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Deviant Workplace Behavior and Job Performance: The Moderating Effect of Transformational Leadership

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Abstract

This paper studies the moderating effect of Transformational Leadership (TL) on the relationship between Deviant Workplace Behavior (DWB) and Job Performance (JP). Data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire from 288 (n=288) respondents using quota sampling approach. The analysis shows that employees' DWB negates JP and there is a moderating effect of TL behavior on the relationships of DWB and JP. TL can moderate the behavior of deviant employees which, in turn, contributes to accelerating JP. This study brings forth implications both for academics and professionals. It encourages more researches from academics on it and robust application of these findings for professionals for the effective utilization of their talents. It also proposes that the punitive approach of dealing with deviant employees requires replacement with appropriate leadership styles.

Keywords

deviant behavior, job performance, leadership, transformational leadership.

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Introduction

Today's competitive business world is expecting committed and loyal employees for increasing efficiency and adequate performance. Employees' work behaviors are the reflection of their commitment, loyalty, and positive attitude. The differences in employees' behaviors bring varieties of outcome to the organization (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Sharma, Schuster, Ba, & Singh, 2016). Deviant behaviors are beyond the acceptable norms of the organization. The norms are those acceptable behaviors, principles, and postulations which are allowed in the organization (Abdullah & Marican, 2017). More specifically, when employees' behavior goes off the limit allowed by the previously mentioned norms, its effects touch each aspect of the organizational processes. Several studies confirmed that deviant behavior brought huge negative impact on the productivity which caused the deterioration of the overall performance (Peng, Tseng, & Lee, 2011; Spector, Fox, & Domagalski, 2006; Zheng, Wu, Chen, & Lin, 2017).

Emotional exhaustion and organizational deviance are being focused by researchers, academics, and professionals because of their negative impact on business in terms of productivity loss, the decrease in job satisfaction, lower level of organizational commitment, and poorer performance (Jiang, Chen, Sun, & Yang, 2017; Uddin, Rahman, & Howladar, 2013; Zheng et al., 2017). Henle, Giacalone, and Jurkiewicz (2005) reported that 95% of all companies in the U.S. have some form of deviant behaviors. In the U.S. economy alone, the annual cost of the employees' theft was reported to be $50 billion (Henle et al., 2005). Furthermore, nearly 75% of the employees in the U.S. reported some kinds of deviant behavior, such as sabotage, absenteeism, theft, and so forth (Jiang et al., 2017; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Robinson and Bennett (1995) estimated the annual loss due to the DWB was any figure between $6 billion to $200 billion. Another estimate showed that the counterproductive behavior is the prime reason for 30% of all business failures (Moretti, 1986). Porath and Pearson (2013) reported in a study of 14 years observation

with a pool of 14,000 employees that 98% of the employees faced incivility at the workplace. Another study by the same scholars among 800 managers of 17 industries reported the effects of incivility result in 48% decrease in work effort, 38% decrease in quality, 78% decline in organizational commitment, and 66% decline in performance.

While interviewing the reason of the employees' incivility, Porath and Pearson (2013) showed that 25% of the managers told that they are uncivil because of their leader. They noted that one potential solution is to bring a culture of showing respect and appreciation. Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) highlighted that in order to effectively address the deviant behavior, the organization might look forward to creating a nurturing climate for employees' positive psychology. In this respect, leadership has a significant contribution in influencing the employee's behavior towards the achievement of individuals and organizational performance (Jiang et al., 2017; Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012; Porath & Pearson, 2013; Uddin et al., 2013). The studies highlighted the role of TL in creating positive followership and improvising the performance (Fan, Uddin, & Das, 2017; Uddin, Fan, & Das, 2017). A good leader-follower exchange relations in the workplace contribute to the enhancement of the bondage between the both which leads the employees to engage in citizenship behavior out of their satisfaction (Bauer & Green, 1996; Friedman, Carmeli, & Dutton, 2018).

DWB is a prevalent issue mostly studied in the developed countries, such as USA, UK, Australia, South Korea, and China (Sharma et al., 2016). Most of the prior studies called for more empirical investigations in diverse culture in order to enrich the existing literature and to understand the global relevance of concept (Schilpzand, De Pater, & Erez, 2016). Despite the plenty of studies were conducted on the effect of TL on positive deviance, such as citizenship behavior (Mekpor & Dartey-Baah, 2017; Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2016), and creativity (Masood & Afsar, 2017; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Ng, 2017), relatively very few studies observed the effect of TL on DWB (Sun & Wang, 2017; Uddin, Rahman, & Howlader, 2017). While some studies revealed that TL has an adverse impact on

negative attitude (Aksu, 2016; Astrauskaite, Notelaers, Medisauskaite, & Kern, 2015), Effelsberg, Solga, and Gurt (2014) showed contradictory findings to the fact that TL is positively related with unethical behavior.

DWB is a common phenomenon in Bangladesh where delinquencies permeate into the entire nerve center of this country (McDevitt, 2015; Mottaleb & Sonobe, 2012; TIB., 2012; WEF., 2015) and poor work-ethic is a national problem in the workplace (WEF., 2015). Around 13.5% negative impact on state budget and 2.4% cost of the service sector to the GDP were reported due to DWB of employees (TIB., 2013). Many policy measures were adopted to address the effect of DWB on performance (Hossan, Sarker, & Afroze, 2012; Islam, 2014; Mottaleb & Sonobe, 2012; Wickberg, Chene, & Zinnbauer, 2012). Among them, leadership can play a significant role in reducing deviance (Jiang et al., 2017). It was found that TL and DWB are reversely correlated (Aksu, 2016). This finding is consistent with the result of Jiang et al. (2017) and Abdullah and Marican (2017), to the fact that effective leadership reduces the DWB of subordinates. In effect, JP increases since leadership can reduce the DWB of subordinates. Green, Miller, and Aarons (2013) showed that TL has an intervening effect on emotional exhaustion-turnover intention relations.

In the context of developing countries like Bangladesh, where DWB in an organizational setting is a very common phenomenon, no study was found that focused on the role of TL to minimize DWB. No existing studies show the impact of high or low level of TL on the relationship between DWB and JP. Thus, the authors intended to use TL as a moderating variable to investigate its impact on the relationship between DWB and JP. The study can contribute from the different perspectives. The study can contribute to the leadership literature by showing the role of TL on negative behavior of employees in the context of developing countries. The study can also show the impact of high or low level of TL on negative attitude of employees. Moreover, the study can give the specific guidelines to the practitioners how they can minimize the negative attitude and

behavior of employees to increase performance.

The study brings forth multiple contributions to the theory and practice. First, this study examines the interaction effect of TL and DWB on JP which demonstrates how TL offsets the negative impact of DWB on JP. Second, the study investigates the impact of both TL and DWB in an applied setting in a developing country through the replication which validates the findings worldwide. Finally, given the pressing need for research on the impact of TL on deviances and performance, the study in Bangladesh fills the dearth of investigation in the Asian or non-western context, which is much needed.

Literature Review

Transformational Leadership

Leadership refers to the ability that instigates, motivates, and enables the followers for the accomplishment of the organization's purpose. Leaders can positively motivate the behavior and attitude of their followers (Burch & Guarana, 2014). A transformational leader shows an intimate relationship with his followers that leads to the achievement of the sustainable performance of the organization as a whole (Uddin et al., 2013). In comparison to the transactional leadership (TSL), transformational-charismatic leaders expect the followers to act beyond they are projected to do, such as questioning the status quo, taking challenges, engaging in activities of the task roles (Katou, 2015; Mokhber, Ismail, & Vakilbashi, 2015).

Unlike TSL's way of getting things done through the compensational deal, the followers are motivated and inspired to execute the TL's order because of their identification via a transformational leader's personal charisma, ideals, and compelling vision (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2014; Henker, Sonnentag, & Unger, 2014; Rahman, Ferdausy, & Uddin, 2012a, 2012b). This enduring respect and recognition help them communicate and instill the mission among themselves. They set forth

challenging goals and lay down the cherished path to move forward for achieving the mutual goal (Kark, Van Dijk, & Vashdi, 2018). Also, a transformational leader provides ceaseless cooperation and feedback to involve his followers in challenging tasks so that the latter can be self-determined and independent to go for any significant initiative beyond their capacity in the foreseeable future (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Deviant Workplace Behavior

Deviant behaviors happen when employees cross the limit of their task role. Behavior is deviant when it breaks the accepted norms of the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). DWB refers to the behavior of the employees that can harm an organization or its members (Spector & Fox, 2002; Walsh, 2014). It happens when the employees overlook or disobey the boundary of their jurisdictions for performing their workload. Deviant behaviors, such as sabotage, theft, harassment, incivility, and work-slowing habit not only account for losses of the organization but also they do shatter the image (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

DWB has given many different names to the deviant behaviors (Sharma et al., 2016). Those are overlapping, such as aggression (Hershcovis et al., 2007), antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), ill behavior (Griffin & Lopez, 2005), counterproductive behavior (Aubé, Rousseau, Mama, & Morin, 2009), deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), gender discrimination (Landy, 2008), moral disengagement (Hystad, Mearns, & Eid, 2014), workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2003), workplace incivility (Blau & Andersson, 2005), and workplace bullying (Casimir, McCormack, Djurkovic, & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2012; Desrumaux, Machado, Przygodzki-Lionet, & Lourel, 2015). Thus, DWB comprises employee withdrawal, hostility, theft, sabotage, strikes, aggression, workplace violence, judgments of unfairness, absenteeism, spreading rumor, tardiness, working slowly resulting in attributions for failures, and sexual harassment.

Job Performance

Performance is a relative term having no short-cuts and not having a universally accepted definition. Authors defined it as the relative contribution of the individuals to their organizations. According to Laitinen (2002), JP is the output of an individual effort in relation to the pre-decided target. Busch and Bush (1978) have identified performance as a self-rating of a salesperson's quantity and quality of performance about others on the sales-force. The performance has been represented in many forms. Team performance (Koman & Wolff, 2008), job performance (Carmeli, 2003; Wong & Law, 2002), and management performance (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002) are the few of them. JP, in fact, is objectively or subjectively measured at the individual level of an organization against some precise standards or targets (Astin, 1964). Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) suggested that the individual performance must be in line with the group and organizational objectives in general.

Hypotheses Development

Deviant Workplace Behavior and Job Performance

DWB is a widespread phenomenon in the organizations. Employees' deviant behaviors include disobeying the managers' advice, overlooking the supervisors' work-order, stealing the organizations' property, busy with chit-chat, gossiping with peers during work schedule, disrespecting colleagues, damaging resources, and so forth (Galperin, 2002). Moreover, other researchers showed that the consequence of the DWB is tremendous with negative impacts including some hidden cost, that is corporate reputation loss (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Based on the arguments presented above, it was postulated that DWB has an adverse impact on JP.

H_1 : Deviant workplace behavior is negatively associated with job performance.

Moderating Effect of Transformational Leadership on Deviant Workplace Behavior and Job Performance

To the opinion of Sims (2010), deviant behavior results from

frustrations which are happened due to the declining of autonomy, rising threats to social identity, and the feelings of injustice. Negative emotion plays a major role in counterproductive behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002; Spector et al., 2006). Spector and Fox (2002) also showed that DWB is associated with the personality characteristics or traits such as anger and anxiety, the locus of control, and delinquency. Leadership works in right or wrong situations (Trainor & Velotti, 2013). Some leadership behaviors such as ethical leadership and socialized charismatic leadership are associated with reduced deviance (Mustafa & Lines, 2014; Walumbwa et al., 2011). McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) estimated that TL influences the frustration and optimism of the employees.

The empirical result observed that emotional exhaustion increases the likelihood of rising turnover intention among the employees (Sun & Wang, 2017). Green et al. (2013) found that demonstrating high TL decreases the emotional exhaustion of the employees and thereby it rather increases their intention to stay. The interaction effect of TL with emotional exhaustion buffers the influences of service providers' emotional exhaustion on the intention to leave (Green et al., 2013). TL provides emotional and constructive supports and feedbacks on a real-time basis that lead to facilitating a less stressful job environment. Previous studies showed that people, feeling anger or hostility, engage in DWB at work (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2009, p. 296). On the other side, a transformational leader's inspiration, motivation, and personalized consideration neutralize the negative emotion of subordinates by solving their problems and further motivate them to perform well (Sun & Wang, 2017; Tuckey, Li, & Chen, 2017). Aksu (2016) found that TL has a negative correlation with DWB. Avey, Palanski, and Walumbwa (2011) and Bean, Ordowich, and Westley (1985) also found that controlling and flexible leadership has a negative relationship with DWB. Sun and Wang (2017) revealed that TL builds such a working environment with seamless supports, individualized feedbacks, and intellectual stimulation that prevents employees' intention to leave and involves them indirectly to cultivate a collaborative culture. Thus, it is perceived that presence of TL may

lessen the level of DWB, which will, in turn, improve the JP (Bureau, Gagné, Morin, & Mageau, In Press; Kark et al., 2018; Uddin, Rahman, et al., 2017). Considering the above findings, it was opined that TL has an interaction effect on the association between DWB and JP. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is formulated considering the above explanation.

H_2: There is an intervening effect of TL on the relationship between DWB and JP in such a way that a negative effect of DWB on JP tends to decline when the leader shows high TL behavior and vice versa.

A hypothetical model (exhibited in Figure 1) has been developed considering the above literature and hypotheses:

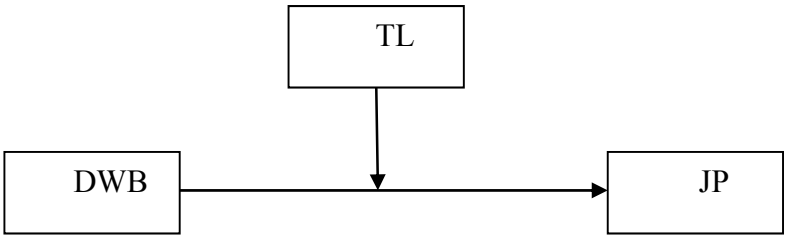

Figure 1. **Hypothetical model of the study**

Research Methods

Data Collection Procedure

We administered the survey questionnaire through a personal visit and electronic mail. The quota sampling was used to collect the data. The respondents were communicated at three different moments: The first time is for distribution and briefing the instruments, the second time is for data collection and for reminding and the third time is for final response collection. We utilized SPSS 21 and SmartPLS 2 in order to conduct the intended statistical analysis.

Sample and Participants

The population of the current study consists of managers, officers, and staff working in different service organizations such as educational institutions (colleges and universities), commercial banks, telecommunication firms, and health organizations (hospitals). There

are more than two million professionals in Bangladesh (BBS., 2016). Quota sampling was used to ensure the representation of respondents from different types of organizations such as educational institutions, commercial banks, telecommunication firms, and health organizations from the greatest commercial city,Chittagong of Bangladesh. Moreover, quota sampling is easy to operate and a low-cost data collection method (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). After listing the organizations, five educational institutions, ten commercial banks, two telecommunication firms, and four health organizations were chosen randomly to ensure the representing of all the service sectors.

According to Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2010, p. 437), for the population of 100,000 or more, the sample size for a 95% confidence level when an error is considered +/- 5% is 321. However, Saunders et al., (2011, p. 219) stated that if the population size is 100,000 or more, with 95% confidence level and 5% error margin, the minimum sample size should be 384. Also, multiple regression analysis advised to use a minimum ratio of responses to a variable that is 5:1, but the ratio of 15:1 or 20:1 is highly preferable (Zikmund et al., 2010). Moreover, there were some possibilities of nonresponse bias, missing data, and irrational responses, such as giving the same response without reading. The studied measures include 40 items. Pituch and Stevens (2016, p. 396) mentioned that the minimum ratio between the variables and the size of samples is 1:20. Bentler and Chou (1987) advised using at least five respondents against each parameter to estimate (indicator item) and also suggested to collect ten responses per parameter for realizing optimum result. Further, Kline (2011) and Loehlin (2004) emphasized using at least 200 responses for any regression analysis. Comrey and Lee (2009) recommended 200 samples for fair sample size and 300 responses to be deemed safe.

We have used three different instruments which comprise 40 indicator items. Thus, the sample size of 450 was determined for the study to get not only more than the threshold level, such as minimum 200 responses, but also at least 10 responses per item (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Comrey & Lee, 2009; Kline, 2011; Pituch & Stevens, 2016). Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to 450

respondents who were selected randomly. 320 (71%) respondents have given their answers. Due to some inconsistencies (missing data, social desirability bias, and outliers) in their response quality, 32 responses were eliminated. Finally, 288 (64%) usable responses were used for this study. The respondents were requested to rate their co-workers' DWB and JP. Since the observer/other's ratings were better than the same sources responses (Kensbock & Boehm, 2015; Shipper & Dillard Jr, 2001), the respondents were also asked to rate their immediate supervisors' TL behavior.

Respondents' demographic analysis reported that males dominate the workplaces with a percentage of 77% (221 male employees). The mean age of the respondents is 31.03 with a standard deviation of 6.04. The respondents' average service experience was 4.78 (SD = 5.30) years. There were 29 (10%), 219 (76%), and 40 (14%) employees from the top (managers), middle (executives and supervisors), and lower-level (staff) from their organizations, respectively. The respondents completed higher secondary 22 (7.60%), bachelor's degrees 52 (18.10%), master's degrees 203 (70.50%), and other degrees 11 (3.80%). Regarding organizational units, 72 (25%) respondents belonged to telecommunication firms, 65 (22.60%) respondents belonged to educational institutes, 74 (25.70%) respondents belonged to commercial banks, 51 (17.7%) respondents belonged to health organizations, and 26 (9%) respondents belonged to other firms.

Survey Instruments

Transformational leadership

We measured TL with twelve items used by Rahim et al. (2006) adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 2000). The respondents were asked to rate each item on a 7-point Likert scale (7 = strongly agree ----1 = strongly disagree). Sample items for this scale were: "In my mind, he/she is a symbol of success and accomplishment," and "My supervisor gives me reasons to believe in what I can do".

Deviant workplace behavior

DWB was measured with the DWB scale developed by Rahman, Ferdausy, and Karan (2012). It was a 22-item scale, and the items were selected from the study of Robinson and Bennett (1995) and Appelbaum et al. (2007). The respondents were asked to rate each item on a 7-point Likert scale (7 = strongly agree ---- 1 = strongly disagree). Sample items for this scale were: "My colleague enjoys the excessive time for tea break and lunch," and "My colleague sabotages office equipment" .

Job performance

We measured JP with the scale of Tsui, Pearce, Porter, and Tripoli (1997). This was a six-item scale, and all the items were arranged on a 7-point Likert scale (7 = strongly agree ---- 1 = strongly disagree). Sample items for this scale were: "My colleague's quantity of work is much higher than average" and, "My fellow member's quality of work is much higher than average."

Control Variables

The study included age, gender, position, tenure, level of education, department, and organization as control variables and measured using a questionnaire which is mentioned in the personal profile. Previous studies reported that these dichotomous variables are correlated with employees' performance (Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Du, Zhang, & Chen, 2016; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Data screening and response bias

Missing data, outliers, and common method bias are major concerns which deter factual findings. Missing data problem happens when a respondent does not know the answer or does not like to respond to the question, or inadvertently skip the question (Mostafa, 2013). Outliers are extreme data point given by respondent(s) to any variable which is certainly far away from other responses. It might result from errors in data editing or respondents' inadvertent data reporting (Hair Jr., Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). 32 responses (including four replies with outlier issues) were eliminated to overcome missing data, response bias, and outlier's problem. Among those 32 replies, it was

noticed that informants were not careful while giving their ratings to the questionnaire. They gave not only the same ratings to all statements but also left many responses unanswered. According to the suggestion of Osborne and Overbay (2004), the responses to the outlier issues were deleted. Hair Jr., Black, et al. (2014) also recommended dropping out the data with outlier issue in order to improve the multivariate analysis. With a view to overcoming the common method bias problem and in line with Brislin's (1970) suggestion, survey instruments were translated and retranslated into local language (Bangla) by a panel of bilingual experts and researchers in management science. Besides, we confirmed the respondents that information would be taken into care, strictly kept private, and entirely confidential. This assurance instigates them to give a valid answer for certain findings (Kaur, Sambasivan, & Kumar, 2013; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

Data Analysis

We run a correlation analysis to estimate the associations of JP with the covariates as well as the inter-correlations among the covariates. Next, we evaluated both the measurement model and structural model with the help of SmartPLS, a second generation regression model. One of the distinctive strengths of this software lies in its suitability to assess the direct effects, indirect effects, and interaction effects (Hair Jr., Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). In this juncture, we estimated the moderating effect of the interaction of TL and DWB on JP.

Correlation Analysis

Table 1 shows the correlation among the variables. There is a significant negative correlation found between TL and DWB (r = -.410, p < .01) while a significant positive correlation is observed between TL and JP (r = .71, p < .01) (Table 1). A negative correlation is also found between DWB and JP (r = -.71, p < .01) (Table 1). From the findings of correlation and regression analyses, it reveals that DWB is negatively related to JP (β = -1.22, p < .01). We observed no significant correlation between control variables and latent variables.

Although statistically insignificant, only education has a poor negative correlation with DWB (-.12), and the rests have a very poor correlation (less than .10) with TL and JP.

Table 1: Correlations among Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Control Variables										
1. Tenure	1									
2. Age	.85**	1								
3. Gender	-.01	-.030	1							
4. Position	-.18**	-.21**	.03	1						
5. Department	.26**	.21**	.09	-.03	1					
6. Education	-.13*	.03	.00	-.20**	-.02	1				
7. Organization	-.26**	.21**	.03	-.07	.36**	-.11	1			
Latent Variables										
8. DWB	-.03	-.09	.05	.07	.03	-.12	-.05	1		
9. TL	.03	.04	-.04	-.06	.05	.09	.07	-.41**	1	
10. JP	.05	.09	-.04	-.07	-.01	.07	.09	-.71**	.71**	1

N.B.: *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1- tailed) , **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); n = 288; TL = Transformational Leadership; DWB = Deviant Workplace Behavior; JP = Job Performance; Gender: 1=Female, and 2=Male; Position: 1=Top-level, 2=Mid-level, and 3=Lower level (staffs); Department: 1=Human Resources, 2=Production, 3=Quality, 4=Marketing, and 5=Others; Education: 1=Higher Secondary, 2=Bachelor, 3=Master, and 4=Other (Diploma, Ph.D., and so forth); Organization: 1=Telecommunication, 2=Educational Institute, 3=Commercial Banks, 4=Service Delivery, and 5=Others.

Results

Model Evaluation

We also employed SmartPLS2, a second generation partial least square analytical tool for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) for estimating the validity and reliability issues of the measures in this study. The use of SEM in social science research dominates other methods, because of its better predictability of both the theoretical models (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012; Soleimani, Danaei, Jowkar, & Parhizgar, 2017) and the construct validity (Kushwaha & Kumar

Sharma, 2017). We applied SEM by a two-step process. First, we evaluated the measurement model by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and finally, we evaluated the structural model through the path analysis and the Goodness of Fit (GoF) test (Hair Jr., Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014; Souto, 2015).

Measurement Model Evaluation

By the application of CFA through SmartPLS2, we checked the validities of the measurement models. The following Table 2 represents the estimates for convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability tests (composite reliability-CR, and Cronbach Alpha-α). The convergent validity reveals all factor loadings (> 0.50), average variance extracted (> 0.51), CR (>0.906), and α (>0.884) are above the threshold limit. The table also shows that the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of each construct is larger than the construct's highest correlation with any other construct in this study. The estimates suggest that these constructs are valid and reliable (Hair Jr. et al., 2014).

Table 2:Result of Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

LV	Convergent validity					Discriminant validity			
	Mean	SD	AVE	CR	α	LV	1. DWB	2. JP	3. TL
1. DWB	2.06	1.40	0.515	0.949	0.943	1	**0.718**		
2. JP	5.01	1.31	0.685	0.929	0.909	2	-0.714	**0.828**	
3. TL	4.56	1.11	0.521	0.906	0.884	3	-0.412	0.711	**0.722**

LV = Latent variables, SD = Standard deviation, Both AVE and Commonalities represent the same

We further checked the cross loading, in Table 3, of all items to their respective latent construct and found that all the measurement items rather load higher to their construct with a range from 0.528 to 0.946 than diverging to other constructs. Any indicator item which loads less than 0.50 was checked and finally deleted for ensuring the validity of their measures. In this regard, we eliminated four items from DWB, such as dwb1, dwb2, dwb8 and dwb10, and three items from TL such as TL1, TL4, and TL10.

Table 3: Cross-Loading and t-Statistics

Indicator Items	DWB	JP	TL	Outer Loading	T-Statistics
jp1	-0.254	**0.699**	0.160	jp1 <- JP	13.08
jp2	-0.407	**0.837**	0.239	jp2 <- JP	27.01
jp3	-0.411	**0.836**	0.260	jp3 <- JP	28.21
jp4	-0.459	**0.858**	0.274	jp4 <- JP	35.66
jp5	-0.533	**0.869**	0.317	jp5 <- JP	41.83
jp6	-0.546	**0.855**	0.225	jp6 <- JP	35.68
TL2	-0.156	0.138	**0.717**	TL2 <- TL	13.99
TL3	-0.159	0.269	**0.763**	TL3 <- TL	18.92
TL5	-0.174	0.184	**0.628**	TL5 <- TL	8.83
TL6	-0.179	0.264	**0.758**	TL6 <- TL	17.56
TL7	-0.064	0.071	**0.528**	TL7 <- TL	5.57
TL8	-0.203	0.260	**0.810**	TL8 <- TL	18.59
TL9	-0.159	0.161	**0.643**	TL9 <- TL	8.72
TL11	-0.249	0.204	**0.768**	TL11 <- TL	15.68
TL12	-0.263	0.277	**0.828**	TL12 <- TL	27.27
dwb3	**0.640**	-0.389	-0.268	dwb3 <- DWB	14.54
dwb4	**0.615**	-0.276	-0.104	dwb4 <- DWB	9.79
dwb5	**0.669**	-0.432	-0.226	dwb5 <- DWB	12.26
dwb6	**0.613**	-0.312	-0.176	dwb6 <- DWB	10.14
dwb7	**0.766**	-0.398	-0.193	dwb7 <- DWB	22.74
dwb9	**0.736**	-0.484	-0.148	dwb9 <- DWB	18.14
dwb11	**0.708**	-0.414	-0.231	dwb11 <- DWB	17.95
dwb12	**0.706**	-0.331	-0.158	dwb12 <- DWB	14.18
dwb13	**0.672**	-0.296	-0.086	dwb13 <- DWB	12.83
dwb14	**0.692**	-0.359	-0.161	dwb14 <- DWB	15.34
dwb15	**0.616**	-0.293	-0.133	dwb15 <- DWB	12.47
dwb16	**0.707**	-0.388	-0.164	dwb16 <- DWB	14.77
dwb17	**0.767**	-0.432	-0.157	dwb17 <- DWB	21.97
dwb18	**0.602**	-0.328	-0.152	dwb18 <- DWB	10.06
dwb19	**0.665**	-0.298	-0.237	dwb19 <- DWB	13.75
dwb20	**0.769**	-0.419	-0.201	dwb20 <- DWB	21.22
dwb21	**0.916**	-0.526	-0.238	dwb21 <- DWB	65.45
dwb22	**0.946**	-0.486	-0.243	dwb22 <- DWB	92.08

Structural Model Evaluation

Rather than depending on path-coefficient (β), *p*-value, and coefficient

of determination (R^2), we calculated the goodness of fit (GoF). According to Sarstedt, Ringle, Henseler, and Hair (2014), SmartPLS based SEM has a limitation, because it is unable to provide the model fit summary. Table 4 demonstrates that both DWB (β=-0.499, p<0.000) and TL (β=-0.175, p<0.007) are the significant predictors of JP with an R^2 value of 0.324.

Table 4: Estimates of the Path-Relations

Paths	β	Standard Error	T Statistics	p-Value	R^2
DWB -> JP	-0.499	0.061	8.209	0.000	0.324
TL -> JP	0.175	0.065	2.709	0.007	

We further examined the GoF, in Equation 1, following the recommendation of Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, and Lauro (2005) that equals the square root of the products of the communalities (CM) and the R2 of the endogenous variables. In line with the effect sizes of R2 given by Cohen (1988) for the GoF, and the minimum CM of 0.50 as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder, and Van Oppen (2009, p. 187) reported global fitness measure indicating that GoFsmall=0.10, GoFmedium=0.25, and GoFlarge=0.36 for the partial least square model. The estimated GoF in Equation 1 and the minimum CM are 0.431 (>0.36) and 0.515 (>0.50), respectively revealing that the effect size is large (Cohen, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Tenenhaus et al., 2005; Wetzels et al., 2009).

$$GoF = \sqrt{Average\ communality * average\ R^2}$$----------

Equation (1)

$$GoF = \sqrt{0.574 * 0.324}$$

$$GoF = 0.431.$$

Moderation Effect of TL

Figure 2 summarizes the estimates using SmartPLS. It is found that TL interacts significantly with DWB to influence JP (β = -.131, p < .01). Moreover, there is a positive change in R^2 from Table 4 (R^2=0.324) to Figure 2 (R^2=0.332) which justifies the existence of the

interaction effect of TL on the association between DWB and JP (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). From these findings, it signifies that TL has a significant moderating effect on DWB that ultimately negatively affects the JP.

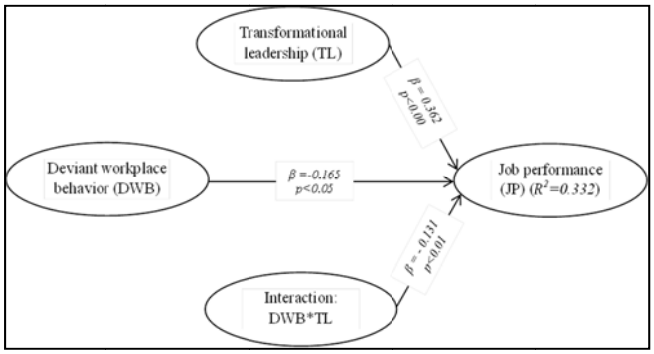

Fig. 2. The structural model in a moderated relationship

The plot, represented in Figure 3, suggests that albeit there is a significant negative effect of DWB on JP. In the presence of low TL behavior, JP is affected by DWB at a higher rate, and on the other hand, if the TL behavior is high, DWB still negatively affects JP, but at a lower rate. The plotted graph demonstrates that high TL and low DWB contributes to the higher JP than high TL and high DWB, low TL and low DWB, and low TL and high DWB, respectively.

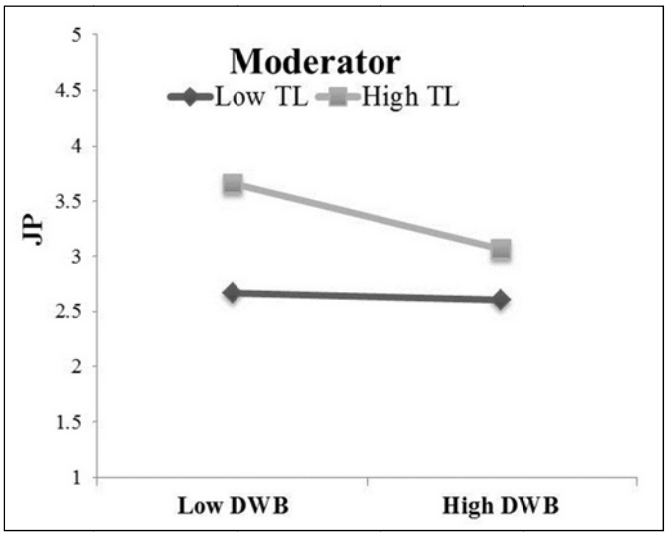

Fig. 3. Moderating effects of TL on DWB and JP relationship

The findings in Figures 2 and 3 justify the acceptance of the second hypothesis that TL has a moderating effect on the relationship between DWB and JP.

Discussion

The study attempts to quantify the impact of DWB on JP. Also, it aims at estimating the intervening effect of TL on the hypothesized relationship between DWB and JP. This study shows that DWB has a negative influence on employee JP. This finding is also supported by Olsen, Bjaalid, and Mikkelsen (2017), Rahim and Cosby (2016), Appelbaum et al. (2007), and Dunlop and Lee (2004), to the fact that the employees' workplace incivility such as aggression, intentional slowing down of the work, keeping busy with non-scheduled task, passing idle time, gossiping with peers, and so forth, contributes to the bottleneck and ineffectiveness in the organizational performance (Bureau et al., In Press; Sun & Wang, 2017). The consistent findings with the previously tested results (Blickle & Schütte, 2017; Rahim & Cosby, 2016; Zheng et al., 2017) also contended that DWB has a significant negative influence on JP in Bangladesh.

Moreover, this study explores that TL can abate the DWB of employees, which, in turn, tends to enhance the performance of employees (Uddin et al., 2013). A transformational leader inspires the employees to achieve the organizational visions and goals. In the presence of TL, the employees are encouraged and motivated to achieve the goals/visions of the organization. Additionally, transformational leaders motivate the employees to reduce their counterproductive or DWB as well as to increase the performance. Sparks and Schenk (2001) showed that TL transformed followers through the idealized influence and intellectual stimulation to see the higher purpose and meaning of their work. Furthermore, Sun and Wang (2017), and McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) found that TL not only can change the negative attitude and behavior of employees but also create a collaborative culture.

The present study points to the fact that the involvement of TL contributes to the reduction of the negative impact of DWB on JP

which can be further narrated from the theoretical insight. The Social exchange theory (SET) proposed by Homans (1958) and Blau (1964) contended that organization is a social entity in where a particular behavior by a party in an exchange is solely contingent on the particular behavior by another party through the interaction process (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958). The SET signifies a particular transaction or behavior by a party creates reciprocal obligations from the other party in the exchange process.

The TL not only inspires and energizes followers to act beyond expectation and achieve higher goals and objectives, but also drives them out to challenge the facts and truths, and redefine the organizational problems, and create novel ideas from their curiosity and imagination (Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Uddin, Fan, et al., 2017; Uddin, Rahman, et al., 2017). Further, TL tends to elevate them to a higher level of ideas to imagine, create, and apply a new approach to unfreeze and create a solution to problems. Also, individualized consideration of TL shed lights on individual case, problem contexts, and thoughts. The ceaseless faith of TL for the sake of employees' betterment binds the latter in a moral obligation to reciprocate to the former (Masood & Afsar, 2017; Sun & Wang, 2017). Therefore, TL prevents them from DWB and consequently, plays a significant role in engaging and involving them in augmenting the corporate triple bottom line (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016; Mekpor & Dartey-Baah, 2017; Ng, 2017). Figure 3 represents the graphical relationships among DWB, TL, and JP. It mirrors that the negative correlation between DWB and JP is weakened when the leader shows high TL behavior other than low TL behavior (Bureau et al., In Press).

It is found that JP of employees in the presence of high level of TL is not much higher than the low level of TL. This can be explained from three different perspectives. Firstly, the practice of TL behavior in a developing country like Bangladesh is scanty which indicates that most of the managers at the supervisory level and top level are not inspirational, compassionate, caring, and attentive to their subordinates' details. If managers and leaders follow the TL approach, then the performance of employees will increase. Secondly, workers

or employees are not better educated, skilled, or conscious, that is why they do not correctly understand the attributes of transformational leaders if even though TL exists there.

Within this employees' context, TL does not correctly match to increase the performance of the employees in the given circumstances. The explanation is also supported by Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory (Robbins, Coulter, & Vohra, 2011, p. 381) and House's path-goal theory (Robbins et al., 2011, p. 383). Furthermore, it can be mentioned that, in Bangladesh, some organizational practices and culture, such as, nepotism, favoritism, political biases, and corruptions are also responsible for more DWB which cannot be much minimized alone by TL.

Conclusion

Implications

The study has some academic and practical implications. In Bangladesh, the area of deviant behavior is under-researched to both scholars and the practicing managers. In the academic setting, this study implies, firstly, that TL not only inspires the employees towards the goals of the organization, but also limits the negative attitudes and behaviors of the employees to ensure the expected outcomes from them. Secondly, this study reveals a new arena of research to the academics for identifying appropriate leadership to neutralize the non-productive or counter-productive behaviors of the employees in the organizations. Therefore, it requires a significant volume of studies in this under-studied area in Bangladesh. Managers in a corporate setting should formulate pro-employees work-roles to prevent their deviations. The relative impact of the deviant behavior in service organizations is severely harmful since the employees are the direct producers of the service provided to their customers. For the practitioners, this study implies, firstly, that managers should check the negative or non-productive behavior of the employees to improve their performance. Secondly, managers or supervisors should not apply punitive approach frequently to correct the deviation, and they

rather practice TL that subsides the negative attitude or non-productive behavior of the employees in a positive way which will motivate employees for better outcomes. Following the understanding of the basics of SET, transformational leaders/managers are urged to treat employees individually, understand their problems, and support, engage and motivate them through inspiration which may restrain them (employees) from doing unproductive behavior which, in turn, will improve the employees' performance.

Limitations

Like other studies, the study is not above limitations. The most significant limitation was in using a quota sampling technique which limits the generalizability of the results. We are suggesting random sampling technique in place of quota sampling for the future study to augment its generalizability. The use of a deductive reasoning approach is another limitation of the study, because it is always unlikely for the researchers' sake to be value-free, neutral, and objective. Individuals experience the world through their own perception and lens. The use of cross-sectional data limits the causal inference of the result. A longitudinal survey might prevent the result from the problem of causality. One way to overcome this issue is to split the measures of variables by time. The small sample size (n = 288) shows another constraint on the findings. A larger sample size is useful for the further investigation of the moderating effect of TL on DWB and JP. The data were collected from only employees. It would be better if data regarding DWB and JP were collected from supervisors or immediate superiors of the employees. Another stream of research is going by collecting the data from the pairs of leader and followers in where followers will rate their leaders' behavior and leader will evaluate their employees' behavior or performance. Data collection from the pairs might prevent the common method and social desirability biases. The study did not find the significant effect of control variables (age, tenure, gender, department, organization, position and education) on the relationship between DWB and JP. Finally, using the objective measure for estimating JP poses another

restriction on the generalizability of the result (Darvishmotevali, Arasli, & Kilic, 2017; Olsen et al., 2017). The utilization of both the subjective and objective criteria for estimating JP will enhance the generalization of the estimates.

Future Research Directions

This study collected data from the source just for once. Therefore, there is still a chance of non-response bias. Further longitudinal data will be useful to understand the moderating effect of TL on DWB and JP by collecting the data at least in two different points of times for abating the non-response bias. The future study can be explored to assess the role of TL on DWB and JP in manufacturing sectors where lower-level employees and low-educated workers are also working. The future study can expand the present model by incorporating some other organizational variables such as organizational culture, procedural justice, and leader-member relationship that can give more realistic results. Additionally, the present study can incorporate individual variables such as job satisfaction, job attitude, personality, and personal values that can give better results of the study. Further research examining the impact of other leadership behaviors such as authentic leadership, autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, servant leadership, supportive leadership, and transactional leadership on DWB and JP in Bangladesh is warranted. Additionally, we are recommending the future researchers to use the same measurement tools for estimating the generalizability of the findings. The authors are also recommending using both the subjective and objectives indicators of JP for estimating any significant difference with the currently studied findings. The future study can be drawn whether there is any interacting effect of tenure, age, gender, position, and organization on the relationship between DWB and JP. Moreover, the future study might consider the measurement of JP using both subjective and objective criteria rather than confining to the subjective or objective alone.

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