

Counterproductive work behavior, job stress, trait emotional intelligence and person organization fit among employees of leasing industry in Indonesia

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Abstract

Purpose: This study aims at comprehending the effect of stress on counterproductive work behavior. As job stress is an individual attitude, trait emotional intelligence (EI) was considered the determinant factor. In addition, the effect of person-organization (PO) fit was also scrutinized as a predictor of job stress.

Design/methodology: The study used quantitative surveys in the leasing industry of Indonesia. 88 valid responses were used in the analysis. The analysis was conducted using Structural Equation Modelling with the help of the Smart PLS. The variables were measured using robust indicators from previous studies.

Findings: The results confirmed three meaningful relationships between counterproductive work behavior, job stress, trait EI and PO fit. Specifically, the analysis found a negative association between trait EI and job stress. It also revealed the negative effect of PO fit on job stress. However, the study failed to provide empirical evidence to support the relationship between job stress and counterproductive work behavior.

Research limitations/implications: This study has low generalization power since it did not construct from large sample size. Future research efforts should consider adding alternative dimensions that could help to better understand and predict CWB.

Practical and social implications: This study provides guidelines for practitioner to select and promote high EI candidates since they are proven to be less susceptible to stress. This study also suggests companies to align working atmosphere with employees' characteristics. It also contributes to social interaction in the workplace by pointing companies to establish less stressfully work atmosphere.

Originality/value: This study considers alternative procedures to measuring counterproductive work behavior compared to those used in previous studies. Additionally, this study includes both personal or individual characteristics and interaction between the person and the organization to predict job stress.

Keywords: Counterproductive Work Behavior, Job Stress, Trait Emotional Intelligence, Person-organization Fit, Indonesia

Jel Codes: M10, M12

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1. Introduction

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) has detrimental effects on organizations. CWB could range from simple misconduct behavior such as using office paper and printers for personal purposes to harassment, violence, or abuse at work (Avey, Luthans & Yousef, 2008). The leasing industry in Indonesia, characterized by a complex and dynamic environment, is less regulated and has low consumer protection (Weku, 2019). Consequently, employees might have an incentive to snare on counterproductive action. Local media of Indonesia reported that several actions had appeared in various types, such as fraud, stealing consumer and companies' money, seizing consumer's asset without appropriate and fair procedure.

Research attention on counterproductive action has increased in recent years. The issue has been discussed theoretically (Keskin, Akgün, Ayar & Kayman, 2016) and examined empirically (Chraif, Tirtiriga & Anitei, 2013; Chraif & Aniței, 2011; Dirican & Erdil, 2016; Keskin et al., 2016; Roxana, 2013; Ugwu, Enwereuzor, Fimber & Ugwu, 2017). Such misconduct has also been investigated in various settings such as academic staff (Dirican & Erdil, 2016), public services employees (Roxana, 2013), employees in multinational companies (Chraif et al., 2013), nurses (Ugwu et al., 2017). Counterproductive behavior could be understood as intentional attributes of behavior that could harm organizational outcomes. For example, Roxana (2013) argued that CWB is a conscious action intended to harm organizations or people within the organization, such as sabotaging, sharing confidential information, or working at a slower rate.

Existing studies have focused on workplace dimensions such as burnout (Ugwu et al., 2017), works stress, organizational climate (Roxana, 2013), organizational citizenship behavior (Dirican & Erdil, 2016), leader-member exchange, and organizational justice (Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014). A peculiar look of counterproductive behavior was also elaborated from an economic perspective, examining the effect of the economic crisis on counterproductive action (Chraif & Aniței, 2011). Previous studies also emphasized individual traits to comprehend counterproductive work behavior such as emotional intelligence (Raman, Sambasivan & Kumar, 2016; Ugwu et al., 2017), physical and mental health (Chraif et al., 2013), or self-esteem (Bai, Lin & Wang, 2016), amongst the most relevant ones.

Research on individual levels, especially employees, suggested that lack of institutional code of conduct, organizational culture, and job volume triggered CWB (Penney & Spector, 2005; Roxana, 2013; Ugwu et al., 2017). Poor workplace conditions result in stress during work and finally evoke incentive to take misconduct action. Chraif and Anitei (2011) provided empirical evidence that work overload will produce job stress, contributing to CWB. Furthermore, employees' fear of being fired could also lead to unproductive action (Chraif & Aniței, 2011). However, employee characteristics and personality determined attitude toward job stress (Desa, Yusoooff, Ibrahim, Ba & Rahman, 2014). Specific traits of personality are expected to influence how a person evaluates their surroundings.

This article contributes to previous literature by including emotional intelligence (EI) in the analysis. EI refers to the ability to manage emotions, which in turn, will affect perception, attitude, and behavior at work. Studies found that leaders with high EI implement more open communication and proactive leadership style (Sunindijo, Hadikusumo & Ogunlana, 2007), more authentic style (Alshammari, Pasay-an, Gonzales & Torres, 2020), and mediate the utilization of followers' strength (Ding & Yu, 2021). Such traits are also positively associated with a high transformational leadership style (Sayeed & Shanker, 2009). Furthermore, several studies found that EI decreases the detrimental effects of emotional exhaustion (Rahman, Ferdauy & Karan, 2012; Raman et al., 2016; Ugwu et al., 2017). Therefore, EI should be considered the contributing factor to determining job stress

and CWB. Trait EI is a behavioral attributes indicating individual disposition and tendencies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Vernon, Petrides, Bratko & Schermer, 2008), and therefore might have a more vivid impact on CWB.

Another dimension that affects job stress should come from the interaction between organizations and individual characteristics. Desynchronization between organization characteristics and employee's personality have been found to result in low job satisfaction (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014), decrease affective commitment, and increase turnover intention (Alniaçik, Alniaçik, Erat & Akçin, 2013). Makraiova, Pokorna and Woolliscroft (2014) argued that person-organization fit is a further stage after person-job fit. However, it is challenging to achieve person-organization fits without congruency between job demand and the person who conducts the job.

This study attempts to comprehend the effect of trait EI and person-organization fit on job stress. It also intends to shed new light on the relationship between job stress and CWB. Trait EI reflects personal traits (Petrides, Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007), while person-organizational fit contemplates the interaction between person and workplace characteristics (Grobler, 2016). The empirical application to test the model investigates the leasing industry, in Indonesia. The industry is unique due to its similarity but less regulated from banks. While banking sector is highly regulated, the code of conduct and government supervision is moderate for leasing industry in Indonesia. In addition, according to a survey of world project justice in 2020, Indonesia is among countries with a low rule of law index, indicating that the society has a moderate level of law enforcement culture. This study could also significant for other countries facing similar characteristics and problems in leasing sector.

This study extended the CWB literature by investigating the phenomena in leasing companies in developing countries. The study also complements the current knowledge on the CWB topic by considering trait EI rather than broadly focusing on general EI. Finally, this study contributed to management practice, mainly by providing empirical evidence that job stress does not lead to CWB, especially in Indonesia, and might also generalize to other countries with similar characteristics.

2. Literature Review

Counterproductive Work Behavior

Many studies have proposed the conceptualization of counterproductive behavior. Scholars argued that the construct covered most inappropriate actions in the workplace (Dirican & Erdil, 2016). Generally, the action is considered deviant and unfavorable (Bai et al., 2016; Penney & Spector, 2005) and could harm the organizations (Ogbonna & Harris, 2002). Dirican and Erdil (2016) argued that counterproductive behavior is a conscious act of employees against legitimate guidelines and hurt the organization intentionally. However, Raman et al. (2016) argued that counterproductive behavior also occurred from unintentional acts. For example, employees might engage in specific behavior without realizing its negative impact.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) classified counterproductive behavior based on the target of action. It could be targeted to harm individuals or organizations. Counterproductive on individuals includes various interpersonal misconduct to co-workers in the workplace both physically and psychologically, such as verbal insult, acting rude, and harassment (Dirican & Erdil, 2016; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). At the organization level, the actions are work-based behaviors, including taking an excessive break, working slow intentionally, ignoring or against organizational policies, stealing, and others (Dirican & Erdil, 2016; Penney & Spector, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Another conceptualization is proposed by Penney and Spector (2005), which categorized the action into five dimensions. The action could be intended to abuse others, produce deviance, sabotages, thief, and withdrawal (Penney & Spector, 2005).

Job Stress

Job stress is defined as a psychological state perceived by a person when dealing with imperative but uncertain outcomes (Sager, 1991). The definition indicated that job stress might occur due to a lack of work-related solutions and unpredicted problems. Such psychological states might appear as the inability to cope with job demand either caused by insufficient capabilities and resources or inadequate motivation and directions. On the other hand, Lechat & Torres (2016) argued that job stress depends on individual traits and stressor stimuli. A

person might engage in stress caused by problems while the other might not. As stressors caused strains on an individual, they can decrease general health conditions (Desa et al., 2014; Lechat & Torres, 2016). Stress at work could be manifested through fear (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), anxious or nervousness (Desa et al., 2014).

Most scholars agree that job stress is an essential predictor of job satisfaction. Researchers found that job stress can lead to dissatisfaction (Alexopoulos, Palatsidi, Tigani & Darviri, 2014; Khamisa, Peltzer, Ilic & Oldenburg, 2017; Yaşlıoğlu, Karagülle & Baran, 2013). It also caused burnout (Khamisa et al., 2017), low quality of life (Alexopoulos et al., 2014), and misconduct behavior (Penney & Spector, 2005). Many factors causing job stress include unclear job requirements, overload, poor leadership, and lack of autonomy (Desa et al., 2014; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Desa et al. (2014) also found that personal characteristics of neuroticism and lying were predictors for job stress. Empirical evidence also supported that person-fit is associated with stress level at work (Deniz, Noyan & Ertosun, 2015).

Trait Emotional Intelligent

Despite various disagreements among researchers regarding the conceptualization of EI, this construct can be understood as a collection of non-cognitive abilities to successfully cope with demands and pressure of surroundings (Bar-On, 1997). In more detail, EI has been defined as possessing four branches of ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008). However, EI was argued to contain two distinct but cross-related dimensions: ability EI and trait EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). EI as ability is related to actual cognitive ability and has a significant role in understanding the emotional context of situations (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Qualter, Barlow & Stylianou, 2011). Therefore, ability EI could be categorized as the emotional ability that focuses on knowledge and understanding emotions. However, there is problematic validity to measure ability EI. Since it was measured as a maximum-performance test (IQ-like), subjectivity bias could occur while evaluating emotional experiences (Petrides et al., 2007; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Trait EI is concerned with a constellation of emotion-related behavioral tendencies and self-perceived ability, often associated with personality or trait emotional self-efficacy (Petrides et al., 2007; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Vernon et al. (2008) argued and provided evidence that trait EI should incorporate personality taxonomy. On the contrary, trait EI is measured through self-report considering personality hierarchies (Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe, & Bakker, 2007; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). However, many scholars distinguished between ability EI and trait EI. Ponterotto, Ruckdeschel, Joseph, Tennenbaum and Bruno (2011) summaries three series of meta-analyses that related to ability EI and trait EI (see Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bhullar & Rooke 2007; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004; Van Rooy, Viswesvaran and Pluta (2005). These studies generally concluded that both trait EI and ability EI were associated with performance in employment, academic, and life settings and the levels of mental health, psychosomatic health, and physical health. However, the studies also revealed that trait EI has more substantial relationships with those variables than ability EI.

Person-Organization Fit

Relying on the interactionist approach, Grobler (2016) argued that PO fit is an interactional concept between personal matter and organizational condition. An individual can self-reflect and make conscious judgments regarding the fit between his/her trait and working conditions (Grobler, 2014, 2016), making a rational decision to choose a job or remain at the job (Cable & Judge, 1996; Grobler, 2016). PO fit was defined as the perception of compatibility or comfort with organization, considering both compatibility and comfort between individual and organization and between individual and co-worker (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski & Erez, 2001). PO fit is a favorable situation that potentially leads to positive outcomes such as affective commitment (Mehtap & Aln, 2014), organization citizenship behavior (Özdemir & Ergun, 2015), job satisfaction, job performance (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014), and innovativeness (Wojtczuk-Turek & Turek, 2016). However, PO fit should not occur at an extremely high level since it could make employees less sensitive toward external changes and stimuli.

PO fit occurs when the organization and employee share mutual needs of each party and identical core values (Kristof, 1996; Grobler, 2016; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2001). In addition, PO fit contains subjective and actual fit (Kristof-Brown & Jensen, 2007). Subjective fit, also labeled as supplementary fit,

occurred when an employee perceived that his/her values were congruent with organization values (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown & Jensen, 2007; Grobler, 2014; Mehtap & Aln, 2014). On the other hand, actual or objective fit appears when the organization and employee are complementing each other needs (Kristof-Brown & Jensen, 2007) includes demands-ability or person-job fit (Cable & Judge, 1996) and need-supplies or direct fit (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). For example, person-job fit focuses on the sufficient congruency between employees' ability and organizational job requirements while need-supplies fit comprises providing needs between each party, such as remuneration and performance.

2.1. Hypotheses

Individuals with high trait EI have social awareness and wisdom to choose alternative actions. It could lead to positive attitudes and consideration in positioning themselves in particular situations. Since job stress is an attitude that can manifest in several ways (Lechat & Torres, 2016), the ability to maintain emotions can deter how a person perceives stress. A high trait EI might lead evaluation to favorable attitudes on working conditions, lowering the possibility of slumping into job stress. Previous studies found that traits EI have a positive association with self-awareness (Sayeed & Shanker, 2009), which implied that traits EI would bring favorable attitudes to take positions within particular problems. Trait EI also contributed when dealing with complex decision making (Di Fabio, Palazzeschi & Bar-On, 2012), reducing tendencies to behavioral problems (Gugliandolo, Costa, Cuzzocrea & Larcana, 2015), and increasing happiness and satisfaction in romantic relationships (Schutte et al., 2007). A study found that trait EI influences stress reactivity and anxiety sensitivity (Choi, Vickers & Tassone, 2014). Furthermore, Lea, Davis, Mahoney and Qualter (2019) conclude that a high trait EI person could recover faster from stressful situations. Therefore, this study hypothesizes as follows:

Hypothesis 1. There is a negative relationship between trait EI and job stress.

The fit between person and organization strengthens intrinsic motivation. The alignment ensures a person works with passions due to value congruency and drive to fulfill higher needs. This condition leads to positive attitudes toward workplace conditions because PO fit makes people comfortable with their job (Grobler, 2014). Since stress occurs when job demands and the ability to complete the job are not balanced, having a high job fit will diminish the disparity between job requirements and necessary resources possession. PO fit has been found to decrease turnover (Alniaçik et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2001), increase organizational citizenship behavior (Özdemir & Ergun, 2015), affective commitment (Mehtap & Aln, 2014), job satisfaction (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014), and performance (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014; Gul, Usman, Liu, Rehman & Jebran, 2018). These studies supported that PO fit has favorable impacts on work outcomes and reduces work problems. Rodrigues, Pina e Cunha, Castanheira, Bal and Jansen (2020) found that PO fit increases individual well-being among ballet dancers, indicating that fit positively influences mindfulness and personal wisdom. In addition, a study found that PO fit has sufficient generalization across countries to deliver positive working commitment (Astakhova, 2016). Moreover, PO fit has empirical evidence to reduce job stress (Deniz et al., 2015). Accordingly, this study proposes the hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 2. There is a negative relationship between PO fit and job stress.

Inability to cope with demands and challenges at work could trigger job stress and lead to unintentional CWB. Stress causes severe physical and mental health (Chraif et al., 2013; Hirokawa et al., 2016; Khamisa et al., 2017), resulting in counterproductive behavior such as delaying results, working slowly, against policies, and among others. Furthermore, job stress could trigger personal conflict among employees or between employees and the organization (Friedman, Tidd, Currall & Tsai, 2000). As conflict occurs, employees are difficult to deliver superior performance. Roxana (2013) and Bai et al. (2016) found a positive influence between job stressors and counterproductive work behavior. Furthermore, similar results were also found to cause counterproductive behavior such as exhaustion (Raman et al., 2016), burnout (Ugwu et al., 2017), occupational stress, and fear (Chraif & Anıteı, 2011). Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3. There is a positive relationship between job stress and counterproductive work behavior.

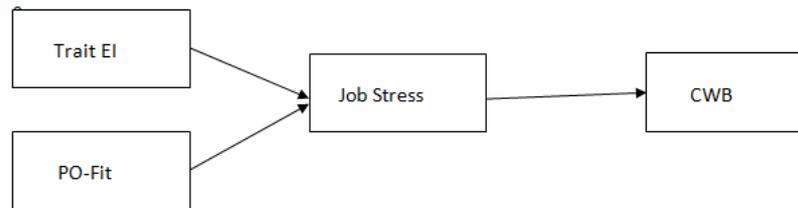


Figure 1. Research Framework

3. Method

3.1. Data and sample

Data were collected from employees of a leasing company in Indonesia who have two years minimum of working experience at the managerial level. The company is a market leader in the leasing industry of Indonesia. A total of 345 middle managers in the companies were asked to participate in the studies. To avoid social desirability bias, the data collection was not attached with companies' recommendation or any related attempts in forcing managers to participate. Each respondent was asked to complete questioner containing personal demographic questions and measurements items. A total of 113 responses were generated that are reflected 32.7 % responses rate. However, after an initial check on missing data, there were 25 incomplete and invalid responses. Therefore, only 88 samples were included for analysis. Nevertheless, the sample size is quite representative to comprehend the phenomena because it focused on the relatively experienced managers. The sample size is statistically acceptable for analyzing with Partial Least Square since the approach is less sensitive with small sample size.

3.2. Measurements

We modified the instruments developed by Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh and Kessler (2006) to measure CWB. The measurement consists of five dimensions: sabotage, withdrawal, productive deviance, theft, and abuse (Spector et al., 2006). This measurement is widely used in the study of counterproductive actions. Spector et al. (2006) measured CWB by the frequency of the actions occurring. Instead of following such procedure, we modified to ordinal scales indicating the degree of the actions. This modification is due to the potential bias that might appear because of inaccurate counting of actions.

We used six items adapted from Crank et al. (1995) to measure job stress. The items indicate employees' feelings of hardness, tension, anxiety, worry, emotional exhaustion, and distress on the job. The measurements are consistent with the stressor stimuli assumption and have been widely used to indicate job stress. Trait EI was captured by means of four dimensions, namely well-being, control, emotionality, and sociability (Petrides & Furnham, 2001), and used the short version of trait Emotional Intelligent Questionnaire (TEIQue-SF) adopted from Petrides and Furnham (2001). The measurements were more convenient to fill than the original version but provided similar validity (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). PO fit was measured using nine items developed by Cable & DeRue (2002). These items measured three dimensions of value congruence, supply-demand fit, and job fit.

3.3. Analysis

We used confirmatory factor analysis for all measurements to identify the validity and reliability and only utilized valid items for further analysis. The confirmatory analysis is conducted with convergent and discriminant validity. We used structural equation modeling to assess the hypotheses and investigate the relationships between variables using Smart PLS. PLS is effective in indicating relationships between variables without reducing the variance, which usually occurs because of aggregation. Moreover, PLS is suitable for sample samples sizes, providing accurate analyses.

4. Results

At the first stage, an initial check on missing data was conducted. 25 respondents did not complete all required answers. Thus only 88 observations remained for further analysis. 78% of the respondents were male, while the

remaining 22% female. In addition, 3% of the respondents had more than ten years of working experience as managers, while others are between 2 to 10 years tenure in the position. Next, we checked on validity and reliability using confirmatory factor analysis. We examined a validity check for three consecutive times to ensure that final items were valid with an appropriate score of average variance extraction (AVE) and Cronbach Alpha. Only valid items with a score loading higher than 0.5 were used for hypotheses testing.

After the first phase of the convergent validity test, 23 items were dropped due to low loading scores. Six items were removed from trait EI, one item from job stress and the remaining items were eliminated from CWB. In the second stage, three additional items were removed: two items from trait EI and one from CWB. The valid indicators, factor loadings of each item, and Cronbach Alpha for each dimension are presented in Table 1.

Variables and Items	Load	AVE	CA
Trait Emotional Intelligence			
Well Being		0.51	0.80
I generally do not find life enjoyable	0.71		
On the whole, I am pleased with my life	0.89		
I feel that I have a number of good quality	0.60		
I believed I am full of personal strength	0.69		
On the whole, I have gloomy perspectives on most things	0.66		
I generally believe that things will work of fine in my life	0.67		
Self-Control		0.69	0.84
I am usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to	0.95		
I tend to change my mind frequently	0.84		
On the whole, I am able to deal with stress	0.92		
Others admire me for being relaxed	0.56		
Emotionality		0.53	0.81
I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me	0.74		
I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint	0.73		
Many times, I cannot figure out what emotion I am feeling	0.63		
Those close to me often complain that I do not treat them right	0.75		
I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me	0.79		
Sociability		0.74	0.83
I can deal effectively with people	0.88		
I would describe myself as a good negotiator	0.92		
I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel	0.77		
Person-Organization Fit			
Value Congruence		0.65	0.72
The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values	0.60		
My personal values match my organization's values and culture	0.92		
My organization's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life	0.86		
Need-Supply Fit		0.69	0.77
There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job	0.68		
The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job	0.89		
The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job	0.89		
Demand – Supply Fit		0.68	0.76
The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills	0.85		
My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job	0.88		
My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me	0.72		
Job Stress			
		0.69	0.88
When I am at work, I often feel tense or uptight	0.86		
A lot of time my job makes me very frustrated or angry	0.91		
I am usually calm and at ease when I am working (reverse coded)	0.52		
I am usually under a lot of pressure when I am at work	0.90		
There are a lot of aspects of my job that make me upset	0.89		
Counterproductive Work Behavior			
Sabotage		0.54	0.60
Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies	0.56		

Variables and Items	Load	AVE	CA
Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property	0.76		
Purposely dirtied or littered your place of work	0.85		
Withdrawal		0.65	0.71
Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you were not	0.89		
Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take	0.90		
Left work earlier than you were allowed to	0.58		
Production deviance		0.63	0.71
Purposely did your work incorrectly	0.86		
Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done	0.77		
Purposely failed to follow instructions	0.74		
Theft		0.76	0.69
Took supplies or tools home without permission	0.82		
Put in to be paid for more hours than you worked	0.91		
Abuse		0.53	0.82
Made fun of someone's personal life	0.82		
Ignored someone at work	0.56		
Started an argument with someone at work	0.88		
Said something obscene to someone at work to make them feel bad	0.62		
Played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work	0.68		
Insulted or made fun of someone at work	0.75		

Table 1. Loading Score, AVE, Cronbach Alpha of valid items and variables

The results indicated high correlations between each dimension of constructs with its higher construct. As shown in Table 2, emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being significantly correlate with trait EI (p -value < 0.01). High correlation is also observed in the relationship between demand-fit and PO fit, need-supply fit and PO fit, and value congruence with PO fit (p -value < 0.01). Similar findings occur in the relationship between CWB and its dimensions: abuse, product deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal (p -value < 0.01). These results indicate a higher degree of inter-correlation between higher construct and its dimension.

The analysis revealed a negative relationship between trait EI and job stress ($\beta = -0.42$, $p < 0.01$), supporting Hypothesis 1, which predicted the negative association between trait EI and job stress. This finding indicates that people with high levels of trait EI could maintain pressure in the workplace. Negative relationship also existed between PO fit and job stress ($\beta = -0.30$, $p < 0.05$). This finding supports Hypothesis 2 that proposed a negative association between PO fit and job stress. These results suggest that people who perceived fit between themselves and organization value experienced less stressful works. However, the study does not find support for Hypothesis 3 (relationship between job stress and counterproductive work behavior) ($\beta = -0.12$, $p > 0.1$).

	β	STDEV	t	Sig.
Trait EI -> Job Stress	-0.42	0.16	2.66	0.00
Trait EI-> emotionality	0.65	0.09	6.40	0.00
Trait EI-> self-control	0.86	0.03	23.36	0.00
Trait EI-> sociability	0.70	0.08	8.56	0.00
Trait EI-> well-being	0.88	0.02	35.45	0.00
P-O Fit -> Job Stress	-0.30	0.13	2.20	0.03
P-O Fit -> demand fit	0.88	0.01	53.02	0.00
P-O Fit -> need-supply fit	0.90	0.02	43.96	0.00
P-O Fit -> value congruence	0.85	0.03	27.93	0.00
CWB -> abuse	0.84	0.04	20.40	0.00
CWB -> product deviance	0.75	0.05	13.11	0.00
CWB -> sabotage	0.70	0.05	12.57	0.00
CWB -> theft	0.76	0.05	14.76	0.00
CWB -> withdrawal	0.64	0.06	9.87	0.00
Job Stress-> CWB	-0.12	0.12	0.83	0.40

Table 2. Hypotheses testing

5. Discussion

The negative association between trait EI and job stress implied that people with a high level of trait EI have superior ability and personality in reducing workplace pressure. The finding supports the previous study of Sayeed and Shanker (2009), which found a positive relationship between trait EI and self-awareness. As discussed earlier, stress might occur as the inability to meet job requirements or job demands using available resources considering all constraints (Desa et al., 2014). Furthermore, people with high trait EI have positive behavioral dispositions (Petrides & Furnham, 2001), enabling them to manage the emotional situation of unequal conditions between demand and ability. The result also supported a previous study of positive correlation between trait EI and complex decision making (Di Fabio et al., 2012). This study also provides empirical evidence of reliability using the short version of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue – SF). Among various measurements of emotional intelligence, TEIQue – SF should be considered an alternative and reliable instrument. However, there are low scores for few indicators in validity test that cause the elimination of several items.

The analysis supported Hypothesis 2, which stated that PO fit negatively influences job stress. The result indicates that congruencies between the organization and individual traits could increase the tendency to maintain stressors at work. This finding supports the previous study of Deniz et al. (2015), who found a negative association between PO fit and job stress. Since job stress appeared as a disparity between job demands and resources availability (Desa et al., 2014), demand-fit conditions could diminish such incongruence (Cable & Judge, 1996; Grobler, 2016). Additionally, congruence in value and fit between personal needs and rewards could increase intrinsic motivation. A highly motivated person usually has the willingness and drive to cope and adapt to workplace environment events in stressful situations. This result also validated the measurement of PO fit developed by Cable and DeRue (2002). All items successfully passed the validity and reliability test, which indicated rigorous indicators of PO fit.

The study did not reveal any significant association between job stress and counterproductive behavior. Such finding contradicts Hypothesis 3, which suggested a negative effect of job stress toward CWB. As argued by Sager (1991), job stress is a psychological state which indicates mental conditions. Such conditions might lead to attitude-related consequences rather than behavioral consequences. Instead of affecting individual behavior, job stress might have a more significant effect on mental situations such as emotional exhaustive (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), burnout (Khamisa et al., 2017; Portoghese, Galletta, Leiter, Cocco, D'Aloja & Campagna, 2017), physical and mental health (Chraif et al., 2013; Khamisa et al., 2017).

Furthermore, CWB might have several issues with validity. Since many items were eliminated during analysis, Indonesian employees' cultural values might perceive different kinds of counterproductive action. For example, telling bad things about organizations might not be considered as counterproductive by employees in Indonesia because it was regarded as self-criticism. Moreover, since the variable was measured using ordinal scale instead of frequencies of actions been taken, few items might be perceived as sensitive and never done while others items might consider typical, which resulted in low internal consistency among indicators.

Data also indicate that trait EI is a better predictor for job stress than PO fit. This implies that behavioral tendencies have more substantial prediction power on how people perceive their surrounding events in high stressor levels. This finding is significant for practical improvement in the leasing industry to select and promote candidates with positive trait EI. Since the works in leasing are high pressure, having managers with relatively stable emotions is crucial to maintain stress. Therefore, companies should also use the trait EI as an essential factor in promoting managerial positions to ensure the person can cope with various stressors.

Trait EI refer to unique personal qualities and are more challenging to modify. Accordingly, companies should focus on shaping the alignment between personal and organizational characteristics. For example, the leasing industry could use the PO fit criteria in the selection and promotion process to ensure fitness between potential employees and the organization. In addition, alignment can be implemented in the employee development implementing specific policies and cultures to support changes in employees' values and attitudes.

6. Concluding remarks

This study presents evidence of the relationship among CWB, job stress, trait EI, and PO fit. Data were gathered from employees of a leasing company in Indonesia. Three main conclusions can be drawn from the analysis. First, stressful conditions that usually lead to mental pressure are not found to trigger CWB. Second, there is a negative effect between PO fit and job stress, indicating that people with similar values with their companies are less susceptible to stress. Last but not least, trait EI has a negative association with job stress. The study suggests that trait EI and PO fit is among the most important predictor of job stress. Also, the analysis revealed that trait EI is more critical than PO fit to predict job stress.

This study could be a guideline for the leasing sectors on how to prevent CWB and job stress among employees. The results discussed are expected to benefit employee's selection, promotion, and placement according to work demands. Furthermore, the study is important for improving working condition in Indonesia since this country has a highly diverse sub-culture which makes the management of PO fit within companies very challenging. Among the main limitations, the reduced sample size constrains the generalization of the results. Thus, future studies should consider using larger samples and other countries with similar characteristics. If the later, comparison studies could be performed examine the effect of culture.

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