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Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

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Abstract:

This study analyzed the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction (JS), and job performance (JP) and the impact each element had on a sample of US working adults. Our review of the literature highlighted the need to research ways to manage these occupational factors. We examined two hypotheses that investigated the use of emotional intelligence as a predictor of employee levels of JS and JP. To test these hypotheses, participants completed a survey using valid psychometric self-report questionnaires. Correlation and simple linear regression methods were used to determine if employee emotional intelligence levels predicted JS and JP levels.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, job performance

1. Introduction

Scholars maintain emotional intelligence (EI) is a key component to individual success (Mehrabian, 2000; Sultana, R., Yousaf, A., Khan, I., Saeed, A., 2016; Doe, R., Ndinguri, E., Phipps, 2015). Research suggests - emotional intelligence can predict certain employee attributes that can ultimately help organizations maximize workforce output (Castillo, & Del Valle, 2017). The purpose of this study is two-fold. First, the research aimed to test the predictability of EI against three dimensions of employee well-being in relationship to job satisfaction (JS) and job performance (JP). Second, this study aimed to contribute to (EI) research and its validity as a theory and business management tool.

1.1. Overview of Emotional Intelligence (EI)

The purpose of the literature review focused on EI literature as it related to the workplace. The first portion of the report provided background information on the main contributors to the emotional intelligence theory. In the second portion of the review, the literature focused on research that examined EI explicitly as a predictor of employee JS and JP.

Salovey & Mayer (1990) introduced the notion of and provided the seminal and most frequently cited definition of emotional intelligence. Salovey and Mayer (1990) offered the following definition of emotional intelligence: "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions, to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, p. 197 2004). Their construct of EI measured aptitude for perceiving, gauging, and expressing emotions. This construct also measured EI by skill for calculating feelings, thoughts, emotional understanding, emotional regulation, and emotional promotion (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). A noteworthy expansion to the EI concept from Salovey and Mayer (1993) was the verbal and non-verbal assessment and expression of EI, regulation of personal emotions as well as emotions of others, and the use of EI in problem-solving. Verbal and non-verbal EI levels took intelligence beyond standard cognition and the intelligence quotient. EI added another dimension of human behavior to measure and examine within people. Unlike EI, IQ focused on verbal knowledge, perception speed, short-term memory, spatial visualization, and other logical capabilities. EI provided a way to measure and assess ranges of personal emotions and knowing how to adjust those emotions depending on the emotions of others and what was transpiring in the current environment.

Once EI was established as a construct, it went through another evolution. From 1920 to 1990, scholars theorized and legitimized EI in the human behavioral field. As Table 3 shows, Goleman (1995) started looking at EI through a business lens and developed another purpose for the study and application of EI. EI was now a way to measure various skill levels vital to driving success through human resources. Not only was there a new tool for business managers to evaluate employees but also a measurement tool that could be more effective than measuring IQ (Goleman, 1995). Shortly after Goleman (1995) popularized EI, a consortium for research on EI was formed to dig deeper into the subject. The consortium went on to conduct a series of five studies. Study 1 examined EI levels among partners in a multinational consulting firm. Partners who scored above the median produced \$1.2 million more in profits. Study 2 examined 300 top-level executives among 15 global companies, and the results showed that six EI traits (influence, team leadership,

confidence, drive, and leadership) highlighted top performers against average performers. Study 3 examined employees performing jobs with a medium difficulty level and found employees with high EI were significantly more productive than workers with low and average EI levels. Study 4 (Spencer & Spencer, 1993) examined sales agents at L'Oreal and found sales agents with high EI sold significantly more and turned over 63% less. Study 5 was conducted on an insurance company. The results showed agents with high EI sold insurance premiums that were double the value of those agents with low EI.

Wong and Law (2002) conducted an exploratory study focused on the EI of managers and employees. The study measured the EI levels of these managers and employees and the impact it had on job performance. Another significant contribution by Wong and Law (2002) to EI theory was a new EI measurement scale. An EI self-report measure was created based on the dimensions referenced in table 1 that was shorter than the previous scales and better suited for research within the leadership and management studies. The literature cited and described contributed to the predictability and validity of the EI construct.

Outcomes of EI can fall into multiple categories depending on the model. Cherniss, (1998) laid out four stages in which emotional intelligence may impact organizational change: (1) paving the way, (2) doing the work of change, (3) encouraging transfer and maintenance of change, and (4) evaluating change. Gignac and Palmer (2007) developed a seven-factor EI model which categorized eighteen work outcomes into seven EI skill categories (see Table 5). A meta-analysis of the relationship between EI and behavioral intentions suggested correlations between EI and several variables such as: demographics, job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Shukla & Srivastava, 2016). Furthermore, a second meta-analysis examining the correlation between EI and health showed an association between EI and health, relationship between EI and three health indicators (mental, physical, and psychosomatic) explaining 5 to 9% of the health variance, significance in the EI ability model versus the trait model as a moderator, and significance in the EI trait model as a moderator with mental health (Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bhullar & Rooke, 2007). However, correlation between the EI ability model and mental health was not significant, and there were not enough results to determine significance in EI and physical health or psychosomatic health (Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bhullar & Rooke, 2007).

The relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational effectiveness has also been extensively researched with results supporting EI as an impactor on leadership and personality (Srivastava, 2013). In addition, EI has been associated with social interactions (Lopes et al., 2006), social relationships, and task performance (Cote and Miners, 2006). Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) revealed the importance of the ability to self-appraise in the service industry due to the high level of interaction between employees and customers. Similarly, Giardini and Frese (2006) noted the importance of service industry employees generating positive emotions as a central component to customer service. The range of possibilities including EI as a predictor has reached into romantic relationships as well. Another meta-analysis reviewed for this study examined six studies with a total of 604 participants, and the results showed a significant association between trait emotional intelligence and romantic relationship satisfaction (Malouff, 2013). Furthermore, that same study revealed associations between EI and individual as well as partner level romantic relationship satisfaction (Malouff, 2013).

1.2. Overview of Job Satisfaction (JS)

Job satisfaction refers to the level of content an employee feels with his or her job (Spector, 1997). Spector defines JS in three parts: happiness an employee feels with the job, satisfaction with the job facets, and satisfaction with supervision. The seminal definition of JS was published in 1969 by Smith and colleagues (Smith et al., 1969). The extant research cited and referred to most often is the JS definition by Locke (1976). Locke (1976) defined it as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1304). Spector (1997) further broke job satisfaction down into fourteen different segments: appreciation, communication, coworkers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of work, organization, personal growth, policies and procedures, promotion opportunities, recognition, security, and supervision. Hulin and Judge (2003) discussed the multidimensional psychological responses to one's job and such responses contained evaluative, emotional, and behavioral components. In general, social attitudes are not reliable predictors of behavior. However, job attitudes can reliably predict relevant job behaviors. Most researchers identify job satisfaction as a global concept made up of various facets (Judge & Klinger, 2008).

Finally, it is vital to note the primary theories of job satisfaction that have been developed by researchers and utilized in multiple studies. Locke (1976) developed the affect theory which is the most popular JS model. This model is centered around the gap between what an employee desires and what the employee feels is reality. Staw and colleagues (1986) developed the dispositional JS model which essentially framed JS as an individual trait. Judge and colleagues (1997) fine-tuned the dispositional theory with the core self-evaluations model which suggested job satisfaction was also impacted by an employee's levels of self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism. Adams (1965) developed the equity theory and Huseman et al. (1987) later extended the definition to say that equity theory was when individuals perceived themselves as either overrewarded or under rewarded. The level of reward triggered which leads to employees attempting to reestablish equity (Huseman, 1987). Higgins' (1998) discrepancy model suggested explanation of the ultimate source of anxiety and dejection was the way to determine job satisfaction. Finally, researchers noted Herzberg's (1976) two-factor theory and Hackman & Oldham's (2014) job characteristics model. The two-factor model attempted to explain the workplace satisfaction and motivation, and the job characteristics model examined how job features impacted job outcomes.

Research has suggested EI has some predictive influence on a person's JS level. The higher a person's EI the more likely they were to be satisfied with their job. Abraham (1999) authored a conceptual framework that would aid in testing EI as a predictor of JS. This framework consisted of nine empirically testable propositions: EI and work group cohesion, EI and performance feedback, EI and performance, EI and organizational commitment, EI and organizational citizenship, EI

as a moderator of role conflict and its outcomes, EI as a moderator of job insecurity and organizational commitment, EI and job control, and job control as a moderator of EI and organizational commitment relationship (Abraham, 1999). The Abraham (1999) study provided a good foundation for examining EI's impact and predictive power in the organizational context.

Fisher (2000) conducted a study on mood and emotions while working, examining both positive and negative emotions and the impact each has on job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence was not looked at, however; the research showed that positive emotion was a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than intense positive emotion (Fisher, 2000). There were practical implications in the study that supported the need to better understand the role emotions play in predicting job satisfaction (Fisher, 2000). The basic conclusions were the following: improving moods and emotions could improve job satisfaction, occurrences that incite emotions should be better managed by organizations, emotions varied job satisfaction, and increasing situations that stimulated positive emotions should increase job satisfaction (Fisher, 2000).

Examining the relationship between an employee and his or her job has been extensively researched over the last 90 years. In addition, JS has been associated with several other organizational aspects. Multiple theoretical models and scales have been developed and cited by numerous researchers. However, various influencing factors have also emerged in the research. Underlying features of JS such as communication and recognition, also played a role in the outcomes of job satisfaction (Kramer, 1986; Teven, 2007; Judge et al., 2002). As noted previously there have been a number of individual factors associated with examining and measuring job satisfaction. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) hypothesized a relationship between emotions, moods, and job satisfaction. Similarly, Judge and colleagues (2002) hypothesized a relationship between job satisfaction and personality. Most definitions and measures of job satisfaction have been based around Locke's (1976) definition which stated positive emotions developed as a result of how a person appraised job experiences.

Therefore, in support of previous research, we hypothesized that individual EI levels will predict individual JS levels. More specifically, EI will predict how satisfied an employee is with their job in general.

- H1: Emotional Intelligence is a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction.

1.3. Overview of Job Performance (JP)

Researchers have noted the positive impact EI has on JP (Shih & Susanto, 2010; Slaski & Cartwright, 2003; Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Law, Wong, Huang & Li, 2008). As such, understanding the intersection of emotional intelligence and employee relationships impacts the outcome of job performance (Shih & Susanto, 2010). Research on JP began with Campbell's handbook "Modeling the Performance Prediction Problem in Industrial and Organizational Psychology" in 1990. This was the first scholarly paper to examine the relationship between employees and their performance as a behavior. Since then job performance research has continued to push forward, and it has been gaining more traction in organizational and management research. Based on the work of Campbell (1990), JP has been best understood as a low individual-level variable. That is, a task or job function a single person carries out, as opposed to higher-level variables such as organizational performance.

Research on JP predominantly fell into three types: 1) task and contextual behavior, which deals in obligatory behavior and behaviors that do not address specific job functions (Asiedu-Appiah & Addai, 2014; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993); 2) citizenship behaviors, which impact the organization as whole, and 3) counterproductive behaviors, which act as obstacles or detractors to organizational goals (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). For the purposes of this review, we focused on task job performance which was more appropriate for examining the impact emotional intelligence has on individual employee job performance.

Campbell (1990) introduced the notion of and provided the seminal and most frequently cited definition of job performance. Building on the job performance definition of Campbell (Campbell, 1990, offered the following definition: Total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time (Borman, Hewes, Overman, & Brown, 2003).

Task-based job performance existed when employees were focused on quantifiable behaviors that contributed directly to organizational goals (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002, outcomes as a direct cause and effect of organizational effectiveness (Smith, 1976), and employee behaviors that directly related to measurable skills and abilities under individual employee control. For example, employees with advanced educational degrees may possess complex skills and abilities that have a greater positive impact on organizational performance. Murphy (1989) described task job performance as accomplishment of duties and tasks outlined in a job description. For instance, activities formally recognized as specific job tasks directly correlating to an organization's core functions or indirectly supporting core functions may be considered task-type job performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Antecedents of JP corresponded to Campbell's (1990) individual-variable type of job performance with declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and motivation as the main factors. A review of multiple meta-analyses found that personality was a significant predictor of job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Similarly, the conscientiousness element of personality was found to have the strongest correlation with job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991) as compared to other personality elements. General mental ability is arguably the strongest individual predictor of job performance (Tracey, Sturman & Tews, 2007).

Contextual-based job performance antecedents most strongly and most related to job performance were unrestricted actions that contribute to an organization's social and psychosomatic principals (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). In addition, an empirical study conducted by Pradhan & Pradhan (2015) revealed various extra-role behaviors such as voluntarily assisting colleagues, nurturing positive working relationships, making contributions that exceed the required level, and participating in employee onboarding; all contribute to organizational effectiveness. In particular the

contextual-based performance elements, as they apply to organizational performance, existed at all employee levels and were negatively related to employee competency levels (Pradham & Pradham, 2015). One result of particular interest from Pradham and Pradham's study were the relationship between Affective Organizational Commitment and contextual performance. Self-control as a means of predicting contextual performance has been recently supported by de Boer, van Hooft, Bakker, (2015). In a study conducted among 296 insurance employees' results showed trait self-control. This supported the line of thinking related to emotions playing a role in (contextual) job performance. Moreover, it confirmed the findings in an earlier study that supported the utility of emotional intelligence as a predictor in organizational studies. The relationship between JP and EI has not been extensively researched; however, findings existed in support of the relationship between the two (Devonish, 2016; Alferaih, 2017; Asiamah, 2017; Castillo, Danvila & Del Valle, 2017). In addition, emotional intelligence and job performance have been associated with job satisfaction, work-related depression, organizational citizenship behavior, cultural adjustment, affective commitment, and turnover intentions (Devonish, 2016; Castillo et al, 2017). Latif and colleagues (2017) conducted a study that revealed the relationship between female high school teachers' EI and JP was mediated through job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Similarly, Sergio and Marcano (2013) found that the demographic profiles among Middle-East bank managers and EI predicted JP. Finally, other studies (Law et al., 2008; Wu, 2011; Shooshtarian, Ameli, & Amin, 2013) have had similar findings in which emotional intelligence correlated with job performance. Therefore, in support of previous research, we hypothesized that individual employee EI levels predicted individual employee JP levels. More specifically, high levels of EI predicted high levels of JP.

- H2: Emotional Intelligence is a significant positive predictor of job performance.

2. Design and Methodology

2.1. Empirical Testing

This section provides an overview of the scales used in order to operationalize the constructs in the model. The focus of the research examined the relationship between EI, JS, and JP among working adults in the US. To achieve this goal, we utilized a quantitative research method. A questionnaire survey approach was used and distributed via a web-based platform. To test the hypotheses, we developed a questionnaire survey based on previous EI studies. The questionnaire was uploaded into SurveyMonkey a SAS (software-as-a-service) platform. Participants were guaranteed confidentiality on personal information such as first name, last name, address, phone number, and email. To ensure a sufficient and targeted sample we used features available within the SurveyMonkey software that allowed us to target a random sampling of 125 working professionals in the US. Individuals meeting the audience requirements were solicited via SurveyMonkey's proprietary processes for panel participation.

2.2. The Survey Instrument

The survey instrument consisted of four sections with questions, and the ability for participants to record and answer in each of the four sections. The four sections were (1) participant demographics, (2) Emotional Intelligence items, (3) Job Satisfaction items, and (4) Job Performance items.

2.3. Demographical Variables

The first section of the survey was an introductory section, which contained screening and control variables such as participant demographics. Acceptable survey participants were required to meet basic requirements: the intended audience members were US working adults. Responses that did not meet the basic requirements were removed from the analysis. Participant-specific variables included gender, race/ethnicity, age and years in current job.

2.4. Emotional Intelligence

The second section of the survey instrument consisted of the Emotional Intelligence portion, using a sixteen-item, seven-point Likert-type scale, developed by Wong and Law (2002). Like many other Likert-type scales WLEIS utilized common anchors such as strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, neutral, slightly agree, agree and strongly agree. For example, "I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time..." with the lowest level response anchor being "strongly disagree" and the highest-level response anchor being "strongly agree." All of the question items for this measure may be found in the Appendices labeled Measurement Scale 1.

2.5. Job Satisfaction

The third section of the survey instrument contained the Job Satisfaction portion, covering three general questions, and a series of eighteen words used to describe the respondent's feelings toward each job satisfaction question. This study only used a modified version of the JDI question 1 job satisfaction in general. The eight negative and one neutral adjectives were removed, and the only the nine positive adjectives were used in data collection. The respondent will simply choose "Y" if the word describes how they feel toward job satisfaction, "N" if the word does not describe how they feel toward job satisfaction, or a "?" if the respondent is undecided about word accurately describing how they feel toward job satisfaction. For example, "think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time?" pleasant, bad, great, etc. The items for this measure may be found in the Appendices as Measurement Scale 2.

2.6. Job Performance

The final section of the survey instrument for this study was the Job Performance section (JP), containing three self-report questions, and was rated by the respondent using a five-point Likert-type scale: 1=poor, 2=fair, 3=good, 4=very good and 5=excellent. The first question asked the respondent to rate how their boss would rate their performance, the second question asked the respondent to quantify their boss's perception on workload completed, and the third questions asked respondent to rate their boss's perception on work quality. To measure job performance, we used the Schat & Frone (2011) Job Performance scale noted in the Appendices as measurement scale 3. Cronbach's Alpha for each measure was computed in SPSS and is noted in Table 2.

Reliability Statistics		
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
EI	0.921	16
JS	0.915	8
JP	0.922	4

Table 1

2.7. Sampling Strategy

Participants for the study were US working adults. The survey was distributed via SurveyMonkey platform. SurveyMonkey has a pool of over 20.75 million paid panelists. The SurveyMonkey software/personnel sent the survey to a total of 166 panelists in order to get 126 completed responses (with a 24% abandon rate). One respondent claimed to be less than 18 years of age and that response was deleted from the data file leaving 125 (n=125) completed responses.. Participants received an email invitation with a web link that directed them to the survey. This data collection technique is similar to other empirical studies that have been conducted testing for a relationship between emotional intelligence and other variables such as job satisfaction, and job performance (Dong & Howard, 2006; Law et al., 2008). Participants followed the weblink to the survey website where they were prompted to begin the survey.

This method will allow testing emotional intelligence for prediction value based on the value of JS and JP. Furthermore, we tested for correlations between independent variables and each dependent variable. A table showing the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for the variables in the study is included. All statistical tests were computed by using the SPSS v 24 software package.

3. Results

3.1. Demographics and Descriptive Statistics

The most predominant age range of the respondent was 45-54 years of age. A majority of the respondents identified as female (91), and 35 identified as male. As shown in table 2 a significant positive relationship was found between EI and job satisfaction, with a correlation of .419 ($p < .01$). US working professionals surveyed in this study with higher EI also had higher job satisfaction. A significant positive relationship between EI and job performance was found, with a correlation of .466 ($p > .01$). This means participants in this study with higher EI had higher job performance.

	Mean	Standard Deviation	EI	JS	JP
EI	5.97	0.7943	1	.419**	.466**
				0	0
JS	1.26	0.4101	.419**	1	.311**
			0		0
JP	3.76	0.9361	.466**	.311**	1
			0	0	

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (N=125)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

3.2. Regression Analysis

The regression assumes that the data is continuous, meaning a linear relationship is present between variables, data is normally distributed, homoscedasticity is present, and there is an absence of multicollinearity. Regression results were verified by uploading survey results into SPSS and utilizing the simple regression function.

Table 3 represents the relationship between each variable and is discussed in the following sections.

ANOVA ^a						
	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.692	1	3.692	26.42	.000 ^b
	Residual	17.329	124	0.14		
	Total	21.021	125			
a. Dependent Variable: JS						
b. Predictors: (Constant), EI						
2	Regression	23.755	1	23.755	34.339	.000 ^b
	Residual	85.783	124	0.692		
	Total	109.538	125			
a. Dependent Variable: JP						
b. Predictors: (Constant), EI						

Table 3: Regression Analysis and ANOVA results

3.3. EI to predict job satisfaction in (Model 1)

Model 1 was used to determine how EI predicts job satisfaction. A simple linear regression was performed to determine this predictive relationship. The linear regression indicated that emotional intelligence accounted for 16.9% of the variance in job satisfaction. The ANOVA model indicated the level of variability within the regression between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. An *F* statistic of 26.42 ($p=0.902$) indicates the independent variable EI explains the variation in job satisfaction (dependent variable). The beta coefficient for EI was .419 ($p=0.00$), meaning for every 1 increase in emotional intelligence, job satisfaction increased by .419.

Model 1 also indicated a positive predictive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, which aligns with the significant positive relationship found in the correlation analysis. Consequently, the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction was maintained.

3.4. EI to predict Job Performance (Model 2)

The predictive relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance in Model 2 was analyzed using simple linear regression statistical testing. Emotional Intelligence accounted for 21.1% of the variance in job performance. An *F* statistic of 34.34 ($p=0.000$) indicates that EI (independent variable) supports the variation in job performance (dependent variable). The beta coefficient for EI was .466 ($p=0.000$), meaning for every 1 increase in EI, job performance increases by .466.

Model 3 also disclosed that there is a positive predictive relationship between EI and job performance, which aligns with the correlation analysis that showed a positive/negative relationship between EI and job performance. Consequently, the hypothesis that there is a positive predictive relationship between EI and job performance was supported. Table 5 presents a summary of the hypothesis tested in this study. As noted below, all of the hypotheses were supported.

Summation of Findings

H1	Emotional intelligence is a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction	Supported
H2	Emotional intelligence is a significant positive predictor of job performance	Supported

Table 4

4. Summary

Organizations and employees suffer when job satisfaction and job performance are run at optimal levels (Yadav, 2014). Not only can EI have financial implications, but when companies are not performing well the tendency is to focus on bottom-line results as opposed to EI training (Fox, 2002). Emotional intelligence has the ability to improve employee self-awareness, emotional regulation as well as understanding emotions of others. This research study explored how EI predicts employee levels of job satisfaction and job performance. This chapter provides interpretations derived from the data analysis via statistical testing, discussion of study results, limitations, and future research recommendations.

4.1. Research Question 1

Does Emotional Intelligence predict employee Job Satisfaction levels? This question was used to determine how EI predicts job satisfaction levels among a sampling of US working adults. It was anticipated that higher levels of EI would correlate with higher levels of job satisfaction.

- H1: Emotional Intelligence is a significant positive predictor of general job satisfaction.

The results of the correlation analysis showed that there was a significant positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction. This relationship was explored further using a regression analysis, which showed a significant positive predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction. The hypothesis that there is a positive predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction was supported. Similar to research conducted by (Manhas, 2013) (Ali, 2014), this study found a significant predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction. There was a positive predictive relationship between EI and job satisfaction, with 16.9% of the variance in job satisfaction attributed to EI. Other research further

supports that EI aids emotional regulation, emotional awareness and social relationships which allows interpersonal emotions to be affected less by stress and negative emotion which ultimately leads to better work performance (Manhas, 2013).

4.2. Research Question 2

Does Emotional Intelligence predict employee Job Performance levels? This question was used to determine how EI predicts job performance levels among a sampling of US working adults. It was anticipated that higher levels of EI would correlate with higher levels of job performance.

- H2: Emotional Intelligence is a significant positive predictor of job performance.

The results of the correlation analysis showed that there was a significant positive relationship between EI and job performance. This relationship was explored further using a regression analysis, which showed a significant positive predictive relationship between EI and job performance. The hypothesis that there is a positive predictive relationship between EI and job performance was supported. Wong and Law (2002) and Cote and Miners (2006) both noted a positive relationship between EI and job performance, making key contributions to this study. Research suggests EI and job performance are positively correlated. Employees with higher levels of EI will also have higher levels of job performance. This study had similar findings, as EI accounted for 21.1% of the variance in job performance.

4.3. Discussion and Implications

This research study indicates that employee emotional intelligence directly affects employee achievement and identifies the employee as a vital factor of organizational performance. This study contributes to existing bodies of literature supporting the role of EI in employee job satisfaction and job performance. Emotional intelligence accounted for 16.9% of the variance in job satisfaction and 21.1% of the variance in job performance. While these numbers may not be as high as other predictor variables they are significant for organizations seeking to improve productivity and capturing competitive edge.

4.4. Limitations and Future Research

The study surveyed working adults in the US, so generalizability is a limiting factor of this research. Social comparison (Festinger, 1954) and trait ascription are also limitation impacting this study. Social comparison leads to people first perceiving the behaviors of others around them before they determine their own behavior. Trait ascription (Kammer, 1982) can lead to a participant viewing their personality as dynamic and fluctuating. Having a small sample size for a large population limited the results by company size, industry and other specific job-related variables. Survey results were single source self-reported and face the limitation of non-response bias. Self-report methods can be prone to answers lacking truth, respondents not fully understanding questions, or questions leading participants to choose answers they do not fully agree with (Demetriou, 2015). Self-reporting job performance can lead to questionable results. In some cases, it is likely a respondent may be swayed by their current state of mind which could impact their perception at the time the question is being answered (Pransky et al, 2006). However, research conducted by Schat and Frone (2011) showed employee perception was highly correlated with supervisor responses on evaluations.

Future research should consider exploring relationships between self-emotional appraisal, others emotional appraisal, regulation of emotion and use of emotion and job satisfaction and job performance. This study did not analyze the overall EI score by each dimension. However, this type of study and analysis will help organizations develop more emotionally intelligent precise hiring and development programs. Furthermore, studying the four dimensions of EI and what relationships they have with job performance, co-worker satisfaction, and supervisor satisfaction will continue to add value to the body of EI research.

5. Conclusion

This study aimed to better understand the relationship between EI and job satisfaction and job performance. A positive predictive relationship was found between both job satisfaction and job performance. This means that employees with higher EI should have higher job satisfaction and job performance levels. These findings should prove useful for business leadership in hiring and developing employees. Investing in emotional awareness and endurance should positively contribute to an organizations bottom-line.

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Appendix

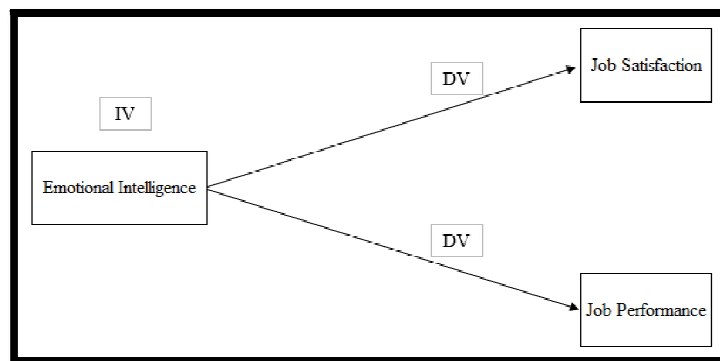


Figure 1: Theoretical Model

	Mean	Standard Deviation	EI	JS	JP
EI	5.97	0.7943	1	.419**	.466**
				0	0
JS	1.26	0.4101	.419**	1	.311**
			0		0
JP	3.76	0.9361	.466**	.311**	1
			0	0	

Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (N=125)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Reliability Statistics		
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
EI	0.921	16
JS	0.915	8
JP	0.922	4

Table 6: Reliability Statistics

ANOVA ^a						
	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.692	1	3.692	26.42	.000 ^b
	Residual	17.329	124	0.14		
	Total	21.021	125			
a. Dependent Variable: JS						
b. Predictors: (Constant), EI						
2	Regression	23.755	1	23.755	34.339	.000 ^b
	Residual	85.783	124	0.692		
	Total	109.538	125			
a. Dependent Variable: JP						
b. Predictors: (Constant), EI						

Table 7: Regression Analysis and ANOVA results

Coefficients ^a						
	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.947	0.209		23.64	0
	Job Satisfaction	0.812	0.158	0.419	5.14	0
2	(Constant)	4.483	0.261		17.145	0
	Job Performance	0.395	0.067	0.466	5.86	0
a. Dependent Variable: EI						

Table 8: Coefficient Results

H1	Emotional intelligence is a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction	Supported
H2	Emotional intelligence is a significant positive predictor of job performance	Supported

Table 9: Summation of Findings

Measurement Scale 1 - WLEIS Wong and Law (2002)

[1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Slightly Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree]

Self-Emotion Appraisal (SEA)

1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.
3. I really understand what I feel.
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.

Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA)

5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
6. I am a good observer of others' emotions.
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.

Use of Emotion (UOE)

9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
10. I always tell myself I am a competent person.
11. I am a self-motivated person.
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.

Regulation of Emotion (ROE)

13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
16. I have good control of my own emotions.

Measurement Scale 2 (Modified) – Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969)**Job in General**

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job

N for "No" if it does not describe it

? for "?" if you cannot decide

Pleasant

Great

Good

Worthwhile

Superior

Better than most

Makes me content

Excellent

Enjoyable

Measurement Scale 4 - Job Performance (Schat & Frone, 2011)**Use the following rating scale:**

1. Poor 2. Fair 3. Good 4. Very Good 5. Excellent

1. Considering all of your job duties and responsibilities, how would your supervisor or boss rate your overall PERFORMANCE at work during the past 3 months?

2. How would your supervisor or boss rate the overall AMOUNT OF WORK you accomplished during the past 3 months?

3. How would your supervisor or boss rate the overall QUALITY OF YOUR WORK during the past 3 months, that is, how well you do your work?