisleder, 2022). Due to some researchers interpreting the Nuremberg Code as a document of condemnation of Nazi atrocities, many researchers ignore the directives. Using content for the Nuremberg Code of 1947, the World Medical Associate published the Helsinki Declaration in 1964. The Helsinki Declaration laid the foundation for ethical governance and the implementation of many organizations' Institutional Review Board process. With the publishing of the Belmont Report in 1979, ethical governance reached its highest peak. This report opened the doors for the current form of ethical governance in research (Shivadas et al., 2021; The Belmont Report, 1979; Weisleder, 2022).

I strived to protect the rights of the participants, the partner organizations, and Walden University by ensuring the Institutional Review Board's rules and regulations are

strictly adhered to in this research. No data was collected without the participant's written consent and prior to written approval by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Walden University. Once the IRB provided their approval, I ensured that an informational flyer was posted to LinkedIn and potential candidates was able to view the informational flyer via LinkedIn or Facebook with an explanation of the purpose of the study. The correspondence included a) the duration of the expected participation, b) detailed instruction for the required information to be captured, c) a statement explaining confidentiality of the data collection, d) the informed consent to participate, and e) a statement describing how they may withdraw from the study at any time.

I made the participants aware of their rights to privacy and safety concerning their participation in the study. The flyer and consent form contained a toll-free crisis hotline in case of any physical or mental discomfort. The participants was also given a description of how I would collect and manage the data. Anonymity was ensured by de-linking the participant email addresses when necessary and using Survey Monkey, a third-party survey company. I did not offer any incentives to participate in the study. By not offering any incentives, the research was able to avoid the appearance of coercion.

Summary

This quantitative study examined the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB and the independent variables of EI, age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections. The correlational research design included a design using correlation, multiple regression data analysis, and the convenience sample approach. The study population consisted of current and former leaders in corrections across the United

States. I used the following instrument to capture the data, the WLEIS and the CWB-C. The demographic workplace questionnaire gathered demographic information such as age, gender, education level, and veteran status. In addition, I used extreme care to reduce threats to validity and protect the privacy and rights of the participants. Chapter 4 displayed the statistical results in tables, charts, and graphs.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This quantitative correlational study examined the relationship between the dependent variable CWB and the independent variable of EI among leaders in Corrections. The control variables were age, gender, education, and veteran status. The specific research problem addressed in the study was the gap in the literature based on the limited studies concerning the relationship between counterproductive work behavior and emotional intelligence (Dirican & Erdil, 2020). The research questions and hypothesis are as follows.

RQ1. What is the relationship between CWB measured by the Spector and Fox (2006) CWB Checklist (CWB-C) and EI measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections?

H01: There is no significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and EI as measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections.

H1. There is a significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and EI as measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections.

RQ2. What is the relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections?

H02: There is no significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections.

H2. There is a significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and the age, gender, education, and veteran status of leaders in Corrections.

This chapter includes the data collection process, the techniques used for data analysis, and the results of this study. Additionally, I reported the demographic characteristics as recorded in the demographic workplace questionnaire. This chapter also notes any deviations from the original research proposal and the statistical analysis findings, including instrument reliability, probability values, and tests. I used a simple linear regression, multiple linear regression, and correlation to evaluate the research questions and test the hypotheses.

Data Collection

On January 19, 2023, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved this study through Walden University (approval #01-19-23-0995513), which is a prerequisite for the study to be conducted. On January 19, 2023, at 11:00 p.m., the information flyer was posted to the professional social media site LinkedIn to solicit and recruit participants for the study. The informational flyer was shared over 180 times and forwarded by other platform users. On January 24, 2023, the research reached the minimum sample size of at least 55 participants and exceeded the goal of 75 participants within one week. On January 31, 2023, the questionnaire was closed with 94 responses. Of the 94 responses,

84 were deemed completed questionnaires, reflecting a 90% completion rate. There were five outlier responses removed, leaving 79 participants in the study. The participants completed the demographic workplace questionnaire, the WLEIS, comprised of 16 items and used four dimensions to assess emotional intelligence. Participants self-rated themselves using a seven-point Likert scale encompassing a range of responses from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree) (Wong & Law, 2002). Participants also self-rated themselves on the CWB-C, which was comprised of 45 items to assess counterproductive work behavior by describing behavioral reactions and the frequency of such behaviors. Participants self-rated themselves using a five-point scale ranging from "never" to "every day." The total of the answers to the questions and higher scores indicate greater levels of CWB (Spector et al., 2006).

Descriptive Statistics

The participants' employment status was 39 (49.4%) current and 40 (50.6%) past or retired corrections leaders, with 79 total participants in the study. The demographic workplace questionnaire included the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status. I created a subgroup for the respondents' ages with ranges to assist with anonymity and ease of answering. The majority (45.6%) of the participants ranged between 55 and 64 years of age. The sample population included more male participants at 50 (63.3%) than female participants 29 at (36.7%) in the study. There were 22 (27.8%) participants who were veterans of the United States Military, which meant serving more than 180 days and receiving an honorable discharge. The majority, 74 (93.7%) of the

participants reported having taken college courses above the high school level. See Table 1 for the detailed demographics.

Table 1

Workplace Demographics

Variables		*N*	%
Employee Status			
	Current	39	49.4
	Retired or Past	40	50.6
Age			
	25-34 years	0	0
	35-44 years	14	17.7
	45-54 years	27	34.2
	55-64 years	36	45.6
	65-74 years	2	2.5
Gender			
	Female	29	36.7
	Male	50	63.3
Veteran Status			
	Yes	22	27.8
	No	57	72.2
Education Level			
	High School	5	6.3
	Some College	9	11.4
	Associate Degree	7	8.9
	Bachelor's Degree	35	44.3
	Master's Degree	19	24
	Doctoral Degree	4	5.1

Sampling

The convenience sampling method was used by posting the informational flyer to a frequently visited correctional platform on LinkedIn. The active site participants liked and reshared the questionnaire multiple times. These social media sites made the participants' messages available to their contacts and created an avenue for automatic snowball sampling (Hoda et al., 2022). The informational flyer provided a brief introduction to the study. The participants were directed to SurveyMonkey by a link or QR code, the landing page for the consent form, and the anonymous questionnaire, which consisted of the demographic workplace questionnaire, the counterproductive work

behavior checklist, and the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale. I exported the data from SurveyMonkey into a portable document format (PDF). I protected the participants' anonymity throughout the data collection process. The questionnaires in SurveyMonkey assigned a unique identifier, and once exported, I assigned each printed questionnaire a numeral 1-94.

Of the 94 participants, only 10 were not eligible for the study. I screened the data by the recruitment criterion, which revealed that two individuals did not meet the supervisory criterion. Eight participants skipped several questions, thus rendering their questionnaires ineligible for participation. By using the LinkedIn platform and the convenience sampling method, rather than the random sampling and the specific database for the employees of the Department of Corrections and the Federal Bureau of Prisons, the sample population in this study may not fully represent the diverse characteristics of age, gender, veteran status, and education represented in the literature or those actual agencies. The study's results may be generalized only by the characteristics of those correctional professionals who participated on the LinkedIn social media site and via the SurveyMonkey Questionnaire.

Study Results

The G* Power analyses determined that a minimum sample size of 55 would be needed for the linear and multiple regression to evaluate the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis. The effect size of the population was set at .15 to detect a small effect. The alpha level was at the .05 level. The power level was at 0.80, with the number of

predictors set at 5. The G* power actual power was 0.8038932. If not true, there was an 80 percent probability of rejecting the null hypothesis (Faul et al., 2007).

Scale Reliability

The two scales used for the study, the CWB-C and the WLEIS, were exported from SurveyMonkey. Using Cronbach's alpha, I checked the scales' reliability. The Cronbach Alpha is a widely used and one of the most cited sources in psychological research (McNeish, 2018); however, there is no universally accepted minimum value for all scales defined by Cronbach's alpha. In research, the suggested value of Cronbach Alpha is more significant than .7, and the higher the value, the better indication of reliability (Cho & Kim, 2015). Cronbach's alpha scores were .815 for the CWB-C and .823 for the WLEIS, which was above the .7 recommendation. See Table 2 for Cronbach's alpha details.

Table 2

Scale Reliability Statistics

Scale	Number of Items in Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist	45	.815
Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale	16	.823

Scoring the measures for the participants' emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior was the next step in the process. To calculate the WLEIS, I averaged each participant's responses across the four dimensions: self-emotional appraisal (SEA), regulation of emotions (ROE), use of emotion (UOE), and others-emotional appraisal (OEA). I then averaged all 16 items. Each participant received

a total of five separate scores. The scores ranged from 2 to 7, with the greater scores indicating a higher level of emotional intelligence (Law et al., 2004).

To calculate the CWB, I summed each participant's responses across the two subscales: counterproductive work behavior toward the organization (CWB-O) and counterproductive work behavior towards an individual (CWB-I), before summing all 43 items. There are 45 questions in the CWB-C, but the evaluation only uses 43 to calculate the scoring process. The scores ranged from 43 to 75, with the higher scores indicating a higher level of counterproductive work behavior (Spector et al., 2006).

Exploratory Data Analysis

Assumptions for Correlation

I tested the correlation assumption using the Pearson Correlation and Durbin-Watson test to explain the correlation in the data. With 79 participants, I conducted a linear regression and checked for a correlation between counterproductive work behavior and emotional intelligence. In Table 3, the Pearson Correlation test revealed a significant negative correlation of -.355 at the .001 level. I then examined the Durbin-Watson test for autocorrelation between the two variables. If Durbin Watson's value is less than two, there is autocorrelation. The model summary in Table 4 shows the value for the Durbin Watson was 1.781; therefore, autocorrelation exists between the two variables.

Table 3

Pearson Correlation Test

Scale		CWB-T	EI-T
CWB-T	Pearson Correlation	1	-.355**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	79	79
EI-Pearson Correlation		-.355**	1
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.001	
	N	79	79

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the .001 level (2-tailed).

Table 4

Durbin Watson Test

					Change Statistics					
Model R	R Square	Adjusted R	Adjusted Square	Std. Error of Estimate	R Sq. Change	F Change	Df1	Df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin Watson
1	.355a	.126	.114	6.02142	.126	11.074	1	77	001	1.781

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), EI-T, b. Dependent Variable: CWB-T

Linear Regression Results for RQ1

To analyze the data results for RQ1, what is the relationship between CWB measured by the Spector and Fox (2006) CWB Checklist (CWB-C) and EI measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections? I conducted a simple regression analysis and tested the associated hypotheses: The sample size of at least 55 participants was needed to achieve the 80-power threshold. With a final sample size of 79, the model summary in Table 5 included the R, R Square, Adjustable R Square, and the standard error of the estimate. The R Square is .126, which says that emotional intelligence explains 13% of a person's counterproductive work behavior, which is significant. In Table 7, the data in the ANOVA model verify the significance of the model; if the model is not significant, the researcher will take great caution interpreting or not interpreting and discarding the data. The ANOVA model's significant value is

below the .05 conventional threshold at .001, which is significant. In Table 8, the Coefficients model is significant at the .001 level. Therefore, the models are significant, and it is appropriate to reject the null hypothesis. In rejecting the null hypothesis, the research confirms that there is a significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox, 2006) and EI as measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections. Even though the effect of EI is statistically significant, a 13% explanation of CWB by EI is relatively small.

Table 5

Model Summary Linear Regression

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.335a	.126	.114	6.02142

Note: a. Dependent variable CWB-T, b. Predictor: ET

Table 6

Model Summary Multiple Regression

Model	R	R	Adjusted	Std. Error of	R Sq.	F	R Square		
Sig F.	Change	Square	Square	Estimate	Change	Change	Change	Df1	Df2
1	.401	.161	.115	6.01833	.161		3.541	74	.011

Note: a. Predictor (Constant), EI-OEA, EI-SEA, EI-UOE, EI-ROE, Dependent Variable: CWB-T

Table 7

ANOVA Model For EI-T

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	401.514	1	401.514	11.074	.001b
Residual	2791.828	77	36.258		
Total	3193.342	78			

Note: a. Dependent variable CWB-T, b. Predictors: (Constant) EI-T

Table 8

Coefficients a Model

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig
1 Constant	71.470	5.954		12.003	<.001
EI-T	-3.264	.981	-.355	-3.328	.001

Note: Dependent Variable: CWB-T

Table 9

Correlations Model CWB Dependent and EI by dimensions SEA, ROE, UOE, OEA

Model		CWB-T	EI-SEA	EI-ROE	EI-UOE	EI-OEA
Pearson Correlation	CWB-T	1.0000	-.263	-.224	-.221	-.392
	EI-SEA	-263	1.000	.573	.557	.519
	EI-ROE	-.244	.573	1.000	.419	.578
	EI-UOE	-.221	.557	.419	1.000	.580
	EI-OEA	-.392	.519	.578	.580	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	CWB-T		.009	.024	.025	<.001
	EI-SEA	-009		.000	.000	.000
	EI-ROE	.024	.000		.000	.000
	EI-UOE	.025	.000	.000		.000
	EI-OEA	.000	.000	.000	.000	
N	CWB-T	79	79	79	79	79
	EI-SEA	79	79	79	79	79
	EI-ROE	79	79	79	79	79
	EI-UOE	79	79	79	79	79
	EI-OEA	79	79	79	79	79

Assumption Testing for Multiple Regression

Multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, and multivariate normality were tested and analyzed for the study.

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity was tested between the independent variables using the collinearity diagnostic function within SPSS. The presence of multicollinearity is assumed in a model when the independent or predictor variables correlate within

themselves (Ho, R. (2006). The collinearity diagnostics in Table 10 measured tolerance values of EI (.856), age (.981), gender (.720), veteran status (.810), and education level (.833). These values were all above the recommended value of greater than .1 for the non-presences of multicollinearity. If the variable's value is less than .1, there would be the possibility of a concern with collinearity. Therefore, there is no concern about collinearity in the model.

Homoscedasticity

The test for homoscedasticity used a scatterplot to test and display the results. The scatterplot shows the value along the X axis for the regression standardized predicted and the Y axis for the regression standardized residual value. The charts standardized residual values are uniform and without cluster in the scatterplot, indicating a condition of homoscedasticity. In Chart 1, my examination of the scatterplot indicated a uniform pattern in the distribution of the residuals; therefore, the model met the assumption for homoscedasticity.

Multivariate Normality

Additionally, the final assumption tested was the multivariate normality. The multivariate normality was determined by computing a linear regression and selecting the Mahalanobis distance test in SPSS. I used the Mahalanobis distance test to identify outliers for the four (4) dependent variables age, gender, veteran status, and education level. The Mahalanobis distance test identified the presence of outliers in the data in the first test. I compared the Mahalanobis distance value of 10.49 against a critical value of 9.49 at a $p < 0.001$ significant level. The five (5) rows computed with the greatest value

were considered outliers and were eliminated, with emphasis on values greater than 10.49. I then conducted a second Mahalanobis distance test, shown in Table 11; the multivariate normality test shows that the Mahalanobis distance maximum value is 8.24, which is less than the critical value of 9.49 at $p < 0.001$, thereby indicating that normality exists.

Table 10

Collinearity Diagnostic Model

Model (Constant)	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
Emotional Intelligence	.856	1.168
Age of Respondent	.981	1.019
Gender	.720	1.389
Education Level	.833	1.201
Veteran Status	.810	1.235

Figure 7

Homoscedasticity Test

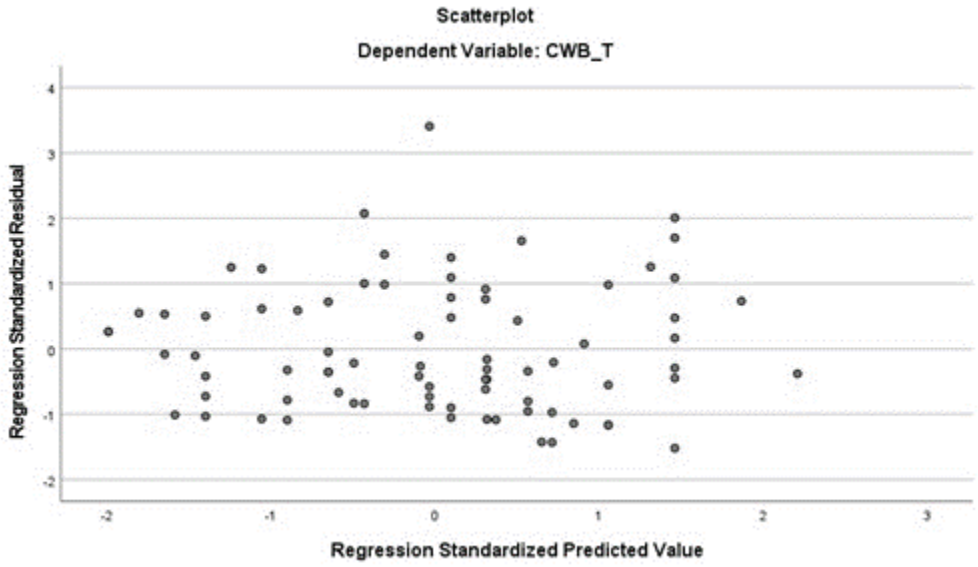


Table 11

Multivariate Normality Test – Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Predicted Value	50.2682	53.4711	51.7848	.76273	79
Std. Predicted Value	-1.988	2.211	.000	1.000	79
Standard Error of Predicted Value	1.229	2.243	1.619	.266	79
Adjusted Predicted Value	49.9606	53.7136	51.798	.88878	79
Residual	-9.9007	22.24002	.00000	6.35284	79
Std. Residual	-1.518	3.410	.000	.974	79
Stud. Residual	-1.552	3.545	-.001	1.007	79
Deleted Residual	-10.3549	24.03943	-.01338	6.79224	79
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.568	3.865	.005	1.027	79
Mahalanobis Distance	1.780	**8.240**	3.949	1.644	79
Cook's Distance	.000	.203	.014	.026	79
Centered Leverage Value	.023	.106	.051	.021	79

Means Comparison, Simple and Multiple Regression for RQ2

To analyze the data results for RQ2: what is the relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox, 2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections? I analyzed a mean comparison and conducted a simple and multiple regression analysis to test the associated hypotheses: The sample size of at least 55 participants was needed to achieve the 80-power threshold. With a final sample size of 79, I conducted a multiple regression analysis by adding the control variables to the model, including the dependent variable of CWB. In Table 12 included the model summary includes R, R Square, Adjustable R Square, and the standard error of the estimate. The R Square is .014 and can be different for the adjusted R Square at -.039.

The ANOVA's model data verified the significance of the model; if the model is insignificant, the researcher would take great caution interpreting or not interpreting and discarding the rest of the data. In Table 13, the ANOVA model's significant value is well above the .05 conventional threshold at .898, which is insignificant. In Table 15, the Coefficients model is also insignificant measuring age (.542), gender (.550), veteran status (.805), and education level (.603), which are all well above the .05 conventional threshold. This data was discarded, and the null hypotheses accepted. In accepting the null hypothesis, the research affirms there is no significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox, 2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections.

Table 12

Model Summary Multiple Regression 2

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.119a	.014	-.039	6.52227

Note: a. Dependent Variable: CWB-T, b. Predictor: (Constant) Age, Gender, Veteran Status, and Education Level

Table 13

ANOVA For Control Variables

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	45.377	4	11.344	.267	.898
Residual	3147.965	74	42.540		
Total	3193.342	78			

Note: a. Dependent variable CWB-T, b. Predictors: (Constant) Age, Gender, Veteran Status, and Education Level

Table 14

Coefficients (a) Model

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig
1 (Constant)	50.692	5.207		9.736	<.001
Age	.057	.093	.071	.613	.542
Gender	-1.040	1.732	-.079	-.601	.550
Veteran Status	-.452	1.827	-.032	-.247	.805
Education Level	-.309	.639	-.060	-.484	.630

Note: a. Dependent Variable: CWB-T, b. Predictors: (Constant) Age, Gender, Veteran Status, and Education Level

I also conducted a means comparison to compare the mean CWB within the control variables and analyze the significance of their difference. The age groups were 18 to 24, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 55 to 64, and 65 to 74. The results of the CWB mean comparison for the control variable of age is displayed in Table 15.

Table 15

Age Means Comparison

Age Group	N	Mean	SD	Approx 95% Conf Interval
18 - 24	No Data			
25 - 34	No Data			
35 - 44	14	50.07	7.70	45.62 - 54.51
45 - 54	27	52.36	5.77	50.07 - 54.64
55 - 64	36	52.36	6.44	50.25 - 54.46
65 – 74	2	48.00	4.24	45.00 - 53.00

I then conducted a simple regression and obtained an ANOVA to determine the significance of CWB based on the age of the respondents. The ANOVA model's significant value is well above the .05 conventional threshold at .560, which is insignificant. The data revealed no significant difference between CWB means and the ages of the participants.

The means comparison for the control variable of gender was conducted to examine its relationship between males and females and their CWB. The females scores were higher on the CWB-C, than their male counterparts. The results of the CWB mean comparison for the control variable of gender is displayed in Table 16.

Table 16

Gender Means Comparison

Gender Group	N	Mean	SD	Approx 95% Conf Interval
Female	29	52.41	7.84	49.42 - 55.39
Male	50	51.42	5.44	49.91 - 52.92

I conducted a simple regression and obtained an ANOVA to determine the significance of mean CWB based on the gender of the respondents. The ANOVA model's significant value is well above the .05 conventional threshold at .509, which is insignificant. The data revealed that there was no significant relationship between mean CWB and gender among leaders in corrections. Next, I conducted a mean comparison for the variable of education to examine the relationship between the mean CWB and the education levels of high school, some college, associate degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and doctorate degree. Of the 79 participants in the study, 74 (93.8%) reported having higher education. The results of the CWB mean comparison for the control variable of education is displayed in Table 17.

Table 17

Education Means Comparison

Education Group	N	Mean	SD	Approx 95% Conf Interval
High School	5	51.00	5.95	43.60 - 58.39
Some College	9	51.55	6.40	46.62 - 56.47
Associate's Degree	7	52.85	6.91	46.45 - 59.24
Bachelor's Degree	35	52.08	7.13	49.71 - 54.44
Master's Degree	19	51.78	6.91	48.45 - 55.10
Doctorate Degree	4	48.75	4.19	42.08 – 55.41

Next, I conducted a simple regression and obtained an ANOVA to determine the significance of the relationship between the mean CWB and the participant's education level. The ANOVA model's significant value is well above the .05 conventional threshold at .944, which is insignificant. The data revealed that there was no significant relationship between the mean CWB and education levels among leaders in corrections.

Lastly, the mean comparison for the control variable of veteran status was conducted to examine its relationship between the mean CWB of a person with status as a veteran and those with no veteran. The results of the CWB mean comparison for the control variable of veteran status is displayed in Table 18.

Table 18

Veteran Status Means Comparison

Veteran Status Group	N	Mean	SD	Approx 95% Conf Interval
Veteran	22	51.31	5.76	48.75 – 53.86
Non-Veteran	57	51.96	6.66	50.23 – 53.68

I then conducted a simple regression and obtained an ANOVA to determine the significance of the relationship between the mean CWB and the control variable of veteran status. The ANOVA model's significant value is well above the .05 conventional threshold at .690, which is insignificant. The data revealed no significant relationship between the mean CWB and veteran status among corrections leaders.

Summary

This statistical data analysis and the correlational study examined the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB, the independent variables of EI, and the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections. For RQ1: What is the relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox, 2006) and emotional intelligence among leaders in Corrections? The data revealed a statistically significant relationship between EI and CWB. For RQ2: What is the relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C (Spector & Fox, 2006) and the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections? The findings did not reveal a significant relationship between CWB of the

participants and the control variables of the respondent's age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in corrections. However, the mean comparison analyzed the averages between the mean CWB of the variables and supported the research in the literature review. The findings of no significant relationship between CWB and the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status will be detailed in Chapter 5. Chapter 5 of the study will include an interpretation of the research findings, limitations, recommendations, and implications.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This quantitative correlational study used simple regression, multiple regression, and correlation to examine the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB, the independent variable of EI, and the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status. During workplace exchanges between leaders and followers, multiple emotions are experienced, leading to either OCB or CWB. According to the literature review, the competencies of an emotionally intelligent leader may allow them to recognize their own emotions and those of others to better manage workplace situations.

The emotionally intelligent leader may be better able to repress their feelings and support others in their time of need (Gómez-Leal et al., 2022). A leader's emotional intelligence can significantly affect CWBs by mitigating stress caused by changes like a new work assignment, unrealistic deadlines, and political pressures in the workplace (Yadav & Rai, 2020). According to Arief and Anom (2022), stressful conditions in the workplace can trigger CWB. A person's attitude and resilience in handling job stress can determine a positive or negative outcome.

Dirican and Erdil (2020) noted limited studies concerning the effects of EI on positive and negative discretionary behaviors. Although researchers have investigated the topic, we have yet to learn the relationship between CWB and EI compared to employee performance. More research is needed to examine the relationship between CWB and EI among leaders in Corrections. Researchers have recommended future studies to differentiate the influence among the components of EI and the relationship to CWB

(Yadav & Rai, 2020). The present findings, however, revealed a statistically significant relationship between CWB and EI. The data revealed no significant relationship between CWB and the control variables of the respondent's age, gender, veteran status, and education level.

Interpretation of Findings

The 94 participants provided the information necessary to interpret the findings in. There was a minimum sample size of 55 participants needed for the study. Of the 94 responses, 84 were deemed completed questionnaires, for a completion rate of 90%. I manually removed five outliers or respondents' questionnaires, leaving 79 participants.

As outlined in chapter 2, the literature linked CWB with a series of hostile actions in the workplace with the intention of employees to cause harm to other individuals or the organization (Dirican & Erdil, 2020). A leader's EI can significantly contribute to how these discretionary work behaviors play out in the workplace (Dirican & Erdil, 2020). According to Hopkins and Deepa (2018), the National Business Ethics Survey reported that CWB involved 60 percent of management employees. The majority of CWBs involve ethical judgment and a decision-making process. Unethical decision-making leads to CWB and can harm an organization. Simply, a leader's emotions play a significant role in their ethical judgment and decision-making.

According to Dixit and Singh (2019), EI can be one of the most effective tools within a healthy organization. Using EI can strengthen relationships and trust, as well as fostering organizational commitment. Research has linked EI's influence on positive attitudes, promoting organizational citizenship, and mitigating CWB. In contrast, there

are limited studies to differentiate the influence among the components of EI and the relationship to CWB (Yadav & Rai, 2020).

This study sought to understand the relationship between CWB and EI measured across its four dimensions: self-emotional appraisal (SEA), regulation of emotions (ROE), use of emotion (UOE), and others-emotional appraisal (OEA). The CWB-C and the WLEIS measured the participants' behaviors and emotional skills. The control variables for the study were the respondent's age, gender, veteran status, and education level. The Cronbach Alpha confirmed the reliability of the assessment tools for the study. The Cronbach Alpha is a widely used and cited psychological source for measuring scale reliability; however, all scales have some uncertainty (McNeish, 2018). Cronbach's alpha scores were .815 for the CWB-C and .823 for the WLEIS, which was above the .7 recommendation for reliability.

The first research question was as follows: What is the relationship between CWB measured by the Spector and Fox (2006) CWB Checklist (CWB-C) and EI measured by Wong and Law's (2002) EI Scale (WLEIS) among leaders in Corrections? I used a simple regression to examine the relationship between the leaders' CWB and EI, utilizing the simple regression model summary, which included values for the R, R Square, and Adjustable R Square and the standard error of the estimate. The R Square is .126, which shows that 13% of the respondent's emotional intelligence can contribute to explaining a person's counterproductive work behavior, which is statistically significant at the .001 level. Even though the effect of EI is statistically significant, a 13% explanation of CWB by EI is relatively small.

The data supported the alternative hypothesis H1, showing a significant relationship between CWB and EI among leaders in corrections. I also examined the correlational relationship between CWB and EI measured across its four dimensions of self-emotional appraisal (SEA), regulation of emotions (ROE), use of emotion (UOE), and other-emotional appraisal (OEA). In Table 9, the correlational model shows that the correlation between CWB and the four dimensions of EI is statistically significant. The values of the independent variables are SEA (.009), ROE (.024), UOE (.025), and OEA (.000). In Table 6, the multiple regression model summary included values for the R, R Square, and Adjustable R Square and the standard error of the estimate. The R Square is .161, which says that 16.% of the respondents' emotional intelligence in the model using the four dimensions can explain a person's counterproductive work behavior, which is statistically significant at the .011 level. Even though the effect of EI is statistically significant, a 16% explanation of CWB by EI is relatively small. Of particular interest are the two dimensions of SEA and OEA, which show a higher statistical significance at the .009 and .000 levels.

These data also supported the alternative hypothesis H1 and are in line with the study's theoretical framework, showing a significant relationship between CWB and EI among leaders in corrections. Mayer et al.'s (2016) model highlighted the four-branched ability of essential skills of EI: a) perceiving and using emotions to facilitate thinking and thoughts, b) understanding emotions, c) using that information to enhance performance, and d) relationships by managing emotions to promote professional and personal goals. These findings are also consistent with Makkar and Basu (2018), who concluded that a

negative correlation existed between the EI variables and deviance in workplace behavior. These results explain that CWB decreased when a person's EI increased.

As outlined in chapter 2, many factors contribute to an individual engaging in organizational citizenship behavior or counterproductive workplace behavior. Szostek (2019) examined the relationship between gender, age, education, position, and the tendency to engage in CWB or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The findings noted that women commit CWB less than men and display OCB more than their male counterparts. The participant's age was a significant factor positively correlating to OCB and negatively with CWB. The researchers noted that the higher the individual's education, the less likely they were to engage in CWB and more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior (Szostek, 2019).

Krishnakumar et al. (2019) examined 152 active-duty personnel using scenario-based measures focused on workplace emotional occurrences. The authors hypothesized that personnel who developed higher work-related EI would experience positive work performance, organizational citizenship, and less CWB. The study aimed to determine the influence of EI on military performance. The military assessed the participants' workplace EI using the North Dakota Emotional Abilities Test (NEAT) by Krishnakumar et al. (2016) and military records to assess job performance, discipline, or CWB.

The study findings showed that the military personnel displaying higher scores on the emotional knowledge portion of the NEAT performed higher than those with lower scores. Simply, there was a significant relationship between the personnel with higher NEAT scores and positive organizational citizenship behavior. Evidence shows that

work-related EI benefits the military, and those EI skills can transfer to the civilian sector (Krishnakumar et al., 2019).

The second research question was as follows: What is the relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections? To assess this, I conducted a mean comparison, simple and multiple regression, and obtained an ANOVA in SPSS to determine the relationship between the dependent variable of CWB, as well as the control variables of age, gender, education, and veteran status. The means comparison allowed the comparison of the average CWB scores of the participants control variables of age, gender, education level, and veteran status among leaders in corrections. As for the control variables, age, gender, education, and veteran status, they had no statistically significant effect on CWB. The means comparison displayed the age variable separated into six groups 18 to 24, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 55 to 64, and 65 to 74. Of notable interest was that only 14 (17.7%) of this study's participants were in the 35 to 45 age group, and there were no participants in the age groups of 18 to 24 and 25 to 35.

In Table 12, the results of a multiple regression displayed the summary model used to analyze the control variables, which included age, shows the significant value of the R Square is .014, with the significance value in Table 13 being well above the .05 conventional threshold at .898, which is not significant and says that the control variable of age when used in the model only explained 1.4% of the counterproductive work behavior, which had little effect.

The median age in this study was 48 years of age. In Pletzer (2021), their study's median age for the participants was 36.71 years of age; the study revealed that mature employees of more age may be less likely to be involved in CWB than younger employees. The participants' ages in their study ranged between 20.61 to 50.71 years. In the present study, the median age was 48 years of age. With the lack of participants in the age categories of 18 to 24, and 25 to 34, this study's participants mean age of 48 would be considered employees of more experience or older. This finding, while not statistically significant in the model, supports the literature indicating that participant age was a significant factor and negatively with CWB.

I designated gender as either male or female for purposes of this study. In Ju et al. (2019), it was noted that men were more impulsive than women but had more situational control, which allowed them to reframe from being drawn into CWB. The findings in Ju et al. (2019) confirmed that women with a higher level of EI were less prone to being involved in CWB. In the present study, the number of males (63%) outnumbered the females (36.7%) 50 to 29. The median CWB score for females was 52.4138, and 51.4200 for the male counterpart. Table 12 shows the multiple regression summary model used to analyze the control variables, which included gender, showing the significant value of the R Square is .014, with the significance value in Table 13 being well above the .05 conventional threshold at .898; this is not significant and says that the control variable of gender, when used in the model, only explained 1.4% of the counterproductive work behavior, which had little effect.

I divided the education variable into six groups high school or the equivalent 5 (6.3%), some college 9 (11.4%), associate degree 7 (8.9%), bachelor's degree 35 (44.3%), master's degree 19 (24.1%), and doctorate degree 4 (5.1%). Szostek (2019) examined the relationship between education and the tendency to engage in CWB or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The findings noted that the higher the individual's education level, the less likely they were to engage in CWB and more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior. Of the 79 participants in this study, 74 (93.8%) reported having higher education. In Table 12, the results of a multiple regression displayed the summary in model used to analyze control variables which included education, shows the significant value of the R Square is .014, with the significance value in Table 13 being well above the .05 conventional threshold at .898, which is not significant and says that the control variable of education when used in the model only explained 1.4% of a person's counterproductive work behavior, which had little effect. This finding, while not statistically significant in the model, supports the literature indicating that the higher an individual's education level, the less likely they were to engage in CWB.

The respondents recorded the veteran status variable as either yes or no. Of the 79 participants in this study, 57 (72.2%) non-veterans vastly outnumber the 22 (36.7%) veterans. The mean CWB score of 51.9649 for non-veterans was comparable to 51.3182 for veterans. In Table 12, the results of a multiple regression displayed the summary in model used to analyze control variables which included veteran status, shows the significant value of the R Square is .014, with the significance value in Table 13 being

well above the .05 conventional threshold at .898, which is not significant and says that the control variable of veteran status when used in the model only explained 1.4% of a person's counterproductive work behavior, which had little effect. This finding, while not statistically significant in the model, supports the literature indicating the veteran's EI skills can transfer to the civilian sector and mitigate CWB (Krishnakumar et al., 2019).

Therefore, I accepted the null hypothesis and affirmed: H02: There is no significant relationship between CWB as measured by the CWB-C Spector and Fox (2006) and age, gender, education, and veteran status among leaders in Corrections.

Limitations of the Study

As anticipated in Chapter 1, there were several limitations to the study. The initial site selection was the Department of Justice Federal Bureau of Prisons (BOP), where I served on the executive leadership team until my retirement in 2019. This component of the Department of Justice was under scrutiny concerning what the media and members of Congress called a failure to deal with the Covid-19 Pandemic, staffing shortages, and employee misconduct or CWB. There were three formal leadership changes during the time frame of this study. The BOP's Institution Review Board (IRB) denied the approval for the research. The secondary site selection of LinkedIn became the primary site selection. The LinkedIn professional network is a social media site where current and retired correctional professionals meet. With these individuals being on a public platform, the state or federal government bureaucratic regulations were not applicable.

One of the cornerstones of quantitative research is the source of the data. Using the convenience sampling method and restricting the participant to management were

limitations. The study did not represent two crucial age groups, 18 to 24 and 25 to 34. According to Dirican and Erdil a person's discretionary work behaviors will form organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) or CWB. OCB is the positive actions of an employee that contribute to the organization's effectiveness. CWB is the negative actions of an employee meant to cause harm to another individual or the organization. Another limitation was the study only provided participants the option to record their CWB.

There is a benefit to using this approach because the approach attracts a larger sample size and is beneficial where the participant may be challenging to attract. However, using convenience sampling increases the risk of selection bias by the researcher and participant bias by the participant to generalize the data (Creswell, 2014). The data collected was single-sourced and self-reported. In deploying these anonymous self-reported questionnaires, participants tend to give politically correct answers, overstatements and sometimes fail to give candid responses, which can cause outliers in the data. There were outliers in the data, and five cases were analyzed and removed from the study.

Recommendations

This study contributes to the empirical data of the relationship between CWB and EI and the four dimensions of self-emotional appraisal (SEA), regulation of emotions (ROE), use of emotion (UOE), and other-emotional appraisal (OEA). Further extension of the knowledge on training and development in the specific dimension may prove helpful in increasing EI competencies and mitigating CWB. I chose the population sample of corrections and law enforcement leaders because of the limited research in this

highly stressful and scrutinized profession. However, I did not include stress as a variable. In addition, I would recommend that a future study include both forms of discretionary work behaviors which is either organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) or CWB. This would eliminate the assumption that the absence of CWB indicates OCB.

Arief and Anom (2022) found in their study that numerous stressful conditions in the workplace can trigger CWB. A person's attitude and resilience in handling job stress can determine a positive or negative outcome. Yadav and Rai (2020) examined the impact of workplace stress and CWBs using EI as a moderator. Studying this population using stress as a mediator between CWB, OCB and EI warrants further study. Two of the four dimensions, self-emotional appraisal (SEA) and other-emotional appraisal (OEA) had a more significant statistical value and contributed more to the model's significance. Therefore, conducting further research with stress as a mediator between EI and CWB focusing on the two specific dimensions of EI would be beneficial. Forsyth et al. (2020) cited evidence that a person's behavioral tendencies can be measured and developed using tools like the DISCflex. I recommends that future studies examine the relationship between leadership development tools such as the DISCflex or other workplace scenarios or simulations, emotional intelligence, and counterproductive work behavior.

Organizations should be open to recruiting talent from outside organizations but with similar aligned values and expectations of their organizational success. According to Ehsan et al. (2018), organizations should better define a leader's success to be more aligned with the organization's success. Emotionally intelligent leaders who create and build diverse, inclusive relationships with high ethical and moral standards will likely be

high achievers. Leaders who lack EI and are only motivated by financial gains may encounter short-term wins but are more likely to have longer-term challenges resulting in decreased performance and increased CWB. Lastly, I recommend expanding the focus from only leaders in corrections to including subordinate employees at all levels of the organization and expanding the variables to gather data on the different age groups and trends affecting the current challenges of the marketplace.

Implications

Positive Social Change

The social skills competency of EI can also help individuals make positive social changes in their personal lives and the community. EI training will also carry over into the personal lives of those acquiring it, helping them make a positive social change in their work environment and personal relationships. Positive social change is a sense of obligation to our society. We explore the past and present to help develop social skills by focusing on improving human and social conditions. When we expand our knowledge to advance our communities, improve our organizations, and understand and create culture, we can create positive social change to benefit society and understand humankind.

Goleman's (1995) theory of linking EI to prosocial behaviors guided the study's theoretical framework. Goleman's work focused on a person's Emotional Quotient (EQ), known as the skill set of competencies utilized to manage an individual's feelings towards performance and work. The results of this study may assist human resources and training and development in developing a curriculum to recruit, train, and develop the EI competencies associated with its four dimensions self-emotional appraisal (SEA), others

emotional appraisal (OEA), regulation of emotion (ROE), and use of emotion (UOE) to mitigate counterproductive work behavior and its byproducts such as the lack of employee well-being, stress, and poor work performance. Organizations should implement leadership programs that focus on a wide range of relational interactions among all the stakeholders rather than individual positional or general training. Developmental programs should address EI competencies with particular emphasis on the more statistically significant EI dimensions of SEA and OEA, along with self-management, social exchange, and effective communication.

Implementing leadership development tools like the DISCflex would greatly benefit leaders and those they supervise. The DISCflex allows leaders and others to assess work behavior and situations through three perceptual lenses. The three views of the DISCflex can help develop self-awareness by not only seeing but understanding how others view them and why. The report covers a wide range of questions designed around multiple work scenarios the leaders dealt with in the work environment. The DISC Report can help leaders become self-aware, develop, and balance their EI competencies. Organizations should also focus on the documentation of developmental training, which should be equally crucial to the training. Like a rainbow in the sky, adapting to different situations can be calming (Forsyth et al., 2020).

Conclusions

In any organization, the most valuable assets are the people who can be trained and developed. According to Thomas Carlyle's Great Man Theory, the history of humanity, some great men possess particular and specific gifts from God by birth. In the

Great Man Theory, the leader influences people, which gives them power over them (Ruzgar, 2019). Leaders can be born with specific leadership traits, but these characteristics can also be developed by training. This research examined the relationship between CWB and EI, age, gender, veteran status, and education among leaders in corrections. Ehsan et al. (2018) research described the emotionally intelligent leader as friendly, agreeable, sensitive, and with soft skills. Purdhani and Saxena (2020 defined *emotional competencies* as skills that enhance a person's ability to constructively recognize, interpret, and respond to emotions within themselves and others. These soft skills and competencies help to defuse a situation or lead and guide others effectively.

The development of the employee's EI competencies by acquiring training such as empathy, self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship management, and trust can mitigate counterproductive behaviors such as sabotage, being late for work, stealing company property, sexual harassment, and hostility in the workplace costing billions of dollars annually and leading to widespread low morale, employee turnover, health, and well-being problems among employees (Aydin & Tastan, 2019). EI training will also carry over into the personal lives of those acquiring it, helping them make a positive social change in their work environment and personal relationships.

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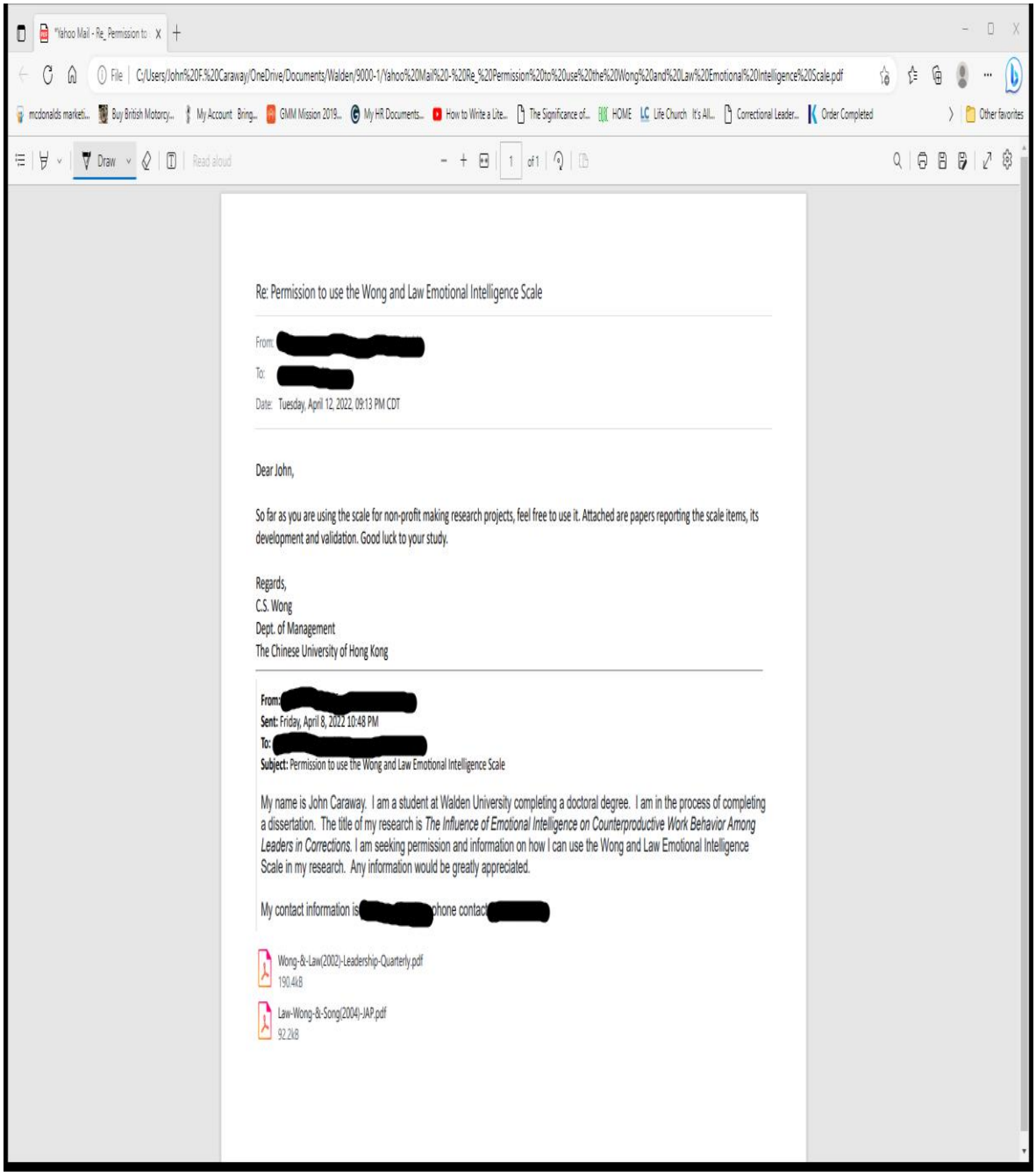
Appendix A: Permission to use the Wong and Law EI Scale



Re: Permission to use the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

From: [redacted]

To: [redacted]

Date: Tuesday, April 12, 2022, 09:13 PM CDT

Dear John,

So far as you are using the scale for non-profit making research projects, feel free to use it. Attached are papers reporting the scale items, its development and validation. Good luck to your study.

Regards,
C.S. Wong
Dept. of Management
The Chinese University of Hong Kong

From: [redacted]
Sent: Friday, April 8, 2022 10:48 PM
To: [redacted]
Subject: Permission to use the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

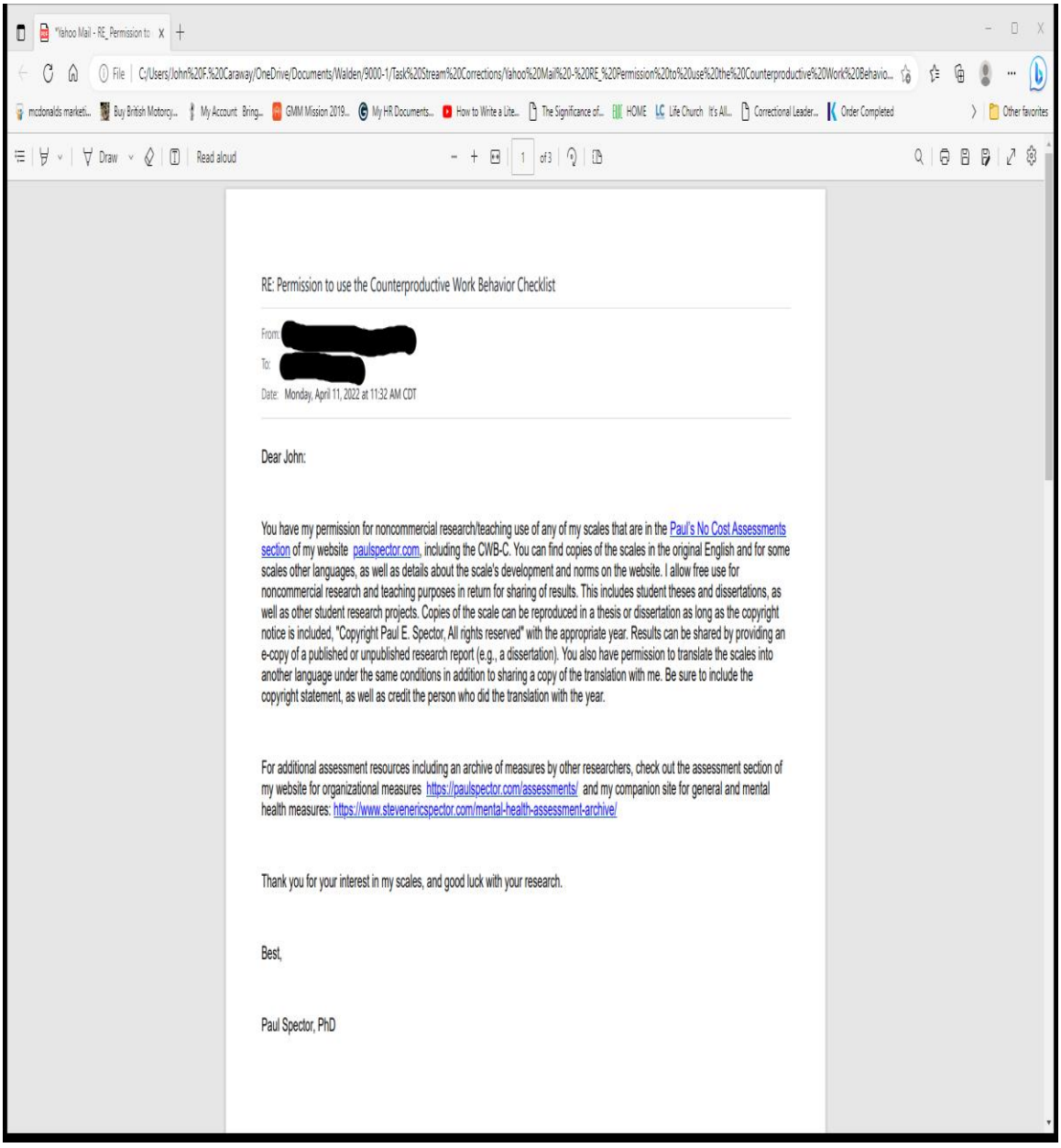
My name is John Caraway. I am a student at Walden University completing a doctoral degree. I am in the process of completing a dissertation. The title of my research is *The Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Counterproductive Work Behavior Among Leaders in Corrections*. I am seeking permission and information on how I can use the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale in my research. Any information would be greatly appreciated.

My contact information is [redacted] phone contact [redacted]

Wong-&-Law(2002)-Leadership-Quarterly.pdf
190.4kB

Law-Wong-&-Song(2004)-JAP.pdf
92.2kB

Appendix B: Permission to Use the CWB Checklist



RE: Permission to use the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist

From: [redacted]

To: [redacted]

Date: Monday, April 11, 2022 at 11:32 AM CDT

Dear John:

You have my permission for noncommercial research/teaching use of any of my scales that are in the Paul's No Cost Assessments section of my website paulspector.com, including the CWB-C. You can find copies of the scales in the original English and for some scales other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms on the website. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector, All rights reserved" with the appropriate year. Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the scales into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

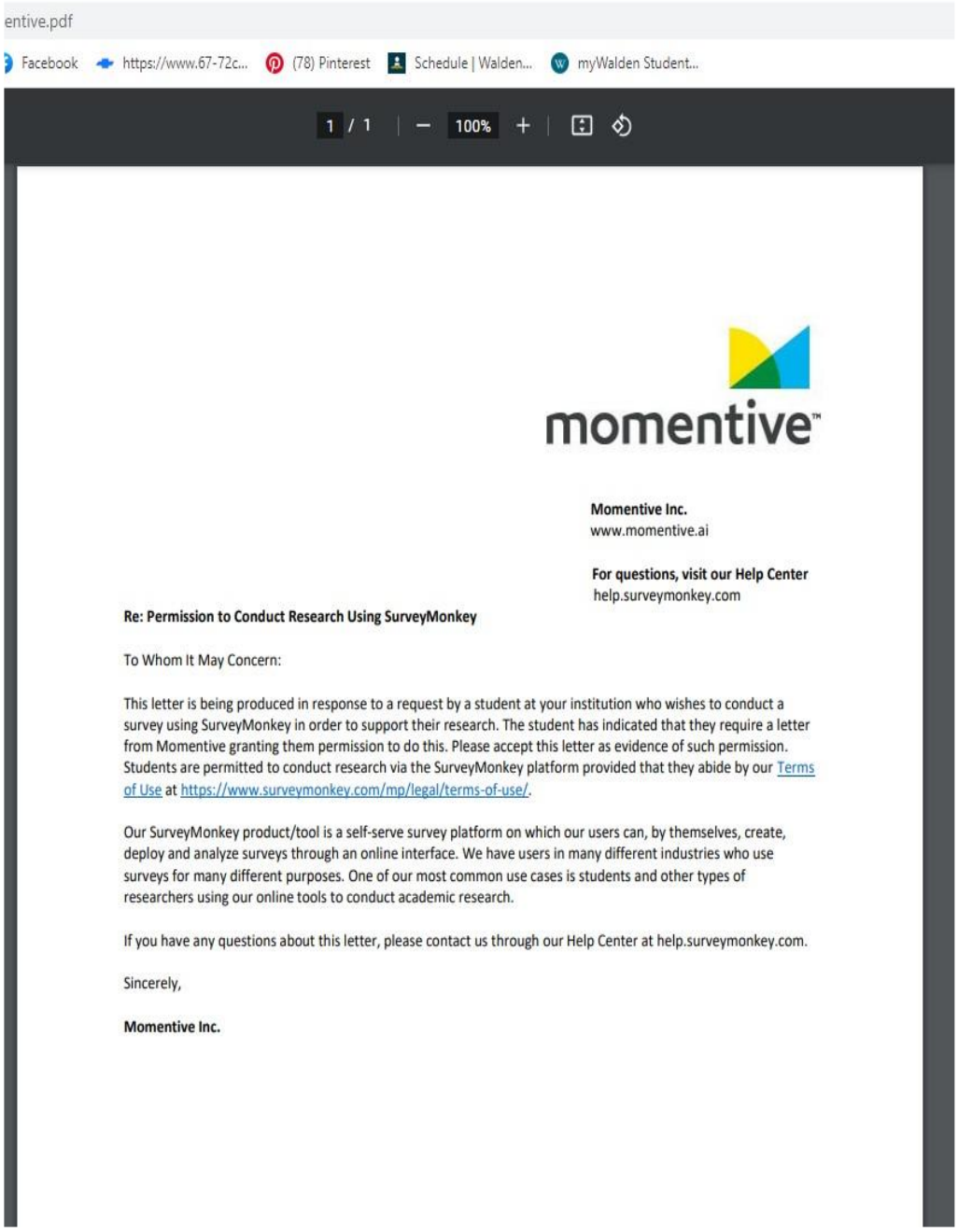
For additional assessment resources including an archive of measures by other researchers, check out the assessment section of my website for organizational measures https://paulspector.com/assessments/ and my companion site for general and mental health measures: https://www.stevenericspector.com/mental-health-assessment-archive/

Thank you for your interest in my scales, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, PhD

Appendix C: Permission to Conduct Research Using SurveyMonkey



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Momentive Inc.
www.momentive.ai

For questions, visit our Help Center
help.surveymonkey.com

Re: Permission to Conduct Research Using SurveyMonkey

To Whom It May Concern:

This letter is being produced in response to a request by a student at your institution who wishes to conduct a survey using SurveyMonkey in order to support their research. The student has indicated that they require a letter from Momentive granting them permission to do this. Please accept this letter as evidence of such permission. Students are permitted to conduct research via the SurveyMonkey platform provided that they abide by our Terms of Use at https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/legal/terms-of-use/.

Our SurveyMonkey product/tool is a self-serve survey platform on which our users can, by themselves, create, deploy and analyze surveys through an online interface. We have users in many different industries who use surveys for many different purposes. One of our most common use cases is students and other types of researchers using our online tools to conduct academic research.

If you have any questions about this letter, please contact us through our Help Center at help.surveymonkey.com.

Sincerely,

Momentive Inc.