

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY
AS MODERATORS OF JOB ATTITUDES AND
JOB BEHAVIOURS**

**THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN PSYCHOLOGY**

MADHU. K.B.

**UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT
KERALA**

2007

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DECLARATION

I, Madhu .K.B., do here by declare that this thesis, **EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY AS MODERATORS OF JOB ATTITUDES AND JOB BEHAVIOURS**, has not been submitted by me for any award of a degree, diploma, or title before.

Place : Calicut.

Date : February , 2007.



Madhu .K.B.

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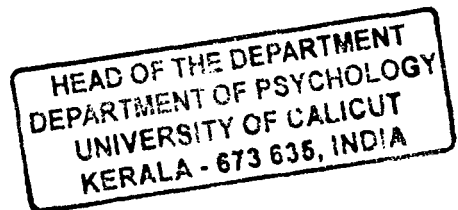
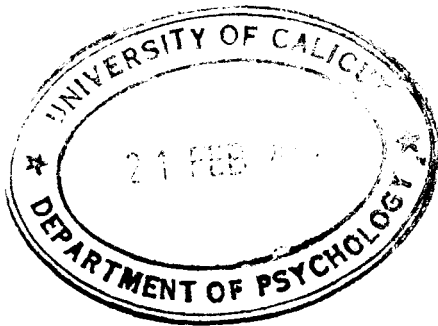
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Madhu .K.B.

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

- *Conceptual frameworks*
- *EI– Personality – Job attitudes – Job Behaviours*
- *Relevance of the Study*
- *Statement of the problem*
- *Objectives of the study*
- *Hypotheses of the Study*

In today's work place, where performance relies more than ever before on work-place relationships, stress tolerance, adaptability, and working effectively in teams, emotional intelligence is becoming integral to occupational success.

- Daniel Goleman(1998), Working with Emotional Intelligence.

The drastic changes in technology, the growth of organizations, the rise of unions and the governments' concerns and interventions concerning working people resulted in the development of personnel departments. There is no specific date assigned to the appearance of the first personnel department, but around the 1920's more and more organizations seemed to take note of and do something about the conflict between employees and management. Early personnel administrators were called Welfare Secretaries their jobs were to bridge the gap between management and operators (workers). In other words, they were to speak to workers in their language and then recommend to management what had to be done to get the best result from the employees. Today the functions of HRM are concerned with much more than simple filing, housekeeping and record keeping. When HRM strategies are integrated within the organizations, HRM plays a major role in clarifying the firm's human resource problems and develop solutions to them. It is oriented toward action, individuals' worldwide interdependence and the future. Today it would be difficult to imagine any organization, achieving and sustaining effectiveness without efficient HRM programmes and activities. (Ivancevich 1995).

Hersey and Blanchard (1996) reported the findings of Mac Millan and Schuler that companies have gained an edge by either capturing or developing greater shares of critically needed human resource skills or by leveraging existing human resources to gain a competitive advantage. This cannot be done in isolation. There must be very close coordination between human resources planning and the other performance factors. They argued that

companies can gain a competitive advantage through their human resources by making sure that the employees have both the appropriate skill and are similarly motivated. They further opined that managing people to perform can make a significant difference.

Huy (2002) observed that competitive pressure caused by globalization, deregulation, and discontinuous technological changes seem to have forced many organizations into considering radical changes as a way of surviving and growing. This tension between community and change also exists at the individual level. Employees seek predictable relationships, dependable resources, and consistency in behaviour and thinking, while simultaneously seeking new stimulations and personal development. Stan, Sutton and Pelled (1994), and Bartel and Sasvedra (2000) further found that part of the continuity and change trade off thus involves maintaining emotional balance of individuals in the company and attending to emotion management activities so that employees continue to be productive during radical change.

The benefits of studying emotion in workplace settings derive from the evidence that organizational members seldom carry out their work in an objective fashion based on cold, cognitive calculation. Instead, as Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argued, workplace experiences comprise a succession of work events that can be pleasing and invigorating, or stressful and frustrating. These events affect the way we feel and behave at work. For instance, some jobs require a display of positive emotion that may be quite different from what is actually felt (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Evidence is also emerging that emotional trait constructs such as negative affectivity (Watson & Clark, 1984) and emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) affect behaviour and decision making in the workplace context.

Attention is directed to different problems when powerful emotions are experienced. People may be redirected to give attention to problems with immediate importance. Rather than interrupt ongoing cognitive activities, emotion can assist people in reprioritising the internal and external demands on their attention, and allocating resources accordingly (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Moods may be used to motivate persistence at challenging tasks. People may use good moods to boost their self-efficacy, thus increasing performance at difficult tasks (Salovey & Birnbaum, 1989). People with positive attitudes create interpersonal experiences that lead to positive outcomes for themselves and others around them (Epstein & Feist, 1988). Teams can use emotional intelligence to remain focused on the task at hand while keeping a positive rapport with team members.

Controlling emotion to reach a goal is necessary for motivation, attention, and focus. Goleman (1995) found that self-control of emotion and delay of gratification was predictive of later accomplishment. Moods influence problem-solving outcomes because certain emotions promote different problem solving tasks. Creative and inductive reasoning has been found to be improved by happy moods while deductive reasoning and the careful consideration of multiple options was found to be enhanced by sad moods (Palfai & Salovey, 1992). Possibly happy and sad moods could be associated with certain information processing styles that affect performance. Research has shown that people find it easier to categorize aspects of problems as related or unrelated when happy which has been linked to the facilitation of creative thinking (Isen & Daubman, 1984). Also, happy individuals experience higher levels of self-efficacy, which is a critical aspect of performance (Salovey & Birnbaum, 1989). In addition to creative thinking, constructive thinking is dependent on managing emotion. Constructive thinking, according to Katz and Epstein (1991) refers to a person's ability to think in a manner that solves everyday problems in living at

a minimal cost in stress. How people manage their emotions can be a major determinant of how effectively intellectual abilities can be assembled. Because teams utilize both creative and constructive thinking in their problem solving, and because teams desire high self-efficacy to maintain performance, *emotional intelligence* is a valuable resource.

Emotional intelligence is a valuable construct for any organization contemplating or currently practicing the teams approach. Because teams are constructed of individuals who experience and exhibit emotions, emotional intelligence is needed so that team members can interact in an appropriate and efficient manner. If team members are trained in emotional intelligence, perhaps they will enhance their communication with one another, increase chances of accomplishing their goals smoothly, increase cohesion and commitment, and decrease interpersonal and intra-personal conflict. Although scientists have not reached an agreement on the categorization of the construct, it seems to be a valuable concept within the organizational arena. Hopefully, in future, emotional intelligence will be respected and revered as a highly critical aspect of team success.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence is defined as the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in the self and others, the adaptive regulation of emotion in the self and others, and the utilization of emotion to facilitate performance (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in us and in our relationships. An emotional competence is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that contributes to effective performance at work.

The term *Emotional Intelligence* first appeared in a series of academic articles authored by John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey (1993). These publications generated little attention. Two years later, the term emotional intelligence entered the mainstream with Daniel Goleman's 1995 best-seller *Emotional Intelligence, Why It Can Matter More Than IQ* and subsequent articles in USA Weekend and Time Magazine (October 2, 1995). More recently, Goleman's latest book *Working With Emotional Intelligence* (1998) has caught the attention of human resource practitioners.

The concept of emotional intelligence is an umbrella term that captures a broad collection of individual skills and dispositions, usually referred to as soft skills or inter and intra-personal skills, that are outside the traditional areas of specific knowledge, general intelligence, and technical or professional skills.

Goleman (1998) organised the EQ into two dimensions. **Personal Competence** – how we manage ourselves, and **Social Competence**-how we manage our relationships with other people.

Personal Competence includes:

- a) *Self-awareness*:- is the ability to know one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions. This would include, an emotional awareness recognising our emotions and their effects, accurate self-assessment knowing our strengths and limits, self-confidence, and a strong sense of one's own self-worth and capabilities.
- b) *Self-regulations*:- is the ability to manage one's internal states, impulses and resources. This would include self-control, keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check, trustworthiness, maintaining standards of honesty and integrity, conscientiousness,

taking responsibility for personal performance, adaptability, flexibility in handling change, innovation of and being comfortable with new ideas, novel approaches and new information.

- c) *Motivation*:- is the emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate the reaching of goals. This would include a drive for achievement, striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence, commitment, aligning with the goals of the group or organisation, initiative readiness to act on opportunities, optimism, persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks.

Social Competence includes:

- a) *Empathy*:- is an awareness of others' feelings, needs and concerns. This would include understanding others, sensing the feelings and perspectives of others and taking an active interest in their concerns, developing others, sensing the development needs of others and bolstering their abilities, service orientation, anticipating, recognising and meeting customer needs, leveraging diversity, cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people, political awareness, and reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships.
- b) *Social Skill*:- is the adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others. This would include the ability to influence employing effective tactics for persuasion, communicate - listening openly and sending convincing messages, manage conflict- negotiating, resolving and sending convincing messages, manage- conflict negotiating and resolving disagreements, leadership- inspiring and guiding individuals and groups, be a catalyst for change- initiating or managing change, build bonds- nurturing instrumental relationships, collaboration and cooperation working with others towards shared goals, and work in a team creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.

Most of the authors on the topic noted that in order to be a well adjusted fully functioning member of society (or family member, spouse, employee, etc), one must possess both traditional intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional intelligence involves being aware of emotions and how they can affect and interact with traditional intelligence (e.g., impair or enhance judgement, etc). This view fits well with the commonly held notion that it takes more than just brains to succeed in life - one must also be able to develop and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships. Taken from this perspective emotional intelligence is nothing new. Goleman (1995) takes a somewhat broader position in describing emotional intelligence. In his writings, emotional intelligence consists of five factors. Knowing one's emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others, and handling relationships. Over the past several years, the term Emotional Intelligence has received much attention as a factor that is potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance at work (Kierstead, 1999). It is essential that the roots of the emotional intelligence movement and the issues surrounding its application to human resource management is properly understood.

Emotional Intelligence at Work

In 1998, in *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman set out a framework of emotional intelligence (EI) that reflects how an individual's potential for mastering the skills of Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management translates into on-the-job success. This model is based on EI competencies that have been identified in internal research at hundreds of corporations and organizations as distinguishing outstanding performers. As Goleman (1998) defined it, an emotional competence is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work (Goleman, 1998b). To be adept at an

emotional competence like customer service or conflict management requires an underlying ability in EI fundamentals, specifically, social awareness and relationship management. However, emotional competencies which are learned abilities having social awareness or skill at managing relationship does not guarantee one has mastered the additional learning required to handle a customer adeptly or to resolve a conflict- it just means that we have the potential to become skilled at these competencies.

Emotional competencies are job skills that can, and indeed must, be learned. An underlying EI ability is necessary, though not sufficient, to manifest competence in any one of the four EI domains or clusters. Consider the IQ corollary that a student can have excellent spatial abilities yet never learn geometry. So too can a person be highly empathic yet poor at handling customers if he or she has not learned competence in customer service. Although our emotional intelligence determines our potential for learning the practical skills that underlie the four EI clusters, our emotional competence shows how much of that potential we have realized by learning and mastering skills and translating intelligence into on-the-job capabilities.

In the current version of EI framework (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (2000), twenty competencies are nest in four clusters of general EI abilities. The framework illustrates, for example, that we cannot demonstrate the competencies of trustworthiness and conscientiousness without mastery of the fundamental ability of self-management or the competencies of influence, communication, conflict management, and so on without a handle on managing relationships.

The relationship between personality and job performance has been a frequently studied research topic in industrial and organizational psychology. Diamentopoulou (2001) conducted a study with a sample of bank employees in Greece to determine whether a relationship exists between personality (type

A and B) and emotional intelligence. It was found that people with a mixture of both Type A and B were higher in emotional intelligence; further more, it was found that Type B was positively correlated with social skills competencies. Because emotional intelligence involves achievement orientation, initiative, influence and leadership, it may be those who are rated high in these competencies similarly have tendencies towards type B personalities. It may be that achieving a balance between Type A and B behaviours-rather than simply having tendencies towards one another-is associated with emotional intelligence. Although Type A is always characterised as negative personality domain and Type B is seen as more positive it may be that in the work place, Type A behaviours (e.g. feeling very responsible, careful about detail, competitive) may serve individuals well when balanced with Type B characteristics (e.g., patient, listen well and rarely angry). Hesketh (2000) acknowledged that some personalities are more likely to be satisfied regardless of their failure with their work. For example, people who consistently express purposes and preferences that are people-oriented or social are more likely to express satisfaction with any work situation than are people whose purposes and preferences are things-oriented or mechanical realistic.

PERSONALITY

According to Mayer (1998) many of the characteristics of individuals that EI researchers are interested in have more to do with human personality, generally speaking, than with EI specifically. For example, Daniel Goleman's (1995) popularization of emotional intelligence certainly represented the original theory that Mayer developed with Peter Salovey, but it also added in many other aspects-zeal, persistence, character, and the like-which are more generally legitimate parts of personality. In a sense Goleman's model represents an anticipation of the renewed importance now attributed to

personality characteristics by the field of psychology. Certainly, looking at important personality traits such as zeal, persistence, and motivation plainly predicts something important. The Systems Framework for Personality Psychology can greatly enrich the field of EI by providing a framework, for the study of many variables of interest-including emotional intelligence proper, but also zeal, persistence, and social skills (Mayer, 1998).

It was found that emotional intelligence was positively related to proactive personality and personal control, but negatively related to irritability, verbal hostility, and emotional exhaustion. Emotions are very much a part of a person's personality. The broader traits that Goleman related to emotional intelligence are considered as personality traits by many theorists (Mayer, 1997).

Today most of the companies have formed their hiring policies based on certain personality characteristics of the recruits which are very relevant for the development of the right work behaviours and cooperation. For example, honesty, conscientiousness etc. It is more relevant since different jobs require different personality traits in the employee to be effective. For each individual there are work environments that more or less match the person's personality where a 'match' is viewed as expressing itself in high job performance and high job satisfaction. This tends to be particularly true for job situations that emphasize interpersonal interaction (Robert and Donald, 1980).

In today's organisations, workers are asked to make more decisions on their own, to work as members of teams, and to organize around the work process (Ryan, 1995). This shift in the economy has placed an increased importance on the worker's ability to effectively use cognitive and interpersonal skills even for low paying and entry-level positions (Wilson, 1997). This increased the requirement for cognitive and interpersonal skills

by employers in their employees. Hershenson (1996a) suggests work adjustment consists of an interaction between the work environment and the three individual domains of work personality, work competencies, and work goals.

Personality refers to the relatively consistent pattern of characteristics ways in which a person thinks, feels, and behaves. It is an inferred structure that underlies behaviour. Using personality constructs helps explain how people interact, deal with change, and behave under certain circumstances. Style is often used as a synonym (though it is not), and is commonly thought of as a relatively consistent manner in which you apply your personality in a role-your managerial style.

It is clear from dealing with daily challenges in the workplace that people take their personalities to work. Aspects of personality have been related to a variety of organizational processes such as compatibility with job tasks and demands, stress resiliency, interpersonal conflict and compatibility, flexibility-rigidity in dealing with problems, supervisory competence, persistence at a task, quality of work, and a long list of other job-related behaviours. In addition, part of the success as a manager is being able to examine the style of interacting and working, monitoring its effective application, and making revisions as needed.

Organizational managers always look for some way to improve success rates in decisions-selection, training assignment, etc. Cognitive ability (g) is the best individual difference predictor of job performance. But this chiefly relates to the traditional concept of job performance-task performance (units produced, etc). The employee can do (maximal performance), but not necessarily what she will do (typical performance). These days personnel psychologists recognize that job performance is multi-dimensional, including several extra role behaviours (helping others, volunteering), called contextual

performance, a well-known dimension of which is OCB's. It is this piece of performance that personality is thought to impact, whereas g is probably unrelated to it. Thus personality captures more variance in the performance domain than just cognitive ability testing. Bottom line from an organization's point of view is that the inclusion of personality variables in a selection system often has the advantage of less adverse impact on protected groups and higher validity for predicting job performance.

Personality is not an occult property, but something that's expressed in attitudes and behaviours. It can not be said that a conscientious person is a high performer because of the property of conscientiousness—a circular explanation. Usually it's assumed that personality is a distal predictor of performance, operating through the more proximal processes of motivation. Self-efficacy (Bandura 1977) and goals (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham 1981) are the most ubiquitous motivational constructs in industrial/ organisational psychology. It has been seen that self efficacy impacts both goals and (independently) personality. Judge & Ilies (2002) observed that, the effects of both Conscientiousness and Emotional Stability on self efficacy and goals. Does personality have an independent effect when self-efficacy and goals are controlled? Researchers are divided on this issue, if so, then motivation may be said to partially mediate the personality-performance relationship (i.e. personality affects performance when the effects of motivation are statistically controlled). The situation also may play a large mediating role. For example, organizations can differ in the degree to which they design jobs to have very competitive or cooperative demands. Research indicates that these social aspects of work are psychologically meaningful to employees, and will systematically impact the relationship between personality and work performance.

JOB ATTITUDES

Occupation may be defined as that specific activity, with a market value which an individual continually pursue for the purpose of obtaining a steady flow of income. This activity also determines the social position of the individual. Hall 1986 cited Salz, that, occupation is a major source of identity for most people, as one's occupation is a primary identity characteristic. The experience and quality of work place is of great importance to today's employee and employer, because it decides the job attitudes and job behaviours of the employees, which are the concerns of the employee and employer respectively. Job attitudes are the attitudes held by the employee on different aspects of the job. They are of great importance to the work behaviours of the employee. They are:

(i) Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is important to researchers and organizations because of the desire to retain a strong workforce. Researchers and practitioners are keenly interested in understanding the factors that influence an individual's decision to stay or leave an organization. While turnover is related to all three types of commitment, there may be unique relationships between the three types of commitment and other work-related outcomes (e.g. absenteeism organizational citizenship behaviours, performance etc). Affective commitment tends to be most highly related to the outcomes. A review of the research by Meyer et al. (2002) suggests that researchers have typically focused on organizational outcomes and correlates of commitment. However, more recently, researchers are beginning to examine more individual-level correlates of affective commitment like stress, well-being, and work-family conflict. This shift in focus is relevant to the current work as work-life importance is often instituted to positively affect these individual-level constructs. Murphy & Sauter (2003).

Muchinsky (1983) reported the definition given by Steers of organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. He reported the findings of Steers et. al. and Steers on the characteristics of organisational commitment . Organisational commitment is characterised by: (1) strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) willingness to exert effort for the organization; and (3) desire to maintain membership in the organization. Organizational commitment has both antecedent causes and consequence. Steers proposed three sets of antecedent's personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences. Personal characteristics include age and education. Job characteristics involve challenge, opportunities for social interaction and the amount of feed back provided on the job. Finally work experiences include such factors as attitude towards the organization, organization dependability, and the realization of expectations within the organization. For instance, organizational commitment is often measured to ascertain the degree to which workers feel emotionally committed to their organization, stuck with their job, and or compelled by social norms (e.g. pressures from family and friends) to stay in their current position.

(ii) Job involvement

Job involvement is the extent that individuals are ego involved in their work, though there appears to be more than ego involvement (Muchinsky, 1983), he talked of the definition of job involvement by Ladah and Kejner, as the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image. They also said that involvement is internalizing values about the goodness of work or importance of work in the worth of the person. However, there is some confusion reported by Rabinowitz & Hall, over whether job involvement is a product of

person-environment interaction or simply an individual personality variable. Job involvement was found to be related to three sets of variables, demographic, situational, and work out comes. Job involvement is consistently related to various types of job satisfaction, particularly satisfaction with work itself. Job involvement is negatively related to absenteeism. Muchinsky (1983) reported the findings of Saal that there is no relationship between job involvement and productivity While it is quite certain of the relationship between job involvement and several other variables, most of the variables in job involvement remain unexplained. People certainly do differ in how involved they are, but why such differences exist is unexplained.

(iii) Job Satisfaction:

Like any feeling of satisfaction, job satisfaction is an emotional, affective response. Affect refers to feelings of liking or disliking. Muchnisky, (1983) used the definition of job satisfaction by Locke as a pleasurable positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Job satisfaction is strictly an individual response, unlike morale, which is a group response. Job satisfaction is often measured as a global construct (e.g. overall, how satisfied are you with your job), but there are also many scales and methods for digging deeper. For instance, the Job Descriptive Index separately assesses attitudes toward supervisors, co-workers, pay, promotion opportunities, and the work itself. Additionally, there are attitudes or attitude like constructs that are quite distinct from satisfaction but have similar predictive power in understanding issues like turnover and absenteeism.

Theories of job satisfaction present a more complicated picture. They suggest that in most circumstances people tend to over look or underestimate the physical environment in making judgement about their jobs. According to

Maslow and Herzberg's theories in Sundstrom (1986), the work place only becomes salient for job satisfaction, when it becomes inadequate. In satisfactory environments, people are thought to emphasis other factors in judgement of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is more of result of the psychological comfort a person derives from the job rather than the material ones- it might be the social support system (perceived), perceived justice and prestige all these are very much influenced by the personality and emotional competencies of the individual (Sundstrom 1986).

General Job satisfaction, the overall attitude of liking or disliking a job is a universal and essential aspect of adult career development. It is a global, bottom-line approach to satisfaction as contrasted with a facet approach. It is a constellation of attitudes indicating a liking or disliking of several facets of a job. Theorists and parishioners seem to accept that nearly everybody seeks satisfaction in his or her work. Crites (1969) and Osipow & Fitzgerald, (1996) opined that satisfaction and success are considered as the two summary markers of adult vocational adjustment

As pointed out by Super *et al.* (1996) life-span career theorists directly address general job satisfaction in the following formal proposition. The degree of satisfaction people attain from work is proportional to the degree to which they have been able to implement self-concepts. Satisfaction at any point in an individual's career depends on the successful implementation of occupational self-concepts. He further emphasises the view of the life-span career theorists that adult career development is a continuing process of improving the match between self and situations. The match between-self-concepts and work situations are a never-completed project extending across the adult working career. People change their self-concepts to accommodate changing social conditions (e.g., in the workplace, community, and family). Like-wise, work conditions change in terms of labour market opportunities,

organizational structures, and task content. At any particular age or stage, a person's satisfaction reflects the contemporary match between his or her general purposes and generalized job realities.

After reviewing early empirical studies on job satisfaction, Crites (1969) linked general job satisfaction with age and discovered a developmental trend in vocational adjustment. He called the trend a U-shaped satisfaction cycle, that started at about age 20 with high satisfaction, dipped to low satisfaction at about age 30, and then gradually rose to high satisfaction by mid career. More recent evidence about the cycle is mixed, some supportive (Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996) and some revealing a linear relationship (Kalleberg & Loscouo, 1983). As people develop and adapt, their purposes more closely match the work that occupies their time and effort, in other words, the match becomes increasingly harmonious. Therefore job satisfaction is expected to increase as people progress through career life stages.

PERFORMANCE

The traditional one-dimensional definition of job performance as equal to task performance overshadowed the importance of personality and interpersonal skill (EI related skills) and accentuates the importance of intelligence. Motowidlo and Borman (1997) separated job performance into 2 parts-task performance and contextual performance. Task performance is the traditional notion of ability how well workers perform and complete a specific task.

Contextual performance measures aspects of performance unrelated to specific tasks volunteering, putting in extra efforts, cooperating, following rules, and procedures and endorsing the goals of the organisation that are equally important for job performance. Their researches show that task

performance and contextual performance contributes independently to overall job performance. Furthermore, job experience predicted task performance better than it predicted contextual performance. In contrast, personality predicted contextual performance better than it predicted task performance. Contextual performance can be further separated into two factors-job dedication such as working hard, volunteering and committing to the organisation-and interpersonal facilitation such as co-operating, and helping others. Personality affects the two facets differently- conscientiousness predicts job dedication, while extraversion and agreeableness predict interpersonal facilitation. Interestingly, job dedication appears to affect both task performance and interpersonal facilitation. But the model also indicates the importance of extraversion, agreeableness and interpersonal skills.

Organizational Performance

One of the major concerns of all the industrial houses is the performance, productivity or the output. Organizational performance is product of many factors. The Satellite Model of organizational performance identified several of the most important factors including organizational structure, knowledge, non human resources, strategic positioning and human processes. All these strategies and variables are interrelated. The integration is not only essential to meet current business and social needs but it is essential to the change process necessary to meet future business and social needs of the organization. While all these factors are important and certainly worthy of studying, the primary emphasis is on human resources. The emphasis is justified because increasing attention is being directed toward human resources, not only in their traditional role, but also in their influence on other key performance factors. Using superior human resources as a competitive weapon in improving organizational performance is certainly a new dimension in the management of organizational behaviour.

The whole area of non-cognitive factors as related to performance at work (e.g., personality, emotional intelligence, creativity, etc.) certainly presents an opportunity for ongoing researches. It is broadly recognized that non-cognitive factors are important determinants of work behaviour, especially in a rapidly changing work environment. What remains is to determine which constructs and assessment methods offer value, contribute to merit based staffing, and increase understanding of job performance in the public sector context.

RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

In the light of the above mentioned facts, the present world of work is more oriented towards the human aspect of the organizations. One cannot ignore and take lightly the unique personality traits and emotional aspects of the individual workers. Secondly the organizations are much concerned about the job related attitudes and the job behaviours of the employees, because it decides the efficiency and effectiveness of the employees as well as the organisations, which has great economic impact on the organization.

The world of business has changed from what it was a couple of decades ago; as a result of globalization, the changes are inevitable and impending for all organizations. To complement the role of the globalization the development of information technology has brought in along the need for acquiring new skills for the employees. To day as a result of all these developments there is a major shift in focus of the organizations, from the other resources to the development and optimum utilization of human resources. In the strategic human resource management the major focus of an organization is the development and maintenance of an effective human resource team for high performance.

From the individual's point of view, in the present scenario of growing occupational stress, the need to suit and redesign the policies and work conditions of the employees is a must. The management should be well aware of the emotional needs and the need to develop emotional competencies for the workers and for themselves.

The understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality and other personal and work related variable may help, employees, managers, employers, the organisations and the government as a whole.

1. In view of the rapid changes in the work values and work demands the study may help the employees individually to identify strategies to cope.
2. To improve creativity and motivation at work place.
3. To improve the job related attitudes of the employees
4. May help the managements to devise strategies to adapt to changes and improve performance.
5. To enhance teamwork.
6. In the recruitment of the right people for the right job.
7. To decide on promotion criteria and leadership positions.
8. May help the management in exploring the market and improving the customer relationships.
9. To improve the interpersonal relationships in the organization and to enhance the overall health of the organization.
10. To resolve the organizational conflicts.

As a minimum, the emotional intelligence concept is useful for individuals interested in learning about the role of emotions in work and everyday life and how interpersonal relationships affect work and organizational performance, and should prove useful for personal development and insight.

As the focus of today's organisations have become more on human beings the concept of emotional intelligence is very relevant for today's organisations. Emotions are an inevitable result of human interactions. Clear understanding and effective management of one's own and others' emotions will go a long way in helping the individual employees as well as the organizations to pursue the common goals with much ease and perfection.

Personality is another individual characteristic that is very crucial for the individual as well as for group effectiveness of an organization. Personality is a very decisive factor in predicting the personal and work outcomes of an individual employee.

Attitudes play a vital role in the behavioural outcomes of an individual. There are many attitudes of an employee, which are very much associated with his work and organisational behaviour.

The ultimate criterion of the success of an organization is its productivity or overall performance. The performance is viewed at many levels. It can be simple task of performance that is if the employees are performing the specific task assigned to them (task performance), or it can be a measure of the contribution of the employee for the overall well being of the organization (non role performance).

This study is an effort to find out the effect of the construct of emotional intelligence and personality on some organizationally relevant variables. The variables considered are job satisfaction, job involvement,

organizational commitment (job attitudes), performance, turnover and absenteeism (job behaviours).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study aims at finding out a predictive relationship between emotional intelligence and personality with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement (job attitudes), and job behaviours. The study also proposes to explore if there is any connection between the combination of emotional intelligence and personality with job behaviours.

The objective of the investigation is to identify the importance of emotional intelligence and personality on job attitudes and job behaviours. It is hoped that the results of the work may prove useful for any attempt to improve HRD activities and development of organizations. It is also expected that identification of the moderating effects of emotional intelligence and personality on Job attitudes and Job behaviours will help the employees and the organisations to devise an appropriate recruitment and promotion criteria.

The investigation has been titled as **Emotional Intelligence and Personality as Moderators of Job Attitudes and Job Behaviours**. The term Job Attitude is associated with Organisational commitment, Job Involvement and Job Satisfaction; and Job Behaviour is Job Performance.

DEFINITIONS OF KEY WORDS

- i) **Emotional Intelligence:** is defined by Daniel Goleman in his book "Working with Emotional Intelligence (1999) as the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. But Goleman points out that just someone is high in emotional intelligence do not mean that she/he will have learned the emotional competencies for her particular functions at work. Rather, it

means only that she has an excellent potential for learning them. Emotional competencies are specific emotional skills required for success in specific tasks.

(ii) **PERSONALITY:** The present study has included type A personality pattern as the measure of personality. According to Friedman (1996), Type A Behavior Pattern, is a set of characteristics that includes being impatient, excessively time-conscious, insecure about one's status, highly competitive, hostile and aggressive, and incapable of relaxation. Type A individuals are often highly achieving workaholics who multi-task, drive themselves with deadlines, and are unhappy about the smallest of delays. They have been described as stress junkies.

The Type B personality, in contrast, is patient, relaxed, and easy-going. There is also a Type AB mixed profile for people who cannot be clearly categorized.

iii) **JOB ATTITUDES:** Are the attitudes the employee has towards his job, co-workers, management and organization. It has the three components of an attitude that will evoke the corresponding thoughts, feelings and action tendencies in the employee. There are three job attitudes. They are :

a) **Organization commitment:** Refers to the extent to which an employee feels a sense of allegiance to her or his employer. Mayer (1997) asserted that in general, organizational commitment refers to the employees relationship with the organization and that it has implications for her/his decisions to continue membership in the organization.

b) **Job Involvement:** Refers to the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with her/his work and the importance of the work to

one's self-image. Brown (1996) asserted that people may be stimulated by and drawn deeply into their work or they may be alienated from it mentally and emotionally. According to Brown a state of involvement implies a positive, relatively complete state of engagement of core aspects of self in the job, whereas a state of alienation implies a loss of individuality and separation of the self from the work environment.

- c) **Job satisfaction:** Refers to the degree of pleasure an employee derives from her/his job. People develop overall feelings about their jobs (global job satisfaction) as well as about selected dimensions or facets of their jobs (Job facets satisfaction) such as their supervisors, co-workers promotions opportunities, pay and so on.
- iv) **JOB BEHAVIOURS:** In the present study job behaviours are limited to the study of performance. Performance is the overall qualitative and quantitative output of the employee both in the specific tasks as well as for the overall health of the organization.
- v) **MIDDLE MANAGERS:** There are three levels of managements; top-level managers who are concerned with planning, middle level managers who are concerned with the supervision and management of the labour force in the organization, and the lower level managers who are technically oriented people who deal with the machines. The middle managers are the managers who are in the middle of the hierarchy of the management and their main job is team building and co-ordination of the work force as part of the daily functioning of the organisation.
- vi) **MODERATORS:** Moderator is an independent variable which intervenes in the relationship between two variables and changes the nature of the relationship between those two variables. In the present

study emotional intelligence and personality are the two moderator variables on the relationship between job attitudes and performance.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To identify the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Performance of Middle level Managers.
2. To study the nature and extent of relationship among the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Performance.
3. To identify those variables which predict Job Attitudes.
4. To identify those variables (Emotional intelligence, Personality and Job attitudes) which predict Job Performance.
5. To explore the relationship of job-related demographics variables with Personality and Emotional Intelligence on Job attitudes and Job Performance.
6. To find out the moderating effect of Emotional Intelligence and Personality on Job Attitude and Job Performance.

HYPOTHESES

The following general hypotheses have been formulated for the study, in accordance with the above objectives.

1. There will be significant relationship among the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Job Performance.
2. Variables of Emotional Intelligence and Personality shall be used to predict the Job Attitudes.

3. Variables of Emotional Intelligence, Personality and Job Attitudes shall be used to predict Job Performance.
4. There will be significant difference between Type A and Type B personalities on different dimensions of Emotional Intelligence and overall Emotional Intelligence.
5. There will be significant interaction between the classificatory factors – Job related/demographic variables (Age, Experience, Salary, Training), Emotional Intelligence (High – Low) and Personality (Type A and Type B) on Job Attitudes and Job Performance.
6. There will be significant difference between accident and non accident groups on Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Performance.
7. There will be significant interaction between the classificatory factors Emotional Intelligence (low, high) Personality (Type A, Type B) and Job Attitudes (low, high) on Performance.
8. Emotional Intelligence and Personality shall be used to moderate Job Attitude and Job Performance.

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY
AS MODERATORS OF JOB ATTITUDES AND
JOB BEHAVIOURS**

**THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN PSYCHOLOGY**

MADHU. K.B.

**UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT
KERALA**

2007

Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

- Emotional Intelligence
- Emotional Intelligence and Personality
- Job Attitudes
 - Organisation Commitment
 - Job Involvement
 - Job Satisfaction
- Job involvement and Organisational Commitment
- Job involvement and Job Satisfaction
- Job Involvement and Job Attitudes
- Emotional Intelligence and Job Attitudes
- Personality and Job Attitudes
- Job Behaviours
- Emotional Intelligence and Job Behaviours
- Personality and Job Behaviours
- Job Attitudes and Job Behaviours
- Emotional Intelligence, Personality and Job Attitudes

INTRODUCTION

Literature review refers to any collection of materials on a topic, not necessarily the Great Literary Texts of the World. Literature review demonstrates that the researcher knows the field, justifies the reason for the research and allows the researcher to establish her/his theoretical framework and methodological focus. The literature review is commonly seen as the springboard to the thesis.

A literature review discusses published information in a particular subject area, and sometimes, information in a particular subject area within a certain time period. A literature review can be just a simple summary of the sources, but it usually has an organizational pattern and combines both summary and synthesis. A summary is a recap of the important information of the source, but a synthesis is a re-organisation, or a reshuffling, of that information. It might give a new interpretation of old material or combine new with old interpretations. Or it might trace the intellectual progression of the field, including major debates. While the main focus of an academic research paper is to support one's argument, the focus of a literature review is to summarise and synthesize the arguments and ideas of others. Literature reviews provides the investigator with a handy guide to a particular topic. If the investigator has limited time to conduct research, literature reviews can give her/him an overview or act as a stepping stone. For professionals, they are useful reports that keep them up to date with what is current in the field. for scholars, the depth and breath of the literature review emphasizes the credibility of the writer in her or his field. Literature reviews also provide a solid background for a research paper's investigation. Comprehensive knowledge of the literature of the field is essential to most research papers.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The term Emotional Intelligence appeared in series of academic articles authored by John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey (1990 & 1995). Their first article presented the first model of emotional intelligence. However, the term "emotional intelligence" entered the mainstream only with Daniel Goleman in 1995. He argues in his book that IQ contributes only about 20% to success in life, and other forces contribute the rest. We can infer that emotional intelligence, luck, and social class are among those other factors. He also says that emotional intelligence is a new concept indeed, but the existing data imply it can be as powerful as IQ and sometimes even more, and, at least, unlike what is claimed about IQ, we can teach and improve in children some crucial emotional competencies. Emotionally intelligent people are more likely to succeed in everything they undertake.

Handley (1997), describes the research showing the relationship between EQ-i scores and success in recruitment among Air Force staff. The EQ-i was completed by 1284 Air Force recruiters. Recruiters who thought of themselves as successful were compared with those who thought of themselves as unsuccessful. In addition, recruiters who were achieving 100 percent of their assigned goal were compared to those who were producing less than 80 percent of their assigned goals were compared to those who were producing less than 80 percent of their goal. Results indicate that optimism with high self-regard and assertively solving problems, stress tolerance, flexibility, and self actualization contribute to greater degrees of happiness and success in recruiting.

Recent research suggests that a better understanding of emotional exhaustion requires the development of new theoretical perspectives. To that end, with the conservation of resources model (COR) as the theoretical framework, a one year longitudinal study was undertaken by Wright and

Corpanzano (1998). Composed of 52 social welfare workers, this research examined the relationship of emotional exhaustion to job satisfaction, voluntary turnover, and job performance. Positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) were used as control variables. Whereas emotional exhaustion was unrelated to job satisfaction, it was associated with both performance and subsequent turnover. In addition, the relationship between emotional exhaustion and performance and also between emotional exhaustion and turnover remained significant above and beyond the effects of PA and NA.

Derman (1999), studied the relationship between the emotional intelligence of family-member managers and business success in family businesses in Israel (46 participants in 11 family businesses). The study examined whether the relationship between EQ and business success or failure is determined by the mean EQ of the management team. It also investigated whether an individual manager with minimum EQ has a negative effect on the success of a business that cannot be overcome by a higher mean EQ of the management team. There was a high and significant correlation between EQ and business success. The mean EQ of the entire management team, not the manager's EQ, was found to influence the success or failure of a business.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and collaborative conflict management style was investigated by Malek, (2000) using the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) and the Thomas-Kilmann Management of Difference Exercises (MODE) instrument. Participants were 98 employed individuals (the majority in management or professional positions) from metropolitan areas of California. A statistically significant relationship was found between scores on the EQ-i, and scores on collaborative conflict management style.

George (2000) suggests that feelings (moods and emotions) play a central role in the leadership process. More specifically, it is proposed that emotional intelligence, the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in the self and others, contributes to effective leadership in organizations. Four major aspects of emotional intelligence, the appraisal and expression of emotion, the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision making, knowledge about emotions, and management of emotions, are described. Then, I propose how emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership by focusing on five essential elements of leader effectiveness: development of collective goals and objectives, instilling in others an appreciation of the importance of work activities, generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, cooperation, and trust encouraging flexibility in decision making and change, and establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization.

Dhar and Dhar (2001) examined the relevance of emotional intelligence as discussed in Srimad Bhagavad-Gita in modern management education. Emotional intelligence which refers to the ability to balance emotion and reason contributes to the managerial success to a large extent. This concept propounded in the West, has been highlighted in the 'Sankhya Yoga' of the Srimad Bhagavad-Gita. Different components of emotional intelligence like self awareness, Self-regulation, empathy, motivation and social skills are explained in different verses of the Gita. The paper discusses how these components are helpful for the relationship between emotions and stress among mental health nurses.

Humpel *et al.* (2001) conducted an exploratory correlational study that examined the relationships between Emotional Competency, Trait Affectivity, Stress and Experienced Emotions among 43 mental health nurses in Australian regional hospitals. A significant relationship was found between

Emotional Competency and Personal Self doubt in male nurses only; however, no association was found between Emotional Competency and Experienced Emotions. Trait Affectivity was found to be associated with Experienced Emotions but not Stress. Gender differences were found in Trait Affectivity and Experienced Emotions. The results of the study have implications for the retention of mental health nurses in their profession.

Parker, Taylor, & Bagby (2001) examined the relationship between the Alexithymia construct, as measured by the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20), and emotional intelligence, as measured by the EQ-i, in a sample of 734 adults. The main purpose was to determine if the total score of the TAS-20, and the scores from each of its 3 factors, are distinguishable from the total score of the EQ-i. The results revealed that the constructs overlap and are inversely related. Significant negative correlations were obtained between the TAS-20 and its 3 factors and the Adaptability and Stress Management factors of the EQ-i. These results raise the possibility that high emotional intelligence might be a protective factor for mental and physical health.

Ruderman. *et al.* (2001) studied the connection between aspects of emotional intelligence and effective versus ineffective leadership behaviors. Benchmarks results were correlated with scores on EQ-i. Correlations were found between high emotional intelligence in certain areas and various qualities of leadership excellence, including participative management, self-awareness, straight forwardness and composure, building and mending relationships, perseverance despite obstacles, decisiveness, and change management. Problems associated with derailment, such as difficulties with interpersonal relationships and trouble in changing or adapting, were related to low EQ-i scores in certain areas. Overall, impulse control, independence, and the ability to build and maintain interpersonal relationships were found to be the most important characteristics of excellent managers.

Stuart, and Paquet (2001) compared the Emotional intelligence scores of employees of a financial institution who displayed leadership potential (n=31) with scores of a group who displayed little leadership potential. Leadership was rated by ascertaining the presence of transformational behaviour. All rated employees completed an emotional intelligence scale. Results indicated that the factors of optimism and self-actualisation were significantly higher for the leader group. The non-leader group indicated higher scores on the positive impression scale, indicating possible positive skewing of results for that group. Generally, the research data indicates a link between the fundamental postulates of transformational leadership theory and emotional intelligence.

Is emotional intelligence simply a naive theory of personality, or is it a form of intelligence? If emotional intelligence is to be of value, it must measure something unique and distinct from standard personality traits. To explore this question, Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (2002) examined an ability test of emotional intelligence and its relationship to personality test variables to determine the extent to which these constructs overlap. A sample of 183 men and women took the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999), an ability measure of emotional intelligence as well as measures of career interests, personality, and social behavior. Emotional intelligence was measured reliably and was relatively independent of traditionally defined personality traits, supporting the discriminant validity of the emotional intelligence construct.

Crick (2002) examined, the relationship between emotional intelligence, social competence and success was investigated in 31 male and 89 female 14 to 17-year-olds, using EQ-I: YV< and the Social Skills Rating System - Secondary Student Form (SSRS). Students were categorized as Leaders, Joiners or Non-Joiners of school clubs or organizations. Female

leaders exhibited higher Total EQ, intrapersonal, interpersonal and adaptability scores in comparison to the normative sample, while male leaders exhibited higher adaptability scores than the normative sample. Significant mean score differences existed between the emotional intelligence scores of Leaders, Joiners and Non-Joiners. Emotional intelligence was not shown to increase with age. Teacher ratings of social skills were significantly higher for Leaders than for Joiners and Non-Joiners.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic retention was examined by Parker, (2002) in a longitudinal study involving 870 first year students at Trent University. Students completed the EQ-i: Short in the fall of 1st year. Two groups of students were subsequently identified: a) those who became 2nd year students at Trent, and b) those who did not. The two groups were matched on age and gender, and did not differ in high school grade-point-average or course load in 1st year. Academic success (staying in university) was strongly associated with emotional intelligence. Emotional Intelligence scores were able to correctly identify the majority of students who would return for their second year. Furthermore, EI score were even better at identifying those students that would abandon post-secondary education altogether, in comparison to transferring to another institution.

Parker *et al.* (2002) in an unpublished manuscript, examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in high school students (n=667). Participants completed EQ-i: YV, and gave permission for their academic progress at school to be tracked. Academic success was strongly associated with overall EI level. EI was found to predict about 16% of the variability in high school GPA. A stronger level of prediction was produced when EQ-i: YV variables were compared in groups

who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful versus less successful students).

Parker (2002) examined the association between emotional intelligence (measured with the EQ-i) and the five-factor model of personality (measured using the NEO-FFI) in a large community sample of adults. Most of the variability on the total EQ-i scale could not be explained by the five NEO-FFI scales. In the second study, emotional intelligence was assessed during the first month of the academic year and at the end of the year in 417 first-year undergraduates. EQ-i scores of academically successful first-year students and unsuccessful first-year students were compared. The successful group scored significantly higher than the unsuccessful group on the total EQ-i scale, although the two groups did not differ with respect to high school grade-point-average.

According to Remeikaite *et al.* (2002) emotional intelligence is a subset of human abilities that denotes the capacity to understand and use emotional information and influences a wide range of activities. Emotional intelligence is new topic in Lithuania and not scientifically studied before. One of the fields, where emotional intelligence could be applied, is the workplace. So the central issue concerning this work was to see what is the role of emotional intelligence in the organizational environment. In this study the authors used two questionnaires to measure emotional intelligence and socio-psychological climate. A survey of 11, IT companies in Vilnius was carried out. The results showed that emotional intelligence plays essential role in these organizations. In many aspects emotional intelligence influences interpersonal relations and personal well-being in the workplace. The interesting thing was that not only average emotional intelligence in organizations positively correlated with their socio-psychological climate. The individuals, who had higher emotional intelligence, were more likely to

feel better in their workgroup and to give higher value for psychological climate in organization too. This is a new aspect and requires further researches in the future.

Stein (2002) assessed seventy-six leading CEOs in Ontario (61 male and 15 female) belonging to Innovators Alliance, a CEO knowledge network of innovative, accelerated growth firms, using EQ-i. Overall, the group scored slightly higher than average on Total EQ. In order from most above the norm to least, the group scored above average on Independence, Assertiveness, Optimism, Self-actualization, and Self-regard. Below average scores were obtained for Interpersonal Relationships and Impulse Control. Female CEOs scored significantly higher than their male counterparts on the Interpersonal scale. Finally, superstar CEOs (identified with two criteria regarding profitability) were found to differ from the rest of the group with higher scores on Empathy, Self-Regard, and Assertiveness.

"Emotional Intelligence" is a psychological concept, associated with the multiple intelligences school of thought, with broad application in a variety of social and organizational contexts'. To verify this statements Dolan Timothy and Bradley Jennifer (2003) conducted a quasi-experimental study of the effects of instruction in a ten-week course on emotional intelligence and managerial excellence taught by Dr. Jennifer Joss Bradley, co-author of this paper, using three independent, but related measures of emotional competence and perceived levels of stress. T-test results showed significant change from pre-test scores between experimental and control groups on the ECI dimensions of Self-Management as well as the Symptoms of Stress Checklist

Law *et al.* (2004), in this study, reviewed the definition of emotional intelligence (EI) and argued that EI is conceptually distinct from personality. In Study 1, the authors showed that EI was related to, yet distinct from

personally dimensions and that it has incremental predictive power on life satisfaction. The authors examined the construct validity of self-reports and others' rating of EI using two samples in Study 2. In a student sample, parents' ratings explained additional variance in the students' life satisfaction and feelings of powerlessness after controlling for the Big Five personality dimensions. In the work sample peer ratings were found to be significant predictors of job performance ratings provided by supervisors after controlling for the Big Five personality dimensions.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY

Current theories view the processing of affective information as a type of 'mental' ability, asserting that 'emotional' intelligence should be included within the traditional cognitive abilities frame work. Davies, Stankov, & Roberts (1998) report three studies (total N=530) investigating the relationship between measures of emotional intelligence, traditional human cognitive abilities, and personality. The studies suggest that the status of the emotional intelligence construct is limited by measurement properties of its tests. Measures based on consensual scoring exhibited low reliability. Self-report measures had salient loadings on well-established personality factors (i.e., Neuroticism, Extraversion, Psychoticism, Agreeableness, and Openness) indicating a lack of divergent validity. These data sets provide controvertible evidence for the existence of a separate Emotion Perception Factor (perhaps representing the ability to monitor another individual's emotions) that, in turn, future studies might explore more fully. However, this factor appears much narrower than that postulated within current models of emotional intelligence.

According to Kerry, Paula and Betty (2000) emotional Intelligence has been discussed in the popular business press over the past few years and has recently found its way into prestigious business and industrial psychology journals. However, there is no validated instrument available in the academic

literature for management consultants, trainers, and business available in the academic literature for management consultants, trainers, and business practitioners to use when surveying employees' perceptions of their emotional intelligence. The authors therefore constructed and examined a new measure, beginning with 269 items which were eventually trimmed to 30 items. All items loaded cleanly on their respective factors. In Study 1 and Study 2, reliabilities were: Emotional Intelligence measure = .86, 91; Empathetic Response dimension = .87, 92; Mood Regulation dimension = .77, 76; Interpersonal Skills dimension = .82, 82; Internal Motivation dimension = .78, 81; and Self-Awareness dimension = .69, .70, respectively. It was found that emotional intelligence was positively related to proactive personality and personal control, but negatively related to irritability/verbal hostility and emotional exhaustion. The construct's relationships with selected demographic variables were inconclusive.

Petrides & Furnham (2001) proposed two types of emotional intelligence, trait EI and ability EI. In Study 1, the factorial structure of the EQ-i was examined via confirmatory factor analysis, and the incremental validity of trait EI was examined within the Eysenckian model, by locating trait EI in Eysenckian factor space. Participants were 227 employees from a large transport company based in New Zealand. Results indicated that a single factor model provided the best approximation to the data, and that the trait EI factor exhibited incremental validity with respect to the Eysenckian dimensions. Study 2 examined the incremental validity of trait EI using a lengthened version of the EQ-i, within the Five Factor Model. Participants (N=166) were university undergraduates and postgraduates. Results indicated that trait EI may be conceptualized as a distinguishable, lower order composite construct within the Five Factor Model of personality.

Sjoberg (2001) in his Economic Psychology Section and in His Stockholm School of Economics, Sweden paper describes the construction and the construct validation of an extensive test battery for use in the selection process in business and business education. It is based on notions of social competence and emotional intelligence (EI) in broad senses of the terms. Participants were 226 persons who had applied for admittance to the undergraduate program of the Stockholm School of Economics. Many indices were constructed on the basis of their test responses. In a second-order factor analysis, four factors were identified: mental stability, emotional intelligence proper, dominance (including creativity and mental energy), and compulsiveness. These factors were related to emotional skills and to standard personality scales (Big Five, MPI, and Myers-Briggs scales), as well as to scales measuring risk-taking attitudes and variables measuring response styles. It was found that the secondary factors were less subjected to self-presentation bias than the Big Five scales, and that they were about equal to the MPI scales in this respect. These three sets of scales were rather strongly related, while the Myers-Briggs scales were only weakly related. The authors identified dimensions of emotional skills in judgments of mood, social problem episodes, music and art samples, and facial expressions. Some of these skill measures were related to the secondary factors as expected, thus further validating them. EI was found to contribute variance to the explanation of emotional knowledge not contained in standard scales of personality. Also, risk attitudes were systematically related to the secondary factors. The four secondary factors were unrelated to intellectual ability, and they were unrelated to temporary mood when habitual mood was controlled for.

From large samples of volunteers recruited and examined over the internet, lead researchers, Srivastava *et al.* (2003) found that certain changes do occur in middle adulthood. Conscientiousness increased throughout the

age range studied, with the biggest increases in a person's 20s; this trait is defined as being organized, planful, and disciplined, and past research has linked it to work performance and work commitments. Agreeableness increased the most during a person's 30s; this trait is defined as being warm, generous, and helpful, and has been linked to relationship and to prosocial behavior. Neuroticism declined with age for women but did not decline for men; this trait is defined in people who worry and are emotionally unstable it has been linked to depression and other mental health problems. Openness showed small declines with age for both men and women. Finally, extraversion declined for women but did not show changes in men. Both neuroticism and extraversion scores were higher for younger women than for younger men. But for both of these traits - and most strikingly for neuroticism - the apparent sex differences diminished with age. Of the 132,515 participants, 54 percent were female, all lived in the U.S. or Canada, 86% were White and 14% were Asian, Black, Latino or Middle Eastern. A subset of the sample - 42,578 - were asked about their socioeconomic status. Of these participants, 405 (1%) said they were poor, 7,614 (18%) said they were working class, 23,024 (54%) said they were middle class and 10,718 (25%) said they were upper-middle class. This study contradicts an often cited view that personality traits are genetically programmed to stop changing by early adulthood. There is considerable evidence against it, say the authors. In the study, "average levels of personality traits changed gradually but systematically throughout the lifespan, sometimes even more after age 30 than before. Increasing conscientiousness and agreeableness and decreasing neuroticism in adulthood may indicate increasing maturity - people becoming on the average better adapted as they get older, well into middle age."

JOB ATTITUDES

Job attitudes refers to the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his or her work and the importance of work to one's self-image, drawn deeply into their work (putting their heart and soul into work) or feels alienated from work (not able to identify mentally and emotionally).

Bidyadhar and Sahoo (1997) investigated the moderating parameters of work family linkages in the Indian context. A sample of 200 married women professionals was administered Kanungo and Misra's Work and Family Involvement Scale (1988), Sahoo and Bidyadhr's Work Behaviour Questionnaire (1994) and other socio demographic measures. Based on responses to work and family involvement, the sample was divided into 4 groups: high on work and family involvement, high on work involvement, low on family involvement, low on work involvement and high on family involvement, and low on work and family involvement. The group low on both family and work was not considered for further analyses. Inter correlations between work behaviour and socio demographic variables were computed. Harmony was negatively correlated with conflict features. There was a positive correlation between work and family involvement and child support and work involvement. Emotional support from spouse was correlated with family involvement. Some of the socio demographic factors were important in explaining work and family involvement.

Naaz (1999) examined the influence of job characteristics (autonomy, task identity, feedback and skill variety) and demographic variables (chances of advancement and salary) on job involvement. A sample of 362 production line workers was administered the Job Characteristics Scale (Naaz and Akhtar, 1993) and an adapted version of Lodhal and Kejner's (1965) Job Involvement Scale. Regression analyses revealed that skill variety and task

identity were significant predictors of job involvement implying that job involvement was significantly determined by job characteristics.

Ahmad and Ansari (2000) studied the effect of income and job tenure on job involvement of craftsmen in carpet manufacturing industries. The sample consisted of 100 craftsmen (age 26-28 years) working in various small scale carpet industries. Subjects were administered the Hindi version of Lodhal and Kejner's Job Involvement Scale (1965) and a biographical information blank. Two-way analysis of variance revealed that the main effects of income and job tenure were not significant. However, income job tenure interaction effect was significant.

Yadav, Vithalrao & Halejal (1998) investigated the influence of job involvement and family involvement on job and marital satisfaction. Purposive sampling was used to obtain a sample of 500 male collage teachers, who have at least 5 years of marriage and teaching experience, at least 1 child and an un-employed wife. The job involvement scale (Kanungo, 1982), family involvement scale (Misra, Ghosh, and Kanungo, 1990), the job satisfaction scale (Kanungo 1982), and marital satisfaction scale (Roache *et al.*, 1981) were administered to all the subjects. Psychological identification with job and family were positively correlated with job and marital satisfaction. Job involvement and family involvement were positively related to each other having an additive interaction influence on job satisfaction and marital satisfaction.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational Commitment: Meyer and Allen (1997) state that organizational commitment is "a psychological state that a) characterizes the employee's relationships with the organization, and b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization" (p.67). Other

researchers use similar definitions that refer to an employee's attachment, goal congruency, identification, loyalty and allegiance to their organization.

Roy and Ghosh (1997) examined the possible differences between physician and nurses in their commitment to their hospital and the relationship between their organizational commitment and their awareness of both the internal and external environment of the organization. Questionnaires were developed for the measurement of two predictor variables (awareness of the organisation's internal environment and awareness of the organisation's external environment), and one predicted variable (organisational commitment). These questionnaires were administered to physicians and nurses working in a Public hospital in India. Results indicate significant differences in organizational commitment across hierarchies. Organizational commitment was correlated with the level of awareness of the individual. Organizational commitment of the nurses was predicted by their awareness of the internal environment and physicians' commitment by their awareness of the external environment.

Ahmed and Ansari (1999), studied organizational commitment among 50 floor mill owners and 100 blue collar employees of various floor mills of Darbhanga. Subjects completed organizational commitment questionnaire (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979), and the biographic information blank. Though both owners and blue collars workers were favourably inclined towards organizational commitment they differed significantly from each other. Blue collar workers expressed a comparatively higher degree of organizational commitment.

Patel (1998) investigated the relationship between perceived organizational health and organizational commitment. A total of 100 employees, 50 skilled with the mean age of 35.2 years and mean work experience of 11.92 years and 50 workers (mean age 31.5 years, mean work

experience 10.76 years), working in a private scooter manufacturing organization was administered Mile's (1965) organizational health scale and Monday's (1975) organizational commitment scale. Findings indicate that perceived organizational health had a significant positive correlation with organizational commitment in the case of the skilled staff, but not in the case of workers. Further analysis revealed that the skilled staff perceived the overall health of their organization more favorably and were also more committed to the organization than the workers.

Pattnayak and Dhar (1998), described a study conducted to understand the nature of job stress and its relationship to commitment in the Rourkela Steel plants. The Job Stress Questionnaire (Singh & Singh, 1986) and the Perceived Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Sayeed 1989) were administered to 240 executives and non executives in the production and service departments. Results revealed that, the feelings of job stress, role conflicts, role ambiguity, job difficulty, lack of leadership support and inequality were higher among non executives and production employees than among executives and service employees, making the magnitude of these factors a joint function of the level of employee and the nature of his or her work. Executives and service employees also showed higher organizational commitment than the other groups. However job stress variables were not significant predictors of organizational commitment.

Gupta and Sharma (1999) studied work commitment of working mothers as related to background factors like age, education, occupation, income, number of children, age of the youngest child and type of family. A sample of 455 urban working mothers (age 26-50 years), with at least a bachelors degree, largely employed in white collar jobs, and belonging to diverse income and occupational groups, were administered, Greenberger and Goldberger (1989) scale of parenting and work commitment as well as self report questionnaire to measure demographic and family dynamic variables.

Findings revealed that income, education and occupation played a significant role in work commitment. Age, number of children and type of family were not related to the commitment level of working mothers.

Vasishta, and Mishra (1999), examined the moderating effect of appraisal support on the relationship between occupational stress and organizational commitment. The incidental sample of 200 supervisors (aged 42 to 45 yrs) selected from a larger scooter manufacturing factory was administered the general population form of Interpersonal Support Evaluation List (Cohen, Mermelstien, Kamarch, and Hobberman, 1985), Occupational Stress Index (Srivasthava and Singh 1981), and the Organizational Commitment Scale (Mayer, and Allen 1984). Moderated multiple regression analysis and sub group analysis revealed partially moderating effects of appraisal support on the occupational stress and organizational commitment relationship.

Ahmed (2000) investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational change among 75 blue collar and 75 white collar Indian employees (aged 18 to 52 yrs) of a sari manufacturing companies in the Mau dist. of U.P. Demographic data was collected; subjects were administered the organizational change scale (I Rahman and S.S. Akhtar (1991), organizational commitment questionnaire (R.T. Mowday *et al.* 1979). Results revealed that organization commitment was a not a function of organizational change. Though both groups expressed high levels of acceptance of organizational changes, white-collar subjects tended to exhibit a higher level of organizational commitment.

Although organizational commitment has been discussed frequently in Organizational Psychology for almost four decades, few studies have involved software professionals. A study in India by Paul and Anantharaman (2004) reveals that HRM practices such as employee-friendly work

environment, career development, development oriented appraisal, and comprehensive training show a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment. The study's results emphasize the role of such HRD variables as inculcating and enhancing organizational commitment, and suggest that HRD practitioners and researchers should further develop commitment-oriented organizational policies.

In a follow up study conducted by Tuomi *et al.* (2004) to examine the relationship among organized practices, work demands and the wellbeing among 1389 employees. It was reported that the changes in organizational practices and the demands of work were strongly associated with changes in employee well-being. Work ability, organizational commitment and the mental well-being of employees were increased most if the opportunities for development and influence and the promotion of employee well-being were increased and if the supervisory support and organization of work were improved. Well-being also improved with less uncertainty at work and with decreasing mental and physical work demands. In addition physical exercise and affluence also had favourable effects.

Finegan (2004) explored the relationship between personal values, organizational values and organizational commitment. Participants from a large petrochemical company rated 24 values with respect to how important the value was to them and how important it was to the organization. They also completed Meyer and Allen's Commitment Scale. The results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses found that commitment was predicted by the employees' perception of organizational values. Furthermore, affective, normative and continuance commitment were each predicted by different clusters of values. This study highlights the importance of recognizing that values are multidimensional and that each value cluster may affect behaviour differently.

JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is defined as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (Spector, 1997). This definition suggests job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their job. While researchers and practitioners most often measure global job satisfaction, there is also interest in measuring different "facets" or "dimensions" of satisfaction. Examination of these facet conditions is often useful for a more careful examination of employee satisfaction with critical job factors. Traditional job satisfaction facets include: co-workers, pay, job conditions, supervision, nature of the work and benefits.

Abraham (1994) examined the relationship between levels of job satisfaction, teacher effectiveness and length of service tenure in a sample of 45 college lecturers. The Teachers Job Satisfaction Scales (Mudgi *et al.*, 1991), was administered to all the subjects, who were then sub divided into groups with high, medium, and low levels of satisfactions. The teacher effectiveness scale (P. Kumar *et al.*, 1985) was then administered to the subjects. The results indicate that teachers experiencing high and medium levels of job satisfactions were more effective than those experiencing a low level of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was independent of length of service and was related solely to an individual's attitude toward his or her jobs.

Despite executives' important positions in organizations, their attitudes have not received much research attention. To remedy this deficiency, Judge *et al.* (1994) tested a hypothesized model of executive attitudes involving job satisfaction, life satisfaction, job stress, and work-family conflict. Using data from a large, representative sample of male executives (because of the small number of female executives in the study, the analyses were confined to men), the authors obtained LISREL, results indicating support for the overall model

and the specific relationships within the model. These results (the first to simultaneously consider job satisfaction, life satisfaction, job stress, and work-family conflict) constitute the most comprehensive evidence to date on executive attitudes.

Khalique, and Wadud (1996), compared the job attitudes and the perceived psychological problems of male and female shift and day workers. A group of 30 males (mean age 31 yrs) and another group of 30 females (mean age 27 yrs) working in a jute and textile mills respectively were administered the Hoppok Job Attitude Blank, the Wedderburn Questionnaire and Third Inventory for Subjective Health (Dirken, 1966). It was observed that both male and female workers expressed more negative attitude (males 44% and females 60%) than positive attitude (males 23%, females 23%) towards shift work. Females also experienced more psychosocial problems.

Mukherjee & Baskhi (1996) compared the extent of job satisfaction of married and unmarried women in Kolkotta. A sample of 300 employed women, with an equal number of married and unmarried women, matched on income, age and education, completed Raven's Progressive Matrices, the Job Satisfaction Scale (Singh & Shams, 1986), and Bells Adjustment Inventory. Results indicate that job satisfaction was comparatively higher among unmarried women than married women. There was a significant impact of level of education on job satisfaction irrespective of marital status. Job satisfaction of married women depended on extra job related adjustment factors and was associated with limitation imposed by society in playing different social roles.

Patnaik & Adhikari (1996), tried to determine the level of job satisfaction of teachers by using a job satisfaction scale based on Likert Scaling Technique. A sample of 200 teachers (50 university and 150 college teachers, aged 21-60 years), administered a job satisfaction scale consisting of

75 items. Results reveal that almost all the teachers were satisfied with their jobs to a fairly large extent; a higher level of satisfaction was derived from the professional category, which was followed, by teaching conditions, institutional conditions, service conditions and personal feelings. With respect to all other factors the level of satisfaction was moderate but equal in both groups of teachers.

Sinha & Bhargava (1996) evaluated the level of Job Satisfaction among 50 orthopaedically handicapped (OH) Grade II employees working in different offices of North Bihar and examined sex differences, if any, in job satisfaction. The subjects completed the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (SB Singh, 1976). Findings indicate that the respondents were satisfied with their jobs, and that females exhibited a significantly higher level of job satisfaction compared to the males.

This study examines the relationship between job satisfaction of nursing faculty and the organizational characteristics of the institutions and nursing programmes in which they teach, Snarr and Krochalk (1997) studied a stratified random sample of 48 baccalaureate nursing programmes throughout the United States was selected for the study, of which 25 (52%) of the programme deans agreed to participate. Two questionnaires were used in data collection: (a) The Job Descriptive Index (Revised), which was sent to 576 nursing faculty at the participating programmes, resulting in 327 (57%) usable questionnaires; and (b) The Organizational Characteristics Questionnaire which was completed by the nursing programmes deans. Dimensions of job satisfaction measured were: work on present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, coworkers and job in general. The organizational characteristics examined were: institutional control (Public, Private), size (student enrolment), nursing faculty, number of nursing students, budget, tenure and salary. Although nursing faculty tended to be

satisfied with their jobs, correlation and multiple regression analyses indicated weak to negligible relationships between job satisfaction and the organizational characteristics examined. Further study of the dimensions of job satisfaction within the academic environment is needed to understand.

Onyett & Muijen and Muijen (1997) studied emotional exhaustion, low personal accomplishment, depersonalisation, job satisfaction and sick leave among 445 team members in 57 community mental health teams (CMHTs) in relation to the perceived clarity of the role of the team, personal role clarity, identification with one's profession and the team, and caseload size, composition and the frequency with which users were seen. High emotional exhaustion was reported, particularly among consultant psychiatrists, social workers, nurses and psychologists. High job satisfaction, high personal accomplishment and low depersonalisation were also found. Job satisfaction was associated with team role clarity and identification with the team. Caseload size, composition and the frequency with which service users were seen were not associated with job satisfaction or burnout. Significant differences were found between disciplines on all variables except sick leave.

Das & Akhilesh (1997) administered a pre-tested five point Likert-type questionnaire was administered to measure the pay level and benefit satisfaction of 390 engineers (mean age 33.4 years) from the RRD units of three public sector undertakings located in and around Bangalore. The respondents had worked for a minimum of 6 months in the organization and had at least a bachelor's degree in engineering. Multi variate analysis of the data suggested that the positive effect of gross salary was due to its positive effect on take home salary indicating that the financial pay referent played an important role in pay level satisfaction but not in benefit satisfaction.

Gupta (1997) studied the relationship between job satisfaction and personal values among 32 college teachers. Subjects were administered the

Personal Value Inventory (Gupta 1981) and the Teachers Job Satisfaction Scale (Gupta and Srivastava 1980). The results revealed a significant correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and their personal values. Teachers high on academic and social value experienced greater job satisfaction, where as economic and democratic values are significantly but negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

Hariharmahadevan and Amritharajan (1997), investigated the degree of job satisfaction among bank officers at the micro level. A structured questionnaire was administered to all junior and middle level officers of nationalized banks in a town in Tamil Nadu. Analysis of data revealed that a considerable percentage of respondents were largely satisfied with their jobs. However they were dissatisfied with certain factors related to their jobs. The analysis also identified factors that have a close relationship with job satisfaction and those that do not. Valuable information on various aspects such as promotion and transfer policies and costumer service are presented and suggestions in these areas are made.

Nagarathnamma (1997) explored the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction in a sample of 360 employees of public and private sector organisations. The sample comprised of 180 employees of a public sector organisation and 180 employees of a private sector organization. Job Satisfaction Scale (Kunungo, 1982) and Life Satisfaction Inventory (Ramamurti, 1969) were administered individually in the work place. Results revealed a significant relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction for both public sector and private sector employees. Public sector employee expressed greater satisfaction with both their jobs and lives in comparison to private sector employees. On the basis of the findings the paper concluded, that there was a significant difference between public sector and private sector employees.

Paranjipe (1997) identified training areas for special education teachers on the basis of their quality of working (QWL), perception and job satisfaction. A Quality of Working Life Feelings and Conditions (QWLF-C) Questionnaire (Shaskin and Lengermann, 1984) and a Job Satisfaction Schedule (Kanungo, Corn and Dauderis, 1976) were administered to 240 special education teachers from 19 schools for handicapped children in New Delhi. Factors that emerged as significant predictions of QWLF-C were interesting job, institute's policies, recognition and respect and compensation received. Three categories of job satisfaction factors were identified as potential training areas - group interaction and improvement in interpersonal relationships; growth facilitation and progress and working conditions.

Singh and Malinee (1997) studied the relationship between job satisfaction, anxiety, and adjustment among 200 state bank employees. Subjects were selected using the random sampling technique, age, length of service, sex and socio-economic status were controlled. Taylor's Manifest Anxiety Scale (Singh & Singh, 1976), Hindi adaptation of Bells Adjustment Inventory (Mohsin & Shamsad, 1970) and the Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield and Rothe 1951) were administered to all the subjects. Findings reveal significant differences between satisfied and dissatisfied bank employees with respect to anxiety and adjustment. Further, negative correlation was observed between anxiety and subject's adjustment in different spheres of life.

Zafar and Rao (1997), this study proposes that the role of Job related attributes and out comes play a major role in shaping behaviour of managers in organizations. These attitudes of work environment are evaluated by managers both positively and negatively. If the interaction between the individual-work environment are good, it leads to realization of organizational goals, needs and satisfaction. Otherwise, the outcome may lead to low

involvement, stress frustration, alienation and to intentions to quite the organization. More over the stress variable and job involvement relationship has been of great concern and interest to behavioural students.

Bhatia and Bhatia (1999) discussed the role of counseling in the organizations. Counseling helps in developing and maintaining a congenial work attitude, interpersonal relationships, and work motivation by focusing on the worker's emotional and personal problems on the one hand and organizational problems on the other. It can foster mutual trust and confidence between the employee and the employer by reducing emotional blockages between them. Counseling can be particularly useful in creating self esteem, morale and job satisfaction as well as in lessening anxiety, tension and conflicts both on the job and off the job so that the productivity of the organization can be increased. The need for appointing counselors in each and every organization is emphasized.

Bhatt (1998) evaluated the level of job satisfaction of LIC employees in relation to socio personal variables such as age, sex, marital status, education, length of service and income. The sample consisted of 286 LIC employees, who were administered the job satisfaction scale adapted and standardized by Bhatt. Results revealed significant mean differences between each of the socio personal variables and the level of job satisfaction of the employees.

Gandharva (1998) studied the relation between mental health and job satisfaction among employees of private organizations. A random sample of 200 employees was selected and group on the basis of age, work experience, monthly income and total number of family members. Subjects were administered the Mental Health Analysis Questionnaire (Badami and Badami 1984) and Gujarat version of Bray Field and Rothas (1951) Job Satisfaction Scale. Results show a significant correlation between job satisfaction and

mental health of employees, mental health was found to be negatively correlated with different age groups of the employees. No significant differences in mental health were found with respect to age, work experience, monthly income and total number of family members of the employee.

Past research has suggested that dispositional sources of job satisfaction can be traced to measures of affective temperament. The present research conducted by Judge *et al.* (1998) focused on another concept, core self-evaluations, which were hypothesized to comprise self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and non-neuroticism. A model hypothesized that core self-evaluations would have direct effects on job and life satisfaction. It also was hypothesized that core self-evaluations would have indirect effects on job satisfaction. Data were collected from 3 independent samples in 2 countries, using dual source methodology. Results indicated that core self-evaluations had direct and indirect effects on job and life satisfaction.

Wadud & Shome (1998) examined the influence of socio demographic factors like family, social life, marital status, education, job experience, age and prolonged disease on the job satisfaction of female workers. The sample consisted of 100 female employees from two garments factories in Dhakka (mean age 25 years). Data were collected by administering standardized questionnaires and interview schedules and Bray field Rothe Job satisfaction scale. Findings show that satisfaction with family and social life had a positive influence on overall job satisfaction of the subjects. It was also observed that cases of overall job satisfaction were more prevalent among subjects who had a positive attitude towards their family/social life, age educational qualification and marital status.

Saxena, Ansari and Shankar (1999) assessed the primary (within - domain) and secondary (cross - domain) relationship of work - family aspects

of content and context with work - family satisfaction considering the role of occupational status as a moderator. A sample of 300 married working women (age 25-55 yrs) engaged in diverse professions were administered survey questionnaires. Results revealed within - domain relationships, but not cross - domain relationships between work variables and family satisfaction regardless of the occupational status. However, the spill over effect from family to work was evident in the case of work satisfaction.

Beegum and Dharmangadan (2000), explored, sex differences in job satisfaction of 415 college teachers in the age group of 23-55 years, with an equal number of males and females. The Job Satisfaction Inventory (Beegum, 1990) was administered to all the subjects along with a personal data blank. The results indicate that there were significant differences between male and female teachers with regard to job satisfaction. Female teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than their male counterparts.

Shafeeq (2000) studied the correlation between job satisfaction and adjustment of teachers teaching in the schools meant for visually disabled. The study also aimed to know job satisfaction of teachers teaching visually impaired in relation to their adjustment. The sample consisted of 37 teachers selected randomly from two schools. Teacher's adjustment inventory and job satisfaction scales were employed to collect data. It was found that high-adjusted teachers have low job satisfaction and vice versa. The result shows that though the relationship is low and negative, yet, it indicates that high adjustment leads to low job satisfaction.

Shukla (2000) evaluated the relationship between job satisfaction and power motivation of industrial personnel. The sample consisted of 50 managers from different rice mills in Chattisgarh region. Their age varied from 24 to 55 yrs, and academic qualifications from matriculation to post graduation. They were administered the Hindi adaptation of Brayfield Job

Satisfaction Scales (Sarin) and the Power Motivation Scales (Helode and Singh 1988). A significant positive relationship was observed between power motivation and job satisfaction. A significant positive relationship was observed between power motivation and job satisfaction. Managers categorized as high power motivation groups scored significantly high on job satisfaction scales than managers categorized as low power motivation group. Managers with matriculation degree had significantly had higher job satisfaction than those who were graduates and postgraduates. The effect of educational status on power motivation was non significant.

Singh & Dubey (2000), studied the role of perceived and actual workplace characteristics as correlates of work satisfaction among 85 bank employees (age 22-54 years) of Bhopal. Employees of different cadres were questioned about perceptions of work environment and work satisfaction. Actual workplace characteristics like distance from the entrance, supervisor, and coworkers were assessed directly with the help of a measuring tape. Work satisfaction was positively correlated with pleasant work place, distance from entrance, distance from supervisors and negatively correlated with crowding and noise, privacy of work place, work complexity and distance from co-worker. Multiple correlational analyses revealed that 69 percent of the variance in work satisfaction was accounted for by perceived and actual workplace characteristics.

Mehra and Mishra (2001) explored the potential mediator effects of participation in decision-making on the job satisfaction - occupational stress relationship. A sample of 250 blue collar industrial workers (mean age 25 yrs) with job experience varying from 10 to 15 yrs were administered Psychological Participation Index (Singh & Pestonjee 1975), the Occupational Stress Index (Srivastava, and Singh (1981), and the SD Employee Inventory (Pestonjee 1981). Moderated regression analysis

revealed the moderating effect of participation in decision making on the job satisfaction-occupational stress relationships, but sub groups analyses, did not confirm this moderating effect.

Panda (2001) assessed the level of job satisfaction among, the employees of dot com companies. A sample of 150 executives at various levels context manager to vice-presidents of dotcom companies, spread over 6 cities of India was administered the scale for perceived importance of facets. Open-ended questions were also asked to supplement the questionnaires. The results revealed, that majority of the employees were satisfied with their jobs and dissatisfied with their companies. Among the important cause of job dissatisfaction was that majority of the subjects were unhappy with their family and social lives.

A meta-analysis was conducted by Thorstein Son (2003) to examine the size of the difference between full- and part- time employees on job attitudes. Results indicated that there was little difference between full-time (FT) and part-time (PT) employees on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to leave and facets of job satisfaction. Full-time employees were found to be more involved with their jobs than PT employees ($d=0.29$). Moderating variables were examined (type of job, sex of the sample and sampling strategy used), but these variables explained little of the variability in effect sizes across the studies. An additional analysis of voluntary Vs. nonvoluntary employment status was conducted on job satisfaction, but only small differences were found.

Job satisfaction has been well researched for many professions, including general dentistry. The job satisfaction of orthodontists has not been adequately studied Roth *et al.* (2003) conducted a study aiming to describe job satisfaction among orthodontists and to determine characteristics associated with job satisfaction in the profession. A self-administered,

anonymous survey was mailed to Canadian orthodontists. It included a modified version of the Dentist Satisfaction Survey, an overall occupational stress score, and items addressing various characteristics of the respondents. Of 654 mailed surveys, 335 were returned, for a response rate of 51.2%. Most orthodontists (79.3%) were classified as satisfied according to the overall job satisfaction scale of the Dentist Satisfaction Survey; however, some (2.5%) were classified as dissatisfied. The facets of orthodontics with the highest degree of satisfaction were patient relations (93%), delivery of care (86%) respect (84%), professional relations (80%) and staff (76%). The most dissatisfaction was associated with personal time (26%) and practice management (15%). Stepwise multiple regression analysis resulted in a model including overall occupational stress, membership in the Canadian Association of Orthodontists, total number of staff, and age to account for 27.1% of the variation in the overall job satisfaction scale. Based on accountable sources of variance, the overall job satisfaction scale seems to be more affected by other variables than the characteristics evaluated by this survey.

Feather and Rauter (2004) investigated organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) in a sample of 154 school teachers from Victoria, Australia, of whom 101 were in permanent employment and 53 on fixed-term contracts. Participants completed measures of OCBs, job insecurity, organizational commitment, organizational identification, job satisfaction and work values relating to influence, variety and skill utilization. Results showed that the contract teachers reported more job insecurity and more OCBs compared to the permanent teachers. OCBs were positively related to perceived job insecurity and negatively related to opportunities to satisfy influence and skill utilization work values for the permanent teachers.

JOB INVOLVEMENT AND JOB COMMITMENT

Biswas (1988) examined the effect of 6 life style stressors - performance, threat, boredom, frustration, bereavement, and physiological damage - on organizational commitment and job involvement. A sample of 160 managers, supervisors and workers (age 35-53 yrs) of 3 large and medium public and private sector organizations in Baroda completed the demographic information schedule, the Life style Stressor Questionnaire, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, The Job Involvement Questionnaire and the Perceived Organizational Effectiveness Questionnaire. Performance threat and frustration stressors were significant predictors of organizational commitment whereas none of the stressors predicted job involvement. Organizational effectiveness was positively correlated with organizational commitment and job involvement. Managers scored high on organizational commitment and job involvement compared to supervisors and workers. Workers experienced maximum performance stress.

Patel (1999) investigated the impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment of nationalized and co-operative bank employees. A randomly selected sample of 200 bank employees with an equal number from nationalized and co-operative banks divided into 3 age groups: younger (age below 35 years), middle (age 35-45 yrs) and elder (age above 45 years) were administered Lodhal and Kejner's Job Involvement Scale (1985) and Mowday's Organizational Commitment Scale (1979). Results revealed less involvement and less organizational commitment in the younger age group in both the nationalized and co-operative banks. Significant differences in organizational commitment but not in job involvement were observed only between the middle age group employees with the nationalized bank employees being higher on organizational commitment than their counterparts in the co-operative bank.

Conte *et al.* (2001) presented criterion related validity evidence for time urgency as it relates to burnout, organizational commitment, and job involvement in the travel industry. The sample consisted of 393 travel agents who were employed in various agencies across the United States. Results indicated that time urgency subcomponents (eating behaviour, competitiveness, speech patterns, task-related hurry, and general hurry) were significantly associated with burnout, organizational commitment, and job involvement.

JOB INVOLVEMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION

Kumar & Achamamba (1993) administered the Job Descriptive Index and the Job Involvement Scale to 150 workers and 150 administrative staff from public and private sector industries. Findings indicate a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement. While no significant difference were observed between the public and private sector employees with regard to job involvement, the public sector administrative staff reported greater job satisfaction compared to the private sector staff.

Mishra (1994) investigated the moderator effect of under participation stressor on the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction. The sample comprised 4000 first time supervisors from India (mean age 45 yrs). The Occupational Stress Index (Srivastava and Singh, 1981), The Job Satisfaction Measure (Pestongee, 1973) and The Job Involvement Measure (Kapoor and Singh, 1978) were administered. Data were analysed using moderator regression analysis and subgroup analysis. Results reveal that under participation stressor did not have any moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement.

Singh & Pestonjee (1995) estimated the effect of Job involvement and participation on on-the -job factors and "off-the-job-factors" of job

satisfaction in different groups. The data were collected from a sample of 145 officers and 135 clerical personnel of large banking organization. Results supported the previous research findings regarding the moderating effects of job involvement and participation on: on-the-job and off-the-job factors of job satisfaction in different groups. Significant interactions between job involvement and participation, and job level and participation were obtained.

Karrir and Khurana (1996) examined the relationship of quality of work life (QWL) with demographic variables (age, educational qualifications, experience, native or migrant status, number of dependents, and income level) on the one hand and motivational variables (job satisfaction, job involvement, and work involvement) on the other. A sample of 491 managers (public sector 182, private sector 143, co-operative sector 166) from top, middle and lower levels of management was administered with Sashkin and Lengermann QWL Feeling Condition (1984), The Job Involvement Questionnaire (Kanungo *et al.*, 1976), The Work Involvement Questionnaire (Kanungo *et al.*, 1976). The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Kanungo *et al.*, 1976) and a personal information schedule. QWL was significantly correlated with educational qualification, native or migrant status, income level, and with all the motivational variables. An increase in QWL was observed with an increase in income.

Aminabhavi (1997) determined the factors that contribute significantly to the job involvement of professionals. A sample of 100 professional men (doctors, engineers, lawyers and teachers), in the age group of 30-60 years completed the Job Involvement Scale (Lodhal & Kejner, 1965), and a personal data sheet. Results provide that selection of occupation, expressed job satisfaction and socio-cultural background collectively and individually contribute significantly to the variance in job involvement of professionals. The authors concluded that professionals who chose their occupation, who

had higher expressed job satisfaction, and who came from upper middle strata of socio cultural background experienced higher job involvement than their counterparts, who had entered their occupation by chance.

Steel *et al.* (1997) Research finding showing that satisfaction scores are stable over time led Staw and Ross (1985) to suggest that job satisfaction is rooted in dispositional mechanisms. The current study tested this hypothesis by administering a questionnaire to 166 U.S. Department of Defense employees on 2 occasions. Measures of job satisfaction ($r=37$, $p<0.1$) and job involvement ($r=41$, $p<0.1$) evidenced significant stability over the study's 10 year interval. Multiple regression analysis showed that job characteristics explained variance in the attitudinal measures after accounting for the variance due to attitudinal stability. In addition, regression results suggested that the success of job design interventions may be conditioned by personal characteristics (e.g. attitudinal stability-instability) of the individuals in the sample. By supporting both the dispositional and situational views of job satisfaction, current findings suggest an interactionist perspective.

Gandharva (1998) compared private and public sector employees in terms of job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement. The sample consisted of 165 public sector and 121 private sector employees who were administered the Job Satisfaction Scale, The Job Involvement Scale and the Work Involvement Scale (Kanungo, 1982). A personal data sheet was used to collect information on gender, age, length of service, work experience, monthly income and educational level. Results revealed that the employee of public and private sectors differed significantly in their job satisfaction and job and work involvement. Demographic variables such as age, length of service, monthly income, and work experience in the present job affected their job satisfaction, job and work involvement. However, gender of the employees did not influence these variables.

Gandharva (1999) investigated the inter relationship between job satisfaction, job involvement and the relationship of these three variables with age, job experience, monthly income, and educational level. The sample consisted of 105 public and 121 private sector employees at various levels. Subjects were administered measures of job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement developed by Kanungo (1982). Results revealed a significant association between job satisfaction and job involvement. Employees' age, job experience and monthly income were significantly correlated with job as well as work involvement. Job satisfaction was significantly correlated only with monthly income.

Bhargava and Kelkar (2000) explored the prediction of job involvement, job satisfaction and empowerment from organizational structure and corporate culture. A sample of 102 (age 24-53 years) managers, officers, and supporting staff of a business organization completed a questionnaire assessing organizational structure as well as corporate culture, job involvement job satisfaction and empowerment. Job satisfaction and empowerment were positively related, but both were unrelated to job involvement. Centralization was positively related to job involvement but negatively to job satisfaction and empowerment. A negative correlation was found between centralization and job satisfaction and empowerment, highlighting the importance of decentralization for managing people in organizations. The measures of human resources development could be predicted by corporate culture. It has been argued that organizations should opt for strategies that take into account the all round development of their members through strategic human resource management.

Bhargava and Kelkar (2000) examined the relationship between organizational structure, organizational culture, and human resource development. The sample comprised of 33 managers, 22 officers and 28

supporting staff of a soap manufacturing organization, in the age group of 24-53 years. Organizational structure was evaluated by a 9 item scale (Hage and Aikel, 1967). Corporate culture was assessed by a scale developed by Panda, Mathur and Khurana (1990) consisting of subscales of different dimensions. A 10-item scale (Agrawal, 1981), a 34 item scale (Scott and Joffe, 1991) and a 7 item scale (Tuglar and Bowers, 1974) were used for assessment of job involvement, empowerment and job satisfaction respectively. A positive relationship was observed between empowerment and salary, promotion and job satisfaction. Empowerment and corporate culture were also positively related. Measures of the human resource development were capable of being predicted by corporate culture. Negative correlation of centralization with corporate culture, adaptability, and empowerment indicated the importance of decentralization as a strategy for people management.

The study of leadership exchanges is extended by Sherony *et al.* (2002) by studying both leader-member exchanges (LMXs) and, coworker exchanges (CWXs), Data from 110 coworker dyads were used to examine relationships between LMXs and CWXs and between exchange relationship and work attitudes. As predicted, the interaction between 2 coworker's LMX scores predicted CWX quality for the coworker dyad. Also, after controlling for LMX, greater diversity in a worker's CWX relationships was negatively related to his or her organizational commitment but not job satisfaction. The quality of a worker's CWX relationships, however, did not moderate the relationship between CWX diversity and work attitudes.

JOB COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION

Sahoo, Mohanty, Kar and Bhakat (1995), assessed role related stress, job satisfaction self concept, organizational commitment and intention of leaving the organization in a group of 100 employees from administrative (N=50), and financial (N=50), organizations categorized into juniors, and

seniors, on the basis of the length of work experience. The scale developed and validated by Whitley (1990) for cross-cultural purposes was used. Results indicated that employees in administrative organizations experienced greater work-family conflict and had a greater intention to leave the organizations compared to the employees of financial organizations. Employees of financial organizations showed greater commitment than their administrative counterparts. Compared to the seniors, the juniors expressed higher intention to leave their organizations.

Vijayakumar and Srinivasan (1996) examined the relationship between the dimensions of psychological climate with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. A sample of 136 male executives (mean age - 39.6 yrs and SD - 6 yrs) from a large public sector manufacturing organization rated their perception of 8 psychological climate dimensions, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Most of the dimensions of psychological climate had a significant correlation with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Implications for further research on the multidimensional psychological climate have been drawn.

Karrir & Khurana (1996) examined the differences in job and work involvement at different managerial level in Indian industry. A sample of 491 managers belonging to three sectors (public 182, private 143, cooperative 166) and 30 organizations (public 12, private 9, and cooperative 9) representing top, middle and lower managerial level in Indian industry, was studied to assess job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement. Findings revealed that (a) at lower level, public sector managers exhibited greater job involvement, and cooperative sector managers expressed higher work involvement, (b) at the middle level public sector managers experienced a higher level of job satisfaction followed by managers from the private and

cooperative sector, and (c) at the top level, the public sector managers exhibited greater work involvement.

Balachander and Anantharaman (1996) tested a causal model of organizational commitment (OC) hypothesizing that organizational role stress (ORS) would affect OC through its effect on affective states, as well as on job satisfaction. A sample of 126 junior and middle level executives from a manufacturing company completed the Organizational Role Stress Scale (Pareek, 1983), The Index of Affective States (French, *et al.*, 1982), The Job Attitude Scale (Balaji, 1984) and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Monday *et al.*, 1979). Findings based on path analyses support the hypothesized causal model.

Jha and Verma (1998) investigated organizational commitment as a function of employee's morale (EM), ambiguity tolerance (AT) and a job satisfaction (JSO). A group of 200 executives of the Bhilai Steel Plant was selected out of which 96 executives working either as junior manager or as managers higher position were retained for the final samples. Subjects were administered the Employee's Morale Scale (Pestonjee, 1981, 1985), the IA Scale (Hussain, 1981, 1985) and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter *et al.*, 1974). Analyses of variance revealed significant effect of EM, AT and JS. None of the interactions were found to be significant. Employees having high morale, high ambiguity tolerance and at higher positions expressed greater organizational commitment.

Mishra, Srivastava and Shipra (2000) examined the effects of role ambiguity on affective commitment and job satisfaction relationship. An incidental sample of 250 male doctors (42 to 50 yrs) was administered the Occupational Stress Index (Srivastava and Singh 1981) the Organizational Commitment Scale (Mayor & Allen, 1984), and the SD Employees Inventory (Pestonjee, 1973). Moderated regression analysis revealed that role ambiguity

had a moderating effect on affective commitment and job satisfaction relationship.

Patnayak (2000) investigated the effects of shift work and hierarchical position in the organization on job satisfaction, commitment, stress, and HRD climate of 360 employees of the Rourkela Steel Plant. The tools used were Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, England and Lofquist, 1967), The Perceived Organizational Commitment Scale (Sayeed, 1989), The Job Stress Questionnaire (Singh and Sinha, 1986), and the HRD Climate Questionnaire (Rao and Abraham, 1990). Results indicated significant main effects of job satisfaction in both executives and supervisors, irrespective of their type of duty. Both the nature of duty as well as the hierarchical position of employees influenced the degree of organizational commitment. Both executives and supervisors in shift and non shift areas experienced an almost similar degree of job stress in a number of areas. With regard to the HRD climate, there was a significant difference between shift and non shift employees irrespective of their job categories. Greater emphasis on human resource interventions and improvement of organizational synergy were suggested as strategies for better and healthier organizations.

In a study Maier and Brunstein (2001), examined the importance of 3 characteristics of personal work goals (i.e., commitment attainability, and progress) in accounting for changes in newcomers' affective job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) during the 1st months of employment. Twenty weeks after organizational entry, 81 newcomers provided a list of their personal work, goals. Goal attributes and job attitudes were assessed at 3 testing periods covering 8 months. Goal commitment was found to moderate the extent to which differences in the attainability of personal goals at the work place accounted for changes in job satisfaction and

organizational commitment. Goal progress mediated the interactive effect of goal commitment and attainability on newcomers' job attitudes.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB ATTITUDES

Rozell *et al.* (2004) have observed in their investigation that, professional sales people are often placed in situations where role conflict and ambiguity are prevalent. They are generally expected to sell a firm's products and services to generate immediate profits, while simultaneously building customer satisfaction and promoting lifetime customers and the long-term economic viability of the firm. The concept of customer-oriented selling illustrates the conflict, as sales people are required to forgo immediate benefits in lieu of long-term rewards. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationships existing between customer-oriented selling, emotional intelligence, and organizational commitment. The results indicate that a sales person's customer orientation level is significantly related to emotional intelligence. Implications of the findings indicate that managers should consider using emotional intelligence as a selection criteria and human-resource development tool, as improvements in emotional intelligence are correlated with greater levels of customer orientation.

PERSONALITY AND JOB ATTITUDES

Chandriah *et al.* (1996) examined the incidence of occupational stress, job satisfaction and type A behaviour among 255 managers (132 junior, and 123 senior) predominantly from middle and upper management levels working in different industries in and around Kolkotta city. Subjects responded to a survey assessing occupational stress, job satisfaction and type A behaviour. Intergroup differences were observed on different sub scales of occupational stress index (OSI), junior managers reported higher job related tensions, particularly in terms of home work interface as well as lower job

satisfaction of the job itself. Junior group managers also manifested higher type A behaviour and internal locus of control. Overall stress was associated with type of job and locus of control. Type A behavioural sources were negatively correlated with external locus of control and positively with job satisfaction.

Daftaur (1997) explored the levels of organizational dimensions organization stress, organizational commitment and job involvement among the Sattva, Rajas and Tamas personality types. A sample of 50 managers in the lower and middle levels (between 23-51 yrs) drawn from a heavy electrical manufacturing company in Western India was administered Daftuar's Organizational Effectiveness Scale, Srivastava and Singh's Occupational Stress Index, and Renu Sharma's SRT Questionnaire. Results revealed significant negative and positive correlations between Job involvement and several areas of occupational and organizational commitment and Satvic type of personality. The Tamas were the most stressed personality type.

Virk and Kumar (1997) carried out an investigation to study main and interactive effects of age, gender and Type A behaviour pattern on job stress and job involvement of bank employees. A2X2X2 factorial design with two levels each of Type A behaviour pattern (Type A-Type B), age (below 40 and 40 above), and gender (males and females) was used the sample consisted of 80 bank employees selected from various banks of two districts of Hariyana. Separate analyses of variance were employed to test the significance of three independent sources on each of the two dependent variables - gender and Type A behaviour. Analyses yielded significant differences in the Job involvement of subjects. Two significant interactive effects (age X gender and gender X type A behaviour), for job stress were also found.

In a study Judge, Bono and Lock (2000), tested a model of the relationship between core self-evaluations, intrinsic job characteristics, and job satisfaction. Core self-evaluations were assumed to be a broad personality concept manifested in 4 specific traits. Self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and low neuroticism. The model hypothesized that both subjective (perceived) job characteristics and job complexity mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction. Two studies were conducted to test the model. Results from study 1 supported the hypothesized model but also suggested that alternative models fit the data well. Results from study 2 revealed that core self-evaluations measured in childhood and in early adulthood were linked to job satisfaction measured in middle adulthood. Furthermore, in study 2 job complexity mediated part of the relationship between both assessments of core self-evaluations and job satisfaction.

Wanberg and Kammeyer (2000), in their, 3-wave longitudinal study aimed to extend current understanding of the predictors and outcomes of employee proactivity (involving information seeking, feedback seeking, relationship building, and positive framing) in the socialization process. Two personality variables, extraversion and openness to experience, were associated with higher levels of proactive socialization behavior. Of the proactive behaviors studied, feedback seeking and relationship building were highlighted in their importance because of their various relationships with the work-related outcomes assessed in this study (e.g., social integration, role clarity, job satisfaction, intention to turnover, and actual turnover). The results also highlighted the importance of 2 control variables (opportunity to interact with others on the job and skill level of the new job) in the experience of socialization into a new job.

Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter (2001), compared attitude, personality, and customer knowledge as antecedents for their predictive ability of 3 service-oriented forms of employee organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs): loyalty, service delivery, and participation. For the 1st study, 236 customer-contact employees provided data concerning their OCBs and the attitude, personality, and knowledge antecedents. The 2nd investigation relied on data provided by 144 contact employees from a network of university libraries. Using hierarchical regression in both studies, the authors found that each of the 3 types of service oriented OCBs was best predicted by different subsets of the antecedents. Job attitudes accounted for the most unique variance in loyalty OCBs, personality accounted for the most unique variance in service delivery OCBs, and customer knowledge and personality jointly were the best predictors of participation OCBs.

Judge, Heller and Mount (2002) in this study reported the results of a meta-analysis linking traits from the 5-factor model of personality to overall job satisfaction. Using the model as an organizing framework, 334 correlations from 163 independent samples were classified according to the model. The estimated true score correlations with job satisfaction were - .29 for Neuroticism, .25 for Extraversion, .02 for Openness to Experience, .17 for Agreeableness, and .26 for Conscientiousness. Results further indicated that only the relations of Neuroticism and Extraversion with job satisfaction generalized across studies. As a set, the Big Five traits had a multiple correlation of .41 with job satisfaction, indicating support for the validity of the dispositional source of job satisfaction when traits are organized according to the 5-factor model.

Judge and Ilies (2003), in their article investigated the extent to which traits reflecting individual differences in personality and affectivity explained or moderated genetic influences on job satisfaction. Using estimates of the

dispositional source of job satisfaction according to 2 dispositional frameworks-the-five factor model and positive affectivity-negative affectivity (PA-NA)-and behavioural genetic estimates of the heritabilities of job satisfaction and the dispositional factors, the authors computed the proportions of genetic variance in job satisfaction that is explained by these trait frameworks. Results indicate that the affectivity model is a stronger mediator of genetic effects on job satisfaction than the five-factor model. PA and NA mediate about 45% of the genetic influences on job satisfaction, whereas the five-factor model mediates approximately 24% of these genetic effects.

Naquin and Holton III (2002) examined the degree to which the dimensions from the Five-Factor Model of personality, affectivity, and work commitment (including work ethic, job involvement, affective commitment, and continuance commitment) influenced motivation to improve work through learning. Data were obtained from a nonrandom sample of 239 private-sector employees who were participants of in-house training programs. The hypothesized causal relationships were tested using structural equation modeling. Findings indicated that these dispositional effects were significant antecedents of motivation to improve work through learning. Specifically, 57 percent of the variance in motivation to improve work through learning was explained by positive affectivity, work commitment, and extraversion.

JOB BEHAVIOURS

Individual differences in the construct of managerial self-awareness (MSA)-operationalized as congruence between self and direct reports of behavioral ratings were examined in 134 high-performing (HP) and 470 average-performing (AV) managers obtained from 4 independent datasets by Church (1997). Results based on several different approaches to measuring ratings agreement indicated that HPs were significantly more managerially

self-aware compared with AVs. This relationship was consistent regardless of data source, organization, or method of assessing managerial performance. No overall relationships were found between congruence and level of item importance, gender, management level, age, or tenure. When compared with other measures for assessing self-focus, the construct of self-monitoring was found to be convergent with managerial self-awareness, whereas the construct of self-consciousness appeared to reflect primarily rating leniency effects.

Despite the widespread interest in the topic of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), little empirical research has tested the fundamental assumption that these forms of behaviour improve the effectiveness of work groups or organizations in which they are exhibited. In the present study Podsakoff, Ahearne and MacKenzie (1997) examined the effects of OCBs on the quantity and quality of the performance of 218 people working in 40 machine crews in a paper mill located in the Northeastern United States. The results indicate that helping behaviour and sportsmanship had significant effects on performance quantity and that helping behaviour had a significant impact on performance quality. However, civic virtue had no effect on either performance measure.

Trevor *et al.* (1997) investigated the relationship between job performance and voluntary employee turnover for 5,143 exempt employees in a single firm. As hypothesized, support was found for E.F. Jackofsky's curvilinear hypothesis, as turnover was higher for low and high performers than it was for average performers. Two potential moderators of the curvilinearity were examined in an attempt to explain conflicting results in the performance-turnover literature. As predicted, low salary growth and high promotions each produced a more pronounced curvilinear performance-turnover relationship. Most notably, salary growth effects on turnover were greatest for high performers, with high salary growth predicting rather low

turnover for these employees, whereas low salary growth predicted extremely high turnover. Additionally, once salary growth was controlled, promotions positively predicted turnover, with poor performer turnover most strongly affected.

Jenkins, Mitra, Gupta, and Shaw (1998) stated that the relationship of financial incentives to performance quality and quantity is cumulated over 39 studies containing 47 relationships. Financial incentives were not related to performance quality but had a corrected correlation of .34 with performance quantity. Setting (laboratory, field, and experimental simulation) and theoretical framework moderated the relationship, but task type did not.

Johns and Xie (1998) marshaled a Cross-cultural theory to predict how views to absence from work would be similar and different in Canada and the People's Republic of China. Respondents (N=1,209) from both cultures had self-serving perceptions of their own absence levels, seeing them as exemplary compared with those of their work group and occupational.

Conway (1999) conducted a study to extend previous research on the contextual and task performance distinction to managerial jobs. It was hypothesized that, unlike results for non managerial work, the job dedication facet of contextual performance would contribute uniquely to overall managerial performance. The interpersonal facilitation facet of contextual performance was expected to be redundant with leadership task performance and therefore not to make a unique contribution. A multi trait-multi rater correlation matrix was developed on the basis of meta-analysis. Structural equation modeling results generally supported the hypotheses, although there was some evidence of a unique contribution by interpersonal facilitation. Results also suggested that peers paid more attention to interpersonal facilitation when making overall performance ratings, whereas supervisors paid more attention to task performance.

Dirks (1999) explored 2 questions: Does the level of trust within a group affect group performance? If so, how does this relationship operate? An experimental method was used to examine 2 roles through which interpersonal trust could affect group performance: a main effect and a moderating effect. The data do not support the main effect that has dominated the literature on interpersonal trust. The data do support the moderating role: Trust seems to influence how motivation is converted into work group processes and performance. On the basis of these findings, it is suggested that trust may be best understood as a construct that influences group performance indirectly by channeling group members' energy toward reaching alternative goals.

In a study by Lynch, Eisenberger, and Armeli (1999) the retail employees in Study 1 and employees from multiple organizations in Study 2 completed a questionnaire investigating the moderating effect of perceived organizational support (POS) on the relationship of employees' fear of exploitation in exchange relationships (reciprocation wariness) and their in-role and extra-role job performance. When POS was low, reciprocation wariness was negatively related to in-role and extra-role job performance. With high POS, reciprocation wariness was positively related to extra-role performance and either positively related to in-role performance (for retail employees) or showed no reliable relationship with in-role performance (for the multi organizational sample). In deciding on their work effort, reciprocation-wary employees considered how much the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being.

Jung & Sosik (1999) identified several group characteristics from group composition and process perspectives, and examined their relationships with group performance over time. A longitudinal laboratory experiment was conducted to evaluate influences of preference for group work and

perceptions of heterogeneity, group potency, and outcome expectation on performance of 31 student work groups performing decision making tasks. Results of Partial Least Squares analysis indicated that preference for group work and perceptions of group potency were the strongest predictors of group performance in both time 1 and time 2. These variables were also found to be stable over time. Results also indicated that group members' perception of outcome expectation were reinforced by their groups' initial performance.

Misra (1994) conducted a study on a sample of sixty-six male bank officers (aged 32-56 yrs) from operational and non operational work settings. They were asked questions about their perception of performance appraisal. Irrespective of the nature of work settings all bank officers, considered performance appraisal as an important tool used by the management to ensure the strength of the employees. They did not perceive performance appraisal as a punitive measure. The respondents were also aware of the importance of interview in the process of appraisal. A tendency to shift from the traditional to modern system of performance appraisal was clearly evident.

Mahru (1996), examined the effect of psychological well-being on the relationship between job performance and employee morale in a sample of 300 blue-collar workers using the psychological well-being scale (Warr, 1978) the employees morale scale (Pestnjee, 1973) and the performance rating scale (Pestanjee & Singh, 1978) such group analysis and moderated regression analysis confirmed that well-being had a moderating effect on the job performance-morale relationship.

Shah and Ansari (1996) studied job motivation as a function of job level and job tenure among 150 railway engine drivers (77 full-fledged and 73 Assistant drivers) Tundla junction. Subjects completed a job motivation scale (S.S. Akhtar and Bhargava (1974) and an information blank. Analysis using nonparametric tests revealed no significant influence of either job level or job

tenure on job motivation. Irrespective of job level and job tenure, all subjects exhibited a high level of motivation.

Singh (1999) gave some suggestions for the management for performance impediment in the state government. They illustrated the major performance problem of the state government on the basis of data provided by 90 middle and senior state government officials. The paper discusses the structural problems of over centralisation, lack of roll clarity and multiplicity of agencies. They suggested management strategies to overcome these. The functional problems are outlined which includes lack of coordination between planning and implementation, mismanagement of personnel, development of negativism, corruption, unresponsiveness, unaccountability, politicization of administration and lack of answerability to manifesto. Several management strategies are suggested to overcome these performance problems.

Vande, Walle, Brown, Cron and Slocum (1999), investigated the influence of goal orientation on sales performance in a longitudinal field study with salespeople. As hypothesized, a teaming goal orientation had a positive relationship with sales performance. This relationship was fully mediated by 3 self-regulation tactics: goal setting, effort, and planning. In contrast, a performance goal orientation was unrelated to sales performance. These results suggest that a focus on skill development, even for a veteran workforce, is likely to be associated with higher performance. Management should seek evidence of a teaming goal orientation when selecting new employees, while avoiding an excessive focus on performance goal orientation without a comparable skill-development focus.

Dirks (2000), empirically examined the relationship between trust, leadership, and team performance with 2 objectives. The 1st objective was to empirically examine an assumption found in several literatures - that a team's trust in its leader has a significant effect on the team's performance. The 2nd

objective was to explore a more complex and dynamic relationship between trust and team performance whereby trust in leadership mediates the relationship between past team performance and future team performance. This relationship is derived by combining theories of trust with an attributional theory of leadership. Survey and archival data from a sample of men's college basket ball teams provides support for both hypotheses, indicating that trust in leadership is both a product and a determinant of team performance.

The influence of team males shared mental models on team processes and performance was tested by Mathieu *et al.* (2000) using 56 undergraduate dyads who "flew" a series of missions on a personal-computer-based flight-combat situation. The authors both conceptually and empirically distinguished between team males task-and team-based mental models and indexed their convergence of "sharedness" using individually completed paired comparisons matrices analyzed using a network based algorithm. The results illustrated that both shared-team-and task based mental models related positively to subsequent team process and performance. Further more, team processes fully mediated the relationship between mental model convergence and team effectiveness. Results are discussed in terms of the role of shared cognitions in team effectiveness and the applicability of different interventions designed to achieve such convergence.

Scullen, Mount, and Goff (2000) in their study quantified the effects of 5 factors postulated to influence performance ratings: the ratee's general level of performance, the ratee's performance on a specific dimension, the rater's idiosyncratic rating tendencies, the rater's organizational perspective, and random measurement error. Two large data sets, consisting of managers (n=2,350 and n=2,142) who received developmental ratings on 3 performance dimensions from 7 raters (2 bosses, 2 peers, 2 subordinates, and self) were

used. Results indicated that idiosyncratic rater effects (62% and 53%) accounted for over half of the rating variance in both data sets. The combined effects of general and dimensional ratee performance (21% and 25%) were less than half the size of the idiosyncratic rater effects. Small perspective-related effects were found in boss and subordinate ratings but not in peer ratings. Average random error effects in the 2 data sets were 11% and 18%.

Bagali (2001) conducted a study on employee empowerment to improve the performance at work place. The study was conducted on hundred employees, and many empowerment factors like flat organizational culture, no designated positions, high respect, trust, faith in human being, transparent ethos, openness of communication, team work, open system of feedback and absence of gossips. Each employee was treated as decision maker. This strategy of employee empowerment for human resource management was found to be very effective.

Facteau and Craig (2001) tested whether a multi source performance appraisal instrument exhibited measurement invariance across different groups of raters. Multiple-groups confirmatory factor analysis as well as item response theory (IRT) techniques were used to test for invariance of the rating instrument across self, peer, supervisor, and subordinate raters. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the rating instrument was invariant across these rater groups. The IRT analysis yielded some evidence of differential item and test functioning, but it was limited to the effects of just 3 items and was trivial in magnitude. Taken together, the results suggest that the rating instrument could be regarded as invariant across the rater groups, thus supporting the practice of directly comparing their ratings. Implications for research and practice are discussed, as well as for understanding the meaning of between source rating discrepancies.

Job and organizational changes have promoted the importance of social skill at work, yet research in this area has been limited. Hochwater Ferris and Witt (2001) investigated the interaction between social skill and general mental ability (GMA) in the explanation of job performance and salary, controlling for personality and demographic characteristics. The results indicated that the relationships between social skill and job performance were stronger among workers high than low in GMA. In a similar manner, the relationships between GMA and job performance were stronger among workers high than low in social skill. The interaction on salary indicated that increases in social skill (or GMA) for high GMA (or social skill) individuals were associated with higher salary levels. It is interesting, however, that increases in social skill (or GMA) for those low in GMA (or social skill) contributed to lower salaries.

Misra, Patnaick, and Misra (2001), examined the relationship between human functional states (HFS), performance and role stress in a sample of 30 junior level managers who were classified as high performers and low performers. Those with less than 6 years of experience constituted the low experience groups (N=17), and those with more than 6 years experience were the high experience groups (N=13). The subjects were administered the human functional state rating scale and the Organizational Role Stress Scale (Pareek, 1997). They were also asked to narrate the technical and behavioural problems they have faced in their organization over the past 6 months. The results revealed that HFS was not significantly related to either performance or to job experience. In the low experience group, a significant negative correlation was seen between HFS and perceived roll stress.

Competency ratings were obtained from a hybrid selection system on 98 top-level executives in a predictive validity design by Russel (2001). Hierarchical linear modeling results indicated that "resource problem-solving-

oriented" competency ratings predicted initial performance. "People-oriented" competency ratings predicted subsequent performance trends. Utility estimates suggested that the system generated an additional \$3 million in annual profit per candidate selected. Groups of executives with similar performance trends were identified who had encountered qualitatively different situational circumstances. Findings imply that a model of executive performance must contain main effects for person (competencies) and situation (economic-industrial) characteristics on both subsequent performance and performance trends.

Sosik & Jung (2002) carried out a cross-cultural longitudinal investigation to examine the effects of culture (individualism-collectivism dichotomy) on group characteristics (functional heterogeneity, preference for teamwork, group potency, outcome expectation) and performance of 83 work groups performing two decision-making tasks over a 15-week period. Results of repeated measures analysis of covariance indicated that individualists reported higher levels of functional heterogeneity and group potency and attained higher levels of group performance than collectivists. In addition, culture and time interacted to influence ratings of group potency and outcome expectation. The difference in ratings of group potency between individualists and collectivists increased over time. Outcome expectation was greater among collectivists in Time I, while greater for individualists in Time 2.

Sosik, Potosky & Jung (2002) used Longitudinal multi-source field data to examine core aspects of Tsui and Ashford's (1994) adaptive self-regulation model in terms of linkages between self-monitoring, discrepancy in manager fit with position, five measures of leadership, and manager performance. Sixty-four superiors of focal managers rated the managers' match to their position within the organization at Time 1 and managers'

performance at Time 3. During Time 2, the 64 focal managers completed a measure of their self-monitoring, while 192 subordinates rated the managers' leadership behaviours. Results of partial least squares analysis revealed that discrepancy in manager fit with position was associated with reductions in laissez faire and passive management by-exception behaviour and increases in transformational leadership behaviour. Self-monitoring was positively associated with all five leadership behaviours. Performance related positively to transformational leadership behaviour and negatively to passive management-by-exception and contingent reward behaviour.

Jung, Sosik and Baik (2002), tested a longitudinal work group performance model developed by Jung and Sosik (1999) that focuses on the effects of perceptions of functional heterogeneity, preference for group work, group potency, and outcome expectations on group performance. The main objective was to replicate and extend their findings by conducting a comparable study in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures to test cross-cultural applicability of the model. Accordingly, authors tested the model with 43 student work groups in the United States and 40 student work groups in Korea performing two decision-making tasks over a 15-week semester. Results of partial least squares analysis indicated that potency had a consistently positive relation to performance in the U.S. sample, as it did in the 1999 study. This generalized to the Korean sample at Time 2 (but not at Time 1). Performance at Time 1 had a positive relation to subsequent perceived homogeneity and outcome expectations in the U.S. sample, as in the 1999 study, and this also held true for the Korean sample. Several new and interesting patterns emerged in the current study. For example, preference for group work had no relation to group performance at Time 1 in either sample, then at Time 2 was negatively related to performance in the Korean sample, and positively in the U.S. sample.

Chockalingam, Schmidt and Ones (2002) used a meta-analysis to cumulate the correlations between supervisors and peer ratings for different dimensions of job performance. The general pattern in the data suggested that raters from the same organizational level disagree as much as raters from different levels. Methods were used to separate the effects at rating difficulty and lack of construct-level convergence on the correlation between supervisor and peer ratings. The authors found complete construct-level convergence for ratings of overall job performance, productivity, effort job knowledge, quality, and leadership but not for ratings of administrative competence interpersonal competence, and compliance or acceptance of authority. Higher rating difficulty was more strongly associated with lower mean observed peer-supervisor correlations than were construct-level disagreements between peers and supervisors.

Kacmar *et al.* (2003) tested the hypothesis that communication frequency moderates the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and job-performance ratings. In a study of 188 private sector workers, they found that LMX was more strongly related to job-performance ratings among individuals reporting frequent communication with the supervisor than among those reporting infrequent communication. At high levels of LMX, workers reporting frequent communication with the supervisor received more favorable job-performance ratings than did workers reporting infrequent communication. In contrast, at low levels of LMX, workers reporting frequent communication with the supervisor received less favourable job-performance ratings than workers reporting infrequent communication. The authors conducted a 2nd study of 153 public sector workers to provide a constructive replication and found similar results.

Roth, Huffcutt and Bobko (2003), conducted a new meta-analysis of ethnic group differences in job performance. Given a substantially increased

set of data as compared with earlier analyses, the authors were able to conduct analyses of Black-White differences within more homogeneous categories of job performance and to reexamine findings on objective versus subjective measurement. Contrary to one perspective sometimes adopted in the field, objective measures are associated with very similar, if not somewhat larger, standardized ethnic group differences (ds) than subjective measures across a variety of indicators. This trend was consistent across quality, quantity, and absenteeism measures. Further, work samples and job knowledge tests are associated with larger ds than performance ratings or measures of absenteeism. Analysis of Hispanic-White standardized differences shows that they are generally lower than Black-White differences in several categories.

Vinchur, *et al.* (2003) in their meta-analysis evaluated predictors of both objective and subjective sales performance. Bio data measures and sales ability inventories were good predictors of the ratings criterion, with corrected *r*'s of .52 and .45, respectively. Potency (a sub dimension of the Big 5 personality dimension Extraversion) predicted supervisor ratings of performance ($r = .28$) and objective measures of sales ($r = .26$). Achievement (a component of the Conscientiousness dimension) predicted ratings ($r=.25$) and objective sales ($r=.41$). General cognitive ability showed a correlation of .40 with ratings but only .04 with objective sales. Similarly, age predicted ratings ($r=.26$) but not objective sales ($r=.06$). On the basis of a small number of studies, interest appears to be a promising predictor of sales success.

Hassan and Davies (2004) collected data on job performance for 1,053 male ($N=461$) and female ($N=592$) rubber tappers from nine different estates in Malaysia, and analysed for age, sex and tenure differences job performance data were based on output measures derived from production records over a 12-month period. Since the type of terrain varied considerably across plantations, terrain was classified as either 'hilly' or 'undulating' and the

effects of terrain type on performance were also examined. The relationship between age and total output took the form of an inverted U. Partial correlation analyses indicated that tenure, rather than age, were the main determinant of job performance. More experienced rubber tappers were found to perform better than less experienced rubber tappers. Women had significantly higher output levels than did men. Tappers working on estates with predominantly hilly terrains produced significantly higher levels of output than did tappers working on estates with predominantly undulating terrains. Neither sex nor tenure interacted significantly with terrain. These results are discussed in relation to previous research concerned with group differences in job performance.

This meta-analysis by Kuncel and Hezlett (2004) addresses the question of whether 1 general cognitive ability measure developed for predicting academic performance is valid for predicting performance in both educational and work domains. The validity of the Miller Analogies Test (MAT, W.S. Miller, 1960) for predicting 18 academic and work-related criteria was examined MAT correlations with other cognitive tests (e.g., Raven's Matrices (J.C. Raven, 1965), Graduate Record Examinations) also were meta-analyzed. The results indicate that the abilities measured by the MAT are shared with other cognitive ability instruments and that these abilities are generalizably valid predictors of academic and vocational criteria, as well as evaluations of career potential and creativity. These findings contradict the notion that intelligence at work is wholly different from intelligence at school, extending the voluminous literature that supports the broad importance of general cognitive ability (g).

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB BEHAVIOURS

Jae (1997) assessed the success in the Banking sector by examining the relationship between EQ, IQ and success in 100 bank employees. Data was

collected by administering the Bar-On EQ-i, the Raven Progressive Matrices, a performance review and analysis report. The correlation between Total EQ and job performance was 0.52, with job performance accounting for 27% of the variance. The Intrapersonal-Interpersonal adaptability, Stress Management, and General Mood composite scales had correlations of 0.48, 0.38, 0.49, 0.52, and 0.39 with job performance. The relationship between cognitive ability and job performance was weak, with $r=0.07$. No relationship was found between emotional intelligence and cognitive ability. This study found EQ to be a stronger predictor of on-the-job success than IQ.

Sitarenios (1998) provided preliminary analyses to investigate whether emotional intelligence (as measured by the EQ-i) contributes to the ability to identify "star" hockey prospects from other prospects. The sample was small ($n=15$) and therefore the results are highly preliminary. The largest differences were found in the areas of Problem Solving, the General Mood composite, and the General Mood subscales of Happiness and Optimism. Differences between the groups when skill rating is taken into account suggest that EQ-i scores can be used in combination with other ratings to refine player assessment and to help identify star performers.

Sosik and Megeriam (1999) examined whether self-awareness of managers (defined as agreement between self and other leadership ratings) would moderate relationships between (a) aspects of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviour, and (b) transformational leadership behaviour and managerial performance. Multi-source data were collected from 63 managers (who responded about their emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviour), 192 subordinates (who rated their manager's transformational leadership behaviour and performance outcomes), and 63 superiors of focal managers (who rated managerial performance). Results indicated that correlation between

emotional intelligence aspects, leader behaviour, and performance varied as a function of self-awareness of managers.

The role of emotional intelligence in determining team effectiveness was assessed by Sipsma (2000) in a population of postgraduate students required to work in self-managed work teams for their program of study at the Wits Business School, University of Witwatersrand. Participants (N=71) completed the EQ-i and the Team Effectiveness Questionnaire. Emotional intelligence and total team effectiveness were found to be significantly correlated. Emotional intelligence predicted approximately 40% of the variance in team effectiveness.

Sitarenios (2000) assessed emotional intelligence skills of 622 high, medium, and low performance employees of BI Corporation, using the EQ-i. The results of the analyses show that emotional intelligence skills are significantly related to job performance. The EQ-i factors that had the greatest ability to discriminate between the high, medium, and low performance groups were Social Responsibility, Optimism, Independence, Self Actualization, and Emotional Self-Awareness. When only the high and low performance groups were compared, the EQ-i sub-scales most strongly linked to performance were Social Responsibility, Optimism, and Independence.

This study by Slaski & Cartwright (2002) builds on earlier work, examining the role of Emotional Intelligence (EI) as a moderator in the stress process. A sample of UK managers (n=60) were given training in emotional intelligence. Pre and Post measures were taken relating to EI, stress and health and management performance. The study also incorporated a matched control group. It was found that training resulted in increased EI and improved health and well-being.

Contemporary theories place emotions and self-regulation at the centre of a dynamic process of stress. Emotional Intelligence (EQ) is the ability to perceive, understand and reflectively manage one's own emotions and those of others. This study by Slaski and Cartwright (2002) which was conducted within the management population (n=224) of a large retail organization, investigates the relationship between a measure of EQ, subjective stress, distress, general health, morale, quality of working life and management performance. Significant correlations in the expected direction were found, indicating that managers who scored higher in EQ suffered less subjective stress, experienced better health and well-being, and demonstrated better management performance.

Within business the organisational concept of call centres has developed rapidly. Within the UK the use and development of these centres has grown at a significant rate over the last decade. The economic benefits of this organizational concept have been threatened by the nature of the work and operating environment leading to high levels of attrition with associated recruitment, training and loss of productivity costs. As a result much effort has been focused on recruitment criteria and selection processes. In reviewing the criteria it is clear that many overlap with elements from within the concept of emotional intelligence (EI). Higgs (2004) reports a study designed to explore the relationship between the EI of call centre agents (using the EIQ measure developed by Dulewicz and Higgs, and ratings of their performance. A sample of 289 agents from three organisations was studied. Results included a strong relationship between overall EI and individual performance, as well as between several EI elements from the model and performance. Furthermore, a relationship between age and performance was established along with a number of gender differences. The practical implications of these findings are discussed along with the study limitations. Further areas for research are identified including differences

between agents in reaction and proactive roles and relationships to more direct measures of agent attrition.

Scott-Ladd and Chan (2004), argues that organizational learning is more effective if enacted by emotionally intelligent employees within clear operating boundaries such as those offered by participation in decision-making.

Organizational learning, based on Senge's (1992) conceptualization of the five elements of personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning and systems thinking, aims to facilitate an organization's ability to learn and adapt to change.

Emotional intelligence is claimed to promote emotional knowledge, perception and regulation as well as general intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). However, this has to be harnessed to contribute to the organization's success. This paper synthesizes a model of how emotional intelligence, organizational learning and participation in decision-making can be operationalized to improve an organization's capacity to manage change and improve performance outcomes.

Sitarenios (1998) correlated the EQ-i composite scales and sub-scales with 4 objective measures of success in 13 financial employees of the Global Private Banking and Trust division of the CIBC. Measures of success were "booked sales," "pipeline sales," total 1 (the sum of the booked and pipeline sales), and total 2 (1/2 of the pipeline total + booked sales). The results suggest that emotional skills are highly related to overall success as evaluated by booked, pipeline, and combined values. The results indicate that the most important aspects of Emotional Intelligence are Self-Actualization, Interpersonal relationship skill, and to a lesser extent, Empathy, Flexibility, Stress Tolerance, Reality Testing, and Independence.

Cavallo and Brienza (2006), conducted a study on three hundred and fifty-eight Managers across the Johnson & Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group (JJC & PC Group) globally to assess if there are specific leadership competencies that distinguish high performers from average performers. Participants were randomly selected, then coded for performance rating, potential code, gender, functional group and regional area. More than fourteen hundred employees took part in a one hundred and eighty three question multi-rater survey that measured a variety of competencies associated with leadership performance including those commonly referred to as Emotional Intelligence. Results showed that the highest performing managers have significantly more "emotional competence" than other managers. There was strong inter-rater agreement among Supervisors, Peers, and Subordinates that the competencies of self-Confidence, Achievement Orientation, Initiative, Leadership, Influence and Change Catalyst differentiate superior performers. The high potential managers received higher scores in the emotional competencies by Peers and Supervisors, but not by Subordinates. Some gender difference was found, with Supervisors rating Females higher in Adaptability and Service Orientation, while Peers rated Females higher on Emotional Self-Awareness, Conscientiousness, Developing Others, Service Orientation, and Communication. Direct reports scored Males higher in Change Catalyst.

PERSONALITY AND JOB BEHAVIOURS

Using the five factor model with an emphasis on extraversion and conscientiousness Barry, Bruce, Stewart and Greg (1997) investigated how personality is related to small group processes and outcomes. Graduate students (N=288) assigned to 4- and 5- person teams in 61 groups engaged in a series of creative problem solving tasks over a period of several weeks. Extraversion was associated with group processes and outcomes at both

individual and group levels of analysis. At the individual level, extraverts were perceived by others as having greater effect than introverts on group outcomes. Covariances structure modeling suggested that extraverts induce these perceptions through the provision of both socio emotional and task-related inputs. At the group level, the proportion of relatively extraverted members was related curvilinearly to task focus and group performance. Contrary to expectations, conscientiousness was unrelated to processes and outcomes at either the individual or group level.

In 3 prior meta-analyses, the relationship between the Big Five factors of personality and job criteria was investigated by Salgado (1997). However, these meta-analyses showed different findings. Furthermore, these reviews included studies carried out only in the United States and Canada. This study reports meta-analytic research on the same topic but with studies conducted in the European Community, which were not included in the prior reviews. The results indicate that Conscientiousness and Emotional Stability are valid predictors across job criteria and occupational groups. The remaining factors are valid only for some criteria and for some occupational groups. Extraversion was a predictor for 2 occupations, and Openness and Agreeableness were valid predictors of training proficiency.

Interest in the role of personality in organizational behaviour has increased over recent years. To a large extent this is due to the emergence of the "Big Five" as a valid and reasonably generalizable taxonomy for personality structure. As far as individual work performance is concerned, several meta-analytic studies have explored the criterion-related validity of personality and shown that personality variables are associated with overall job proficiency. Robertson & Callinan (1998) evaluated these developments in the light of a broader theoretical framework and recent empirical results. Overall job proficiency is divided into two components: task performance and

contextual performance. Studies on individual and group performance, and leader effectiveness, are presented to show that personality factors are more closely related to contextual performance. Research linking personality with job and work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) is also reviewed. The achievements and limitations of research so far are highlighted and suggestions for a new research agenda.

Vinchor *et al.* (1998) in this meta-analysis evaluated predictors of both objective and subjective sales performance. Bio data measures and sales ability inventories were good predictors of the ratings criterion, with corrected *r*s of .52 and .45, respectively. Potency (a sub dimension of the Big 5 personality dimension Extraversion) predicted supervisor ratings of performance ($r=.28$) and objective measures of sales ($r=.26$). Achievement (a component of the Conscientiousness dimension) predicted ratings ($r=.25$) and objective sales ($r=.41$). General cognitive ability showed a correlation of .40 with ratings but only .04 with objective sales. Similarly, age predicted ratings ($r=.26$) but not objective sales ($r=.06$). On the basis of a small number of studies, interest appears to be a promising predictor of sales success.

Dirks (1999) in his study explored 2 questions. Does the level of trust within a group affect group performance? If so, how does this relationship operate? An experimental method was used to examine 2 roles through which interpersonal trust could affect group performance, a main effect and a moderating effect. The data do not support the main effect that has dominated the literature on interpersonal trust. The data do support the moderating role. Trust seems to influence how motivation is converted into work group processes and performance. On the basis of these findings, it is suggested that trust may be best understood as a construct that influences group performance indirectly by channeling group members' energy toward reaching alternative goals.

The general proposition that performance is a multiplicative function of ability and motivation has a long-standing history. Three recent studies have reported results that suggest that shifting from an additive model to a multiplicative model may improve efforts to predict performance. Sackett Gruys and Ellingsm (1998) represent an extensive examination of this multiplicative proposition when motivation is conceptualized in terms of personality characteristics. The Project A database, the Management Continuity Study database, and 2 additional data sets were brought together to facilitate a systematic investigation concerning whether ability and personality interact when predicting performance. Contrary to expectations, the results indicate that ability personality interactions are not detected at above chance levels.

Seibert, Crant and Kraimer (1999) examined the relationship between proactive personality and career success by surveying a sample of 496 employees (320 men and 176 women) from a diverse set of occupations and organizations. Proactive personality was positively associated with both self-reported objective (salary and promotions) and subjective (career satisfaction) indicators of career success. Hierarchical regression analyses showed that proactive personality explained additional variance in both objective and subjective career success even after controlling for several relevant variables (demographic, human capital, motivational, organizational, and industry) that have previously been found to be predictive of career outcomes. These findings were consistent using both self-report and significant other ratings of proactive personality.

Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) evaluated the linkage between leader-member exchange (LMX), transformational and transactional leadership, and physical distance in predicting performance of 317 followers over a 1-year period. Results from a partial least squares analysis revealed

that LMX was related positively to transformational and contingent reward leadership and negatively to management-by-exception. LMX and active management-by exception positively predicted follower performance and physical distance moderated leadership-performance relationships. Transformational leadership produced significantly higher follower performance in close versus distant situations, whereas LMX produced high follower performance irrespective of physical distance between leaders and followers.

Stewart (1999) in this study examined relationships with job performance at different stages of employee tenure for a broad personality measure (conscientiousness) and 2 more narrow sub traits (order and achievement). Applicants for a sales position were given a personality test as part of the hiring process. 85 of these applicants were eventually employed and participated in the study 98 sales representatives who had previously been hired were also given the personality measure and participated in the study. Conscientiousness exhibited a consistent relationship with performance for employees in both the transition stage (newly hired employees) and the maintenance stage (veteran employees). In contrast, the more narrow sub traits exhibited differential relationships. Order correlated more strongly with performance in the transition stage, whereas achievement correlated more strongly in the maintenance stage. In the respective samples, order and achievement also provided incremental validity beyond conscientiousness.

In a study on the basis of job analysis results, the validity of using measures of general cognitive ability, job-specific skills, and personality traits jointly at both the individual level and the group level to predict the performance of 79 four person human resource work teams was evaluated by Nenman and Wright (1999). Team member trait and job skill scores were aggregated with a conjunctive model of task performance. At the individual

level of analysis, measures of personality (i.e., Agreeableness and Conscientiousness) predicted peer ratings of team member performance beyond measures of job specific skills and general cognitive ability. Similarly, at the group level of analysis, both agreeableness and conscientiousness predicted supervisor ratings of work team performance, objective measures of work team accuracy, and work completed. At both the individual and group levels, the trait of agreeableness predicted interpersonal skills.

According to Hochwarter, Witt and Kacmar (2000) meta-analytic studies of the relationships between the five-factor model of personality constructs and job performance indicate that conscientiousness has been the most consistent predictor. Recent research has sought to identify situational factors that may explain additional variance beyond what has been reported by simple bivariate relationships. The authors hypothesized that perceptions of organizational politics would moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance. Data collected from 234 male and 579 female workers in 4 organizations indicated that conscientiousness was related to job performance among workers perceiving average to high levels of organizational politics but unrelated to performance among workers perceiving low levels of organizational politics. Moreover, perceptions of organizational politics were negatively related to job performance only among workers of average to low levels of conscientiousness.

Frayne and Geringer (2001) in a control group field experiment using a reversal design, 30 insurance sales people were randomly assigned to an experimental group that received self-management training. A multivariate analysis of variance and subsequent repeated-measures analyses of variance revealed that compared with a control condition (n=30), training in self-management skills significantly improved job performance as assessed

through both objective and subjective measures. Performance improvement continued with time, and increases were sustained across a 12-month period post training. Subsequent training of the control group produced similar increases in self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, and job performance. Potential mediating effects of self-efficacy and outcome expectancies on the self-management performance relationship were explored and partially supported.

Lagrange and Roodt (2001) conducted a study to determine whether personality and a measure of cognitive ability ('verbal reasoning ability') would significantly predict the job performance ('managerial ratings') of sales people in a large South African insurance company. The Customer Contact Styles Questionnaire (CCSQ 5.2) and the Verbal Evaluation Test (VCC 3) were administered to 170 broker consultants, and their managers rated their job performance on the Customer Contact Competency Inventory (CCCI). By making use of multiple regression analysis it was found that certain personality dimensions significantly predict job performance, and that 'verbal reasoning ability' did not have any significant predictive power.

According to Vancouver, Thompson and Williams (2001), the common interpretation of the positive correlation among self-efficacy, personal goals, and performance is questioned. Using self-efficacy theory (A. Bandura, 1977), it was predicted that cross-sectional correlational results were a function of past performance's influence on self-efficacy, and using control theory (W.T. Powers, 1973), it was predicted that self-efficacy could negatively influence subsequent performance. These predictions were supported with 56 undergraduate participants, using a within-person procedure. Personal goals were also positively influenced by self-efficacy and performance but negatively related to subsequent performance. A 2nd study involving 185 undergraduates found that manipulated goal level

positively predicted performance and self-efficacy positively predicted performance in the difficult-goal condition. The discussion focuses on conditions likely to affect the sign of the relationship among self-efficacy, goals, and performance.

Research shows consistent relations between personality and job performance. In this study Barrick, Stewart and Piotrowski (2002) developed and tested a model of job performance that examined the mediating effects of cognitive-motivational work orientations on the relationships between personality traits and performance in a sales job (N=164). Covariance structural analyses revealed proximal motivational variables to be influential mechanisms through which distal personality traits affect job performance. Specifically, striving for status and accomplishment mediated the effects of extraversion and conscientiousness on ratings of sales performance. Although agreeableness was related to striving for communion, neither agreeableness nor communion striving was related to success in this sales job.

Judge and Ilies (2002) in this article provide a meta-analysis of the relationship between the 5 factor model of personality and 3 central theories of performance motivation (goal setting, expectancy, and self-efficacy motivation). The quantitative review includes 150 correlations from 65 studies. Traits were organized according to the 5-factor model of personality. Results indicated that Neuroticism (average validity = -.31) and Conscientiousness (average validity = .24) were the strongest and most consistent correlates of performance motivation across the 3 theoretical perspectives. Results further indicated that the validity of 3 of the Big Five traits - Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Conscientiousness - generalized across studies. As a set, the Big 5 traits had an average multiple correlation of .40 with the motivational criteria, suggesting that the Big 5 traits are an important source of performance motivation.

The question of how to develop effective leaders is one of major importance to military organizations. Snook and Tremble (2002) examined a large cohort of U.S. Military Academy cadets over time, tests the influence of cognitive and personality variables on military leadership performance over a 4-year period. Hierarchical multiple regression procedures are used to identify factors at entry into the Academy that successfully predict military development grades as upper classmen, 3 to 4 years later. A moderately stable cross-validated model reveals cognitive factors (college entrance scores, social judgement skills, and logical reasoning) and personality factors (agreeableness and conscientiousness) that contribute to later leader performance. A main effect for gender on leader performance was also identified, with women performing better than men. The amount of variance in leader performance scores accounted for by variables examined here, although modest, is notable considering the time interval involved.

Witt *et al.* (2002) hypothesized that the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance would be stronger for person high in agreeableness than for those low in agreeableness. Results of hierarchical moderated regression analysis for 7 independent samples of employees across diverse occupations provided support for the hypothesis in 5 of the samples. In samples supporting the hypothesis, among the highly conscientious workers, those low in agreeableness were found to receive lower ratings of job performance than workers high in agreeableness. One explanation for lack of an interaction between conscientiousness and agreeableness in the other 2 samples is that those jobs were not characterized by frequent, cooperative interactions with others. Overall, the results show that highly conscientious workers who lack interpersonal sensitivity may be ineffective, particularly in jobs requiring cooperative interchange with others.

Hogan and Holland (2003) used socio analytic theory to understand individual differences in people's performance at work. Specifically, if predictors and criteria are aligned by using theory, then the meta-analytic validity of personality measures exceeds that of a theoretical approach. As performance assessment moved from general to specific job criteria, all Big Five personality dimensions more precisely predicted relevant criterion variables, with estimated true validities of .43 (Emotional stability), .35 (Extraversion-Ambition), .34 (Agreeableness), .36 (Conscientiousness), and .34 (Intellect-Openness to Experience).

Witt and Ferris (2003) conducted 4 studies to test the hypothesis that the relationship between Conscientiousness and job performance reflecting interpersonal effectiveness is more strongly positive among workers who are higher rather than lower in social skill. Results of hierarchical moderated regression analyses supported the hypothesis in all 4 studies. Among workers high in social skill conscientiousness was positively related to performance. Among workers low in social skill, the relationship between Conscientiousness and performance was essentially irrelevant in Study 2 but was negative in the other 3 studies. Potential implications of these results are discussed as are directions for future research.

Robertson *et al.* (2004) in their recent research has provided clear evidence that personality factors are associated with job performance. The construct of conscientiousness has been shown to be a particularly promising predictor of overall job performance. Some authors have proposed that conscientiousness might be the 'g' of personality and predict performance in most occupational areas. The nature of the construct of conscientiousness is reviewed and consideration given to the likely behaviour associated with high conscientiousness. It is hypothesized that given the requirements of managerial work, the criterion related validity of conscientiousness may not

extend to all managerial jobs. Conscientiousness scores are derived from a sample of managers (N=437), with the aid of personality questionnaire data. In a concurrent validity design these scores are correlated with indicators of current job performance, promotability and specific job performance factors. The correlation of conscientiousness with current performance is close to zero and the correlation with promotability is -.20. The pattern of relationships between conscientiousness and the job performance factors is used to interpret the finding that conscientiousness is not influential in determining managerial performance. The results suggest that there may be limits to the range of occupational areas in which conscientiousness is closely linked with job performance.

This study compares the criterion validity of the Big Five personality dimensions when assessed using Five-Factor Model (FFM)-based inventories and non-FFM-based inventories. A large database consisting of American as well as European validity studies was meta-analysed by Salgado (2004). The results showed that for conscientiousness and emotional stability, the FFM-based inventories had greater criterion validity than the non-FFM-based inventories. Conscientiousness showed an operational validity of .28 (N=19,460, 90% CV=.07) for FFM-based inventories and .18 (N = 5,874, 90% CV = -.04) for non-FFM inventories. Emotional stability showed an operational validity of .16 (N=10,786, 90% CV = .04) versus .05 (N=4,541, 90% CV = -.05) for FFM and non-FFM-based inventories, respectively. No relevant differences emerged for extraversion, openness, and agreeableness. From a practical point of view, these findings suggest that practitioners should use inventories based on the FFM in order to make personnel selection decisions.

JOB ATTITUDES AND JOB BEHAVIOURS

Joshi (1994) discussed the usefulness of human resource development (HRD), the learning programmes provided by the employer which focuses on training, education and development. People engaged in HRD can be HRD managers, learning specialists and consultants who can be involved in strategic planning processes, research and career development. The effective use of HRD can help managers in solving problems related to productivity, performance appraisal, internal mobility, employee satisfaction, and customer service.

Orpen (1994) examined the effects of flexi time on satisfaction, performance, and productivity in a pretest and post test control group design. The results indicate that flexible working hours led to significant improvements in job satisfaction, but it had little effect on the performance of employees.

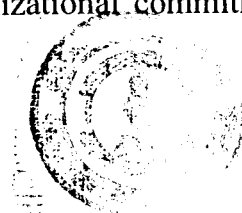
Podder (1996) discussed the importance of understanding, gauging and improving employee morale in the success of the organization. Employee morale is associated with higher performance and increased productivity. The determinants of morale are group cohesiveness, clear and common goals, observable progress toward goal attainment and specific meaningful tasks for the individual in the group. Methods for estimating and improving employee morale have been discussed. Expert approach, industrial spy method, industrial counseling method and the employee problem solving approach are generally used to increase morale. The manager's job building and boosting employee morale has been discussed.

Keller (1997) in a study of 532 scientists and engineers from 4 industrial research and development organizations showed that as hypothesized, the scientist-engineer distinction had a moderating effect on the

relationships between job involvement and 1-year-later job-performance ratings and on counts of patents and publications. Scientists had stronger relationships between job involvement and each of the performance measures taken 1 year later than did the engineers. No moderating effect was found for the scientist-engineer distinction on the relationships between organizational commitment and the performance measures. Moreover, non-moderating effect was shown for an interaction term of job involvement and organizational commitment on the performance measures. Implications are discussed for theory building of the construct of job involvement and for the differential management of scientists versus engineers.

Hosque (1998) examined the nature and degree of relationship between work performance and motivation, perceived degree of employee oriented supervision, perceived degree of product oriented supervision, pay inequality, group cohesiveness, personal life and family life satisfaction. In a sample of 200 production workers of two textile mills in Bangladesh. The subjects were administered the adapted versions of motivation scale (Nadles & Lawler) the employees and production orientation scale (Habibullah) and score items to measure cohesiveness, perceive degree of inequality with regard to pay and perceived degree of satisfaction of workers with personal and family lives. Face to face interviews were conducted to collect data. Results indicated that all variables except production orientation supervision and group cohesiveness of workers were correlated with performance; stepwise regression revealed that motivation, pay inequity and employee oriented supervision were best predictors of performance having a combined variance of 30%.

O'Neill and Mone (1998) in this his study integrated measures of equity sensitivity and self efficacy in an effort to better understand how these variables may affect job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent



to leave. Equity sensitivity denotes how sensitive people are to over reward and under reward situations and has recently enhanced the accuracy of equity theory in predicting job satisfaction in social exchange situations. Self-efficacy, or task-specific self-confidence, is a central component of Bandura's social cognitive theory, and its influence on individual's goals, efforts, and task persistence is well documented. Results from a field study of 242 employees in a health care firm support the moderating role of equity sensitivity in relations between self-efficacy and job satisfaction and between self-efficacy and intent to leave, but not between self-efficacy and organizational commitment.

Wright and Cropanzano (1998) in their research suggest that a better understanding of emotional exhaustion requires the development of new theoretical perspectives. To that end, with the conservation of resources model (COR) as the theoretical framework, the present 1-year longitudinal study was undertaken. Composed of 52 social welfare workers, this research examined the relationship of emotional exhaustion to job satisfaction, voluntary turnover, and job performance. Positive affectivity (PAA) and negative affectivity (NA) were used as control variables. Whereas emotional exhaustion was unrelated to job satisfaction, it was associated with both performance and subsequent turnover. In addition, the relationship between emotional exhaustion and performance and also between emotional exhaustion and turnover remained significant above and beyond the effects of PA and NA.

Barkat and Shawkat (1999) conducted a study to find out the interrelationship among skills & job involvement and work performance of hundred weavers lived in different carpet manufacturing enterprises. Subjects were administered the shorter version of Hadabt and Kaijner's, job involvement scale. Their performance and skills appraisals were assessed by

a scale developed by the authors. The correlational analysis revealed positive but insignificant correlation among different levels of skills, job involvement, and work performances. The only correlation was between high skill and low work performance which were inversely but not significantly related.

Bowron and Todd (199) conducted a study within a large, urban Emergency Medical Services (EMS) service performing approximately 60,000 Advanced Life Support (ALS) responses annually. Using focus groups and informal interviews, potential predictors of global job satisfaction were identified. These factors included; interactions with hospital nurses and physicians, on-line communications; dispatching; training provided by the ambulance service, relationship with supervisors and; standing orders as presently employed by the ambulance service. These factors were incorporated into a 21-one item questionnaire including one item measuring global job satisfaction, 14 items measuring potential predictors of satisfaction, and seven questions exploring demographic information such as age, gender, race, years of experience, and years with the company. The survey was administered to all paramedics and Emergency Medical Technicians (EMTs) Results of the survey were analyzed using univariate and multivariate techniques to identify predictors of global job.

Musharraf and Tarique (1999) investigated the Quality of Work Life (QWL), job satisfaction, and performance of 63 nurses working in government hospitals in Bangladesh. The Bengali version of Sinha and Sayeed's (1980) QWL Inventory and Brayfield-Roth (1951), Job satisfaction Scale were administered significant positive correlation was found between job satisfaction and performance. Also, Higher QWL and job satisfaction were expressed by respondents from small as opposed to large organizations and by nurses working in day shifts rather than in night shifts.

Nandi (1999) examined the roll of job satisfaction in the self rated performance of school teachers. The sample consisted of 315 teachers employed in Bengali-medium secondary schools. The job satisfaction scales (Srilatha, 1991), and the self-rated performance scale (Srilatha, 1991) were administered individually to all the respondents. Findings indicated that job satisfaction had no characteristic influence on the self-rated performance of school teachers. There were no gender differences with regard to self rated performance as well as job satisfaction. However, there were differences in the nature of job satisfaction among teachers.

Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) in a field investigation of 337 employees and their immediate superiors tested the mediating role of empowerment in relations between job characteristics, leader-member exchange (LMX), team-member exchange (TMX), and work outcomes. The meaning and competence dimensions of empowerment mediated the relation between job characteristics and work satisfaction. The meaning dimension also mediated the relation between job characteristics and organizational commitment. Contrary to prediction, empowerment did not mediate relations between LMX, TMX, and the outcome variables. Rather, LMX and TMX were directly related to organizational commitment. In addition, TMX was directly related to job performance. These findings suggest that work satisfaction is explained largely by job characteristics (through empowerment) but that LMX and TMX combine with job characteristics and empowerment to explain variation in organizational commitment and job performance.

The purpose of this study conducted by Sosik (2001) was to examine whether self-awareness of managers (defined as agreement between self and other leadership ratings) would influence work attitudes (i.e., trust and organizational commitment) of managers and their subordinates, and relationships between charismatic leadership behaviour and managerial

performance. Longitudinal multi source data were collected from 83 managers (who responded about their trust, organizational commitment, charismatic leadership and socially desirable responding), 249 subordinates (who rated their manager's charismatic leadership and responded about their trust and organizational commitment), and 83 superiors of focal managers (who rated managerial performance). Results indicated that levels of work attitudes and correlations between work attitudes, charismatic leadership, and performance varied as a function of self-awareness of managers.

Four hundred thirteen postal employees were surveyed by Eisenberger *et al.* (2001) to investigate reciprocation's role in the relationships of perceived organizational support (POS) with employees' affective organizational commitment and job performance. The authors found that (a) POS was positively related to employees' felt obligation to care about the organization's welfare and to help the organization reach its objectives, (b) felt obligation mediated the associations of POS with affective commitment, organizational spontaneity, and in-role performance, and (c) the relationship between POS and felt obligation increased with employees' acceptance of the reciprocity norm as applied to work organizations. Positive mood also mediated the relationships of POS with affective commitment and organizational spontaneity. The pattern of findings is consistent with organizational support theory's assumption that POS strengthens affective commitment and performance by a reciprocation process.

Thilak (2001) in an empirical study tried to find out the relationship between teaching effectiveness and job satisfaction and motivation to work in a sample of hundred secondary school teachers from both rural, and urban areas. The subjects were administered the Teacher Effectiveness Scale (Kumar & Muths, 1974), the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Kumar & Muths, 1978) and the Work Motivation Scale (Aggrawal, 1988). It was

reported that motivation to work significantly affected teaching effectiveness. The effect of job satisfaction as well as the interactive effect of motivation to work and job satisfaction were non significant. Teachers with high motivation to work were significantly better than those with low motivations to work with regard to teaching effectiveness.

Riketta (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to estimate the true correlation between attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance and to identify moderators of this correlation. One-hundred and eleven samples from 93 published studies were included. The corrected mean correlation was 0.20. The correlation was at least marginally significantly stronger for (a) extra-role performance as opposed to in-role performance; (b) white-collar workers as opposed to blue-collar workers; and (c) performance assessed by self ratings as opposed to supervisor ratings or objective indicators. Four other assumed moderators (commitment measure: Affective Commitment Scale versus Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, job level, age, and tenure) did not have at least marginally significant effects.

This meta-analysis by Wright and Bone (2002) investigated the correlation between attitudinal commitment and job performance for 3, 630 employees obtained from 27 independent studies across various levels of employee tenure. Controlling for employee age and other nuisance variables, the authors found that tenure had a very strong nonlinear moderating effect on the commitment-performance correlation, with correlations tending to decrease exponentially with increasing tenure. These findings do not appear to be the result of differences across studies in terms of the type of performance measure (supervisory vs. self), type of tenure (job vs. organizational), or commitment measure (Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (L.W. Porter, R.M. Steers, R.T. Mowday, & P.V. Boulian,

1974) vs. others). The implications and future research directions of these results are discussed.

Acceptance, the willingness to experience thoughts, feelings, and physiological sensations without having to control them or let them determine one's actions, is a major individual determinant of mental health and behavioural effectiveness in a more recent theory of psychopathology. Bond and Bunce (2003) in this 2-wave panel study examined the ability of acceptance also to explain mental health, job satisfaction, and performance in the work domain. The authors hypothesized that acceptance would predict these 3 outcomes 1 year later in a sample of customer service center workers in the United Kingdom (N=412). Results indicated that acceptance predicted mental health and an objective measure of performance over and above job control, negative affectivity, and locus of control. These beneficial effects of having more job control were enhanced when people had higher levels of acceptance. The authors discuss the theoretical and practical relevance of this individual characteristic to occupational health and performance.

Thorsteinson (2003) conducted a meta-analysis (k=38, N=51, 231) to examine the size of the difference between full- and part-time employees on job attitudes. Results indicated that there was little difference between full-time (FT) and part-time (PT) employees on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to leave and facets of job satisfaction. Full-time employees were found to be more involved with their jobs than PT employees ($d = 0.39$). Moderating variables were examined (type of job, sex of the sample and sampling strategy used), but these variables explained little of the variability in effect sizes across the studies. An additional analysis of voluntary vs. involuntary employment status was conducted on job satisfaction, but only small differences were found.

Cropanzano, Rupp and Byrne (2003) investigated the negative consequences of emotional exhaustion for individual employees and their employers. On the basis of social exchange theory, the authors proposed that emotional exhaustion would predict job performance, 2 classes of organizational citizenship behaviour, and turnover intentions. In addition, the authors posited that the relationship between emotional exhaustion and effective work behaviours would be mediated by organizational commitment. With only a few exceptions, the results of 2 field studies supported the authors' expectations. In addition, emotional exhaustion exerted an independent effect on these criterion variables beyond the impact of age, gender, and ethnicity.

Schleicher, Watt and Greguras (2004) in the present article argues that organizational researchers tend to adopt an overly simplistic conceptualization and operationalization of job satisfaction (and job attitudes in general). Specifically, past research has failed to examine the affective-cognitive consistency (ACC) of job attitudes and the implications this has for the strength of the attitude and its relationship with behaviour (e.g., job performance). Results from Study 1 suggest ACC is a significant moderator of the job satisfaction-job performance relationship, with those employees higher in ACC showing a significantly larger correlation between job satisfaction and performance than those lower in ACC. Study 2 replicated these findings.

Yehunda *et al.* (2004) in this study examined the relationship between job performance and prosocial behaviour at work using several variables that to date have received little or no attention in the literature. It focuses on employees' need for control, need for achievement, and the more commonly. Studied variable of organizational commitment as direct predictors of prosocial behaviour, and ultimately as indirect antecedents of job

performance. However, no relationship was found between need for control and job performance. Moreover, when both personality variables were controlled for, the effect of prosocial behaviour and commitment on job performance disappeared. This finding suggests that further work on the mediating effects of prosocial behaviour and commitment on job performance is needed.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, PERSONALITY, JOB ATTITUDES AND JOB BEHAVIOURS

Sosik, & Megerian (1999) examined whether self-awareness of managers (defined as agreement between self and other leadership ratings) would moderate relationships between (a) aspects of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviour, and (b) transformational leadership behaviour and managerial performance. Multi-source data were collected from 63 managers (who responded about their emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviour), 192 subordinates (who rated their manager's transformational leadership behaviour and performance outcomes), and 63 superiors of focal managers (who rated managerial performance). Results indicated that correlations between emotional intelligence aspects, leader behaviour, and performance varied as a function of self-awareness of managers.

Frayne and Geringer (2000), in a control-group field experiment using a reversal design, 30 insurance sales people were randomly assigned to an experimental group that received self-management training. A multivariate analysis of variance and subsequent repeated measures analyses of variance revealed that, compared with a control condition (n=30), training in self-management skills significantly improved job performance as assessed through both objective and subjective measures. Performance improvement continued with time, and increase were sustained across a 12-month period

post training subsequent training of the control group produced similar increases in self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, and job performance. Potential mediating effects of self-efficacy and outcome expectancies on the self-management-performance relationship were explored and partially supported.

Judge and Bono (2001) in this article present meta-analytic results of the relationship of 4 traits-self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (low neuroticism) - with job satisfaction and job performance. With respect to job satisfaction, the estimated true score correlations were .26 for self-esteem, .45 for generalized self-efficacy, .32 for internal locus of control, and .24 for emotional stability. With respect to job performance, the correlations were .26 for self-esteem, .23 for generalized self-efficacy, .22 for internal locus of control, and .19 for emotional stability. In total, the results based on 274 correlations suggest that these traits are among the best dispositional predictors of job satisfaction and job performance.

Lennart and Patriek (2003), studied salespersons in a telecommunications company for perceived risk, emotional intelligence (EI), a number of additional dimensions of work motivation personality, and performance. It was found that EI was related as expected to other variables, most notably to life/work balance (positively), to positive affective tone (positively), and to materialistic values and money obsession (negatively). EI was most clearly related to citizenship behaviour and less to core task performance, as expected. Core task performance was strongly related to conscientiousness and positive affect, and also to willingness to work and work interest. Job satisfaction had a weaker relationship to performance, in agreement with much earlier work. EI emerged as a dimension possible to measure and with expected properties.

Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2004) in this paper critically review conceptualisations and empirical evidence in support of emotional intelligence (EI) and its claimed role in the occupational environment. Consideration is given to the purported status of EI in occupational and career assessment (with particular emphasis on personnel selection and placement), job performance, and satisfaction. Overall, this review demonstrates that recent research has made important strides towards understanding the usefulness of EI in the workplace. However, the ratio of hyperbole to hard evidence is high, with over-reliance in the literature on expert opinion, anecdote, case studies, and unpublished proprietary surveys.

Psychological acceptance (acceptance) and emotional intelligence (EI) are two relatively new individual characteristics that are hypothesised to affect well-being and performance at work. Donaldso-Feilder and Bond (2004) compared both of them, in terms of their ability to predict various well-being outcomes (i.e. general mental health, physical well-being, and job satisfaction). In making this comparison, the effects of job control are accounted for, this is a work organisation variable that is consistently associated with occupational health and performance. Results from 290 United Kingdom workers showed that EI did not significantly predict any of the well-being outcomes, after accounting for acceptance and job control. Acceptance predicted general mental health and physical well-being but not job satisfaction, and job control was associated with job satisfaction only. Discussion focuses on the theoretical and applied implications of these findings. These include support for the suggestion that not controlling one's thoughts and feelings (as advocated by acceptance) may have greater benefits for mental well-being than attempting consciously to regulate them (as EI suggests).

In this study Law, Wong, Song, Law (2004) reviewed the definition of emotional intelligence (EI) and argued that EI is conceptually distinct from personality. In Study I, the authors showed that EI was related to yet distinct from personality dimensions and that it had incremental predictive power on life satisfaction. The authors examined the construct validity of self-reports and others' ratings of EI using two samples in Study 2. In a student sample, parents' ratings explained additional variance in the students' life satisfaction and feelings of powerlessness after controlling for the Big Five personality dimensions. In the work sample, peer ratings were found to be significant predictors of job performance ratings provided by supervisors after controlling for the Big Five personality dimensions.

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY
AS MODERATORS OF JOB ATTITUDES AND
JOB BEHAVIOURS**

**THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN PSYCHOLOGY**

MADHU. K.B.

**UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT
KERALA**

2007

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

- *Sample*
- *Tools*
- *Procedure*
- *Statistics used*

Psychological enquiry is characterized by the quest to understand human behaviour. It was not until late 19th century; however, the psychological inquiry became systematic. That is, the field of Psychology did not emerge as a scientific discipline, until just a little over 100 years ago. This makes psychology a relatively new field compared to other sciences.

In general, psychological research is driven by 3 primary goals: (1) to describe (2) to predict and (3) to control behaviour.

This chapter explains the general plan of the study. The methodology consists of the sample selected for the study, the tools used, the procedure or the data collection and the statistical techniques used for analysis. These are given under various sub-titles.

SECTION A: SAMPLE

In the section the criteria and procedure used for selection of the subjects (sample) for the present study is described.

SECTION B: TOOLS

This section deals with tools used for the study, and their psychometric properties are explained along with the variables they measure.

SECTION C: PROCEDURE

This section systematically explains the process adopted in data collection, the procedures for the administration of different tests and the scoring details.

SECTION D: STATISTICS USED

This section meant for discussing the different types of statistical analyses used in the study and the purpose and intentions of using them.

A. SAMPLE

Researcher usually cannot make direct observation of every individual in the population they are studying. Instead, they collect data from a subset of individuals – a sample – and use those observations to make inferences about the entire population.

Ideally the sample corresponds to the larger population (universe) on the characteristic of interest. In that case, the researcher's conclusions from the sample are probably applicable to the entire population.

This correspondence between the sample and the larger population is most important when researcher wants to know what proportion of population has certain characteristics – like a particular opinion or demographic feature. Public opinion polls that try to describe the percentage of the population that plans to vote for a particular candidate, for example, require a sample that is highly representative of the population.

Two general approaches to sampling are used in Social Science research, viz. probability and non-probability sampling. With probability sampling, all elements (e.g., persons, households) in the population have some opportunity of being included in the sample, and the mathematical possibility that any one of them will be selected can be calculated.

With non-probability sampling, in contrast, population elements are selected on the basis of their availability (e.g.: because they volunteered) or because of the researcher's personal judgment that they are representative. The consequence is that the unknown portion of the population is excluded (e.g. those who did not volunteer).

In the present study simple random sampling technique was used. Simple random sampling is the basic sampling technique where we select a

group of subjects (a sample) for study from a large group (a population). Each individual is chosen entirely by chance and each member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. Every possible sample of a given size has the same chance of selection, i.e. each member of the population is equally likely to be chosen at any stage in the sampling process.

The sample was collected from 4 major chemical industries in Kerala, namely KRL, FACT, Hindustan Latex and Travancore Titanium Products. KRL and FACT are situated in the Central Kerala (Cochin) and Latex and Titanium are in the Southern part (Trivandrum) of Kerala. The northern part of Kerala does not have any chemical industry of similar status and therefore no industries are included in the sample. All the four organizations have similar job hierarchies and comparable organizational cultures as all of them are public sector production units in the state of Kerala.

The sample for the present study consisted of 247 middle level managers belonging to the various departments of these organizations.

The comprehensive details of the names of the organizations and the corresponding numbers of managers chosen from each organization are given in table III.1.

TABLE III. 1

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Organizations

Organisation	No. of Managers	Percentage
FACT	36	14.6
Latex	40	16.2
KRL	101	40.9
Titanium	70	28.3
Total	247	100.0

For the purpose of different analyses the sample was divided into different groups based on different criteria like age, experience, trained or untrained, salary, whether had an industrial accident or not, low EI or high EI, type A or type B personality, low job attitude or high job attitude etc. The details of those breakups are given in the following tables.

Age

The sample consisted of managers within the age group of 25-58 years. The entire sample was divided into 3 groups, as low age group, medium age group and high age group as given in table III. 2.

TABLE III. 2

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Age

Age groups	No. of Managers	Percentage
Low group (25 – 40)	75	30.4
Medium group (40 – 50 yrs)	58	23.5
High group (50 – 58 yrs)	114	46.2
Total	247	100

Experience

In the present sample we had managers having experience ranging from 2 years to 38 years of total work experience. The sample was divided into 3 groups for the analysis as given in table III. 3.

TABLE III. 3

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Experience

Experience	No.	Percentage
Low (0 – 15 years)	75	30.4
Medium (16 – 30 years)	98	39.7
High (31 – above)	74	30.0
Total	247	100

Training

The sample consisted of managers who were trained for their jobs and as well as who were not trained. The categorization based on this criterion is given in table III. 4.

TABLE III. 4

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Training

Training	No. of People	Percentage
Trained	181	73.3
Non trained	66	26.7
Total	247	100

Salary

There were a considerable range of variations in the salaries received by the managers within each organisation as well as among the organizations. The sample was split into 3 groups based on this criteria, as shown in table III. 5.

TABLE III. 5

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Salary

Salary	No. of Cases	Percentage
Group I Low (6 – 15)	87	35.2
Group II Medium (16 – 30)	110	44.5
Group III High (30 onwards)	50	20.2
Total	247	100

Accident

The next criterion used was that whether the managers had industrial accidents or not. The sample was divided into two groups as, the ones who had an accident and who have not had an industrial accident. The details are given in table III. 6.

TABLE III. 6

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Accidents

Accidents	No.	Percentage
Accident (Group I)	203	82.2
Non Accident (Group II)	44	17.8
Total	247	100

Emotional Intelligence

The entire sample was tested for their EI scores keeping the median as a cut off point. The sample was divided into two groups, viz., low EI and high EI groups. The details are given in table III. 7.

TABLE III. 7

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Emotional Intelligence

EQ groups	No.	Percentage
Low EQ	124	50.2
High EQ	123	49.8
Total	247	100

Personality

The sample was divided into type A and type B personalities based on their overall scores in the personality test and based on the norms of the tests. The break up of sample on this basis is given in table III. 8.

TABLE III. 8

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Personality

Personality	No.	Percentage
Type A (Above 29)	194	78.5
Type B (20 – 28)	53	21.5
Total	247	100

Job attitudes

The sample was divided into Low Job attitudes group and High Job attitude group keeping the median score of overall Job attitudes as the cut off point. Details are shown in table III 9.

TABLE III. 9

Split of the Sample on the Basis of Overall Job Attitudes

Job Attitude	No. of Cases	Percentage
Low (Job attitude)	126	51
High (Job attitude)	121	49
Total	247	100

B. TOOLS

This section deals with the tools used for the study. Their psychometric properties are explained along with the variables they measure.

The following measures were used to measure the variables of the present study.

1. Emotional Competence Inventory (Sala, 2000).
2. Type A Behavioural pattern Scale (Robert *et al.* 1998)
3. Job Attitude Scale (Jayan & Manikandan, 2002)
4. Performance Rating Scale (Jayan & Dharmangadhan, 1995)
5. Job related/demographic variable schedule. (Jayan, 1995)

A brief description of the tools are given below

1. Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)

The ECI is a 360-degree tool designed to assess the emotional competencies of individuals and organizations. It is based on emotional competencies identified by Dr. Daniel Goleman in *working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998), and on competencies from Hay/McBer's *Generic Competency Dictionary* (1996) as well as Dr. Richard Boyatzis's Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ).

Hay/McBer's *Generic Competency Dictionary* was originated by Lyle and Signe Spencer as documented in their book *Competence at Work* (1993), and revised by psychologist David McClelland after an extensive review of the literature. It is based on over 20 years of research initiated by Dr. McClelland in 1973 with his seminal article, "Testing for competence rather than Intelligence". Hay/McBer and other researchers have established that

every core competency in the Dictionary reliably differentiates performance in a variety of organizations.

The Self-Assessment Questionnaire was initially developed by Dr. Boyatzis in 1991 for use with MBA and executive students to assess competencies in the Generic Model of Management used at the Weatherhead School of Management, Case Western Reserve University. The SAQ has shown a high degree of construct validity against a variety of behavioural and questionnaire measure. Since 1991, it has been used in numerous studies, including longitudinal research (Boyatzis, Cowen, and Kolb, 1995; Boyatzis, Leonard, Rhee, and Thompson, 1995; Boyatzis, Leonard, Rhee and Wheeler, 1996).

Expanding upon Dr. Boyatzis's well-established evaluation measure, Dr. Boyatzis and Dr. Goleman developed a pool of items designed to capture the full spectrum of emotional competencies. Items were selected from this pool based on conceptual and logical considerations. Hay/McBer consultants further refined these items to reflect developmental scaling characteristic of Hay/McBer's Generic Dictionary of Competencies. Developmental scales were designed and target levels were identified based on expert opinion and prior studies.

Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (1999) outlined the rationale for the clustering and organization of emotional intelligence competencies. This important paper presents a more detailed explanation for the development of the ECI and the theoretical structure from which it is based.

Emotional intelligence is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions effectively in ourselves and others. An emotional competency is a learned

capacity based on emotional intelligence that contributes to effective performance at work.

The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) measures 20 competencies organized into four clusters: Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Social Skill.

Self-Awareness concerns knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources, and intuitions. The Self-Awareness cluster contains three competencies.

- **Emotional Awareness:** Recognizing one's emotions and their effects.
- **Accurate Self-Assessment:** Knowing one's strengths and limits
- **Self Confidence:** A strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities.

Self-Management refers to managing one's internal states, impulses, and resources. The Self-Management cluster contains six competencies.

- **Self-Control:** Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check.
- **Trustworthiness:** Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity
- **Conscientiousness:** Taking responsibility for personal performance.
- **Adaptability:** Flexibility in handling change.
- **Achievement Orientation:** Striving to improve or meeting a standard of excellence
- **Initiative:** Readiness to act on opportunities.

Social Awareness refers to how people handle relationships and awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns. The Social Awareness cluster contains three competencies.

- **Empathy:** Sensing others' feelings and perspective, and taking an active interest in their concerns:
- **Organizational Awareness:** Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships.

- **Service Orientation:** Anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers' needs.

Social Skills concerns the skill or adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others. The Social Skills cluster contains eight competencies.

- **Developing Others:** Sensing others' development needs and bolstering their abilities.
- **Leadership:** Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups.
- **Influence:** Wielding effective tactics for persuasion.
- **Communication:** Listening openly and sending convincing messages.
- **Change Catalyst:** Initiating or managing change
- **Conflict Management:** Negotiating and resolving disagreements.
- **Building Bonds:** Nurturing instrumental relationships.
- **Teamwork & Collaboration:** Working with others toward shared goals. Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.

Reliability

Reliability generally refers to the consistency or stability of measures or observations. Essentially, if a person is measured twice on the same measure it should roughly yield the same score both times, that is, it should be reliable. For example, more than one judge (i.e. rater) might rate the behaviour of the same person or event and the correlation between those ratings would give an indication of the reliability of ratings, or observer agreement. Alternatively, correlations between ratings by the same judge at different times would provide some *indication of stability*. It might indicate the consistency of the behaviour, the consistency of the rater, or both over time (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

When assessing the reliability of survey instruments, typically two indicators are provided; test-retest reliability and internal consistency. Test-

retests reliability refers to the stability of a measure over time. For example, a survey is administered twice to the same individuals with a period of time between assessments (typically two weeks to four months), and correlations are computed to determine how stable the test is from one administration to another. Internal consistency refers to the average of the inter correlations among all the single test items. Chronbach's alpha is the most commonly used indicator of internal consistency. This procedure estimates reliability from the consistency of item responses from a single assessment..

Internal Consistency

Table 1 presents Chronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients for the ECI clusters and competencies. For total others' ratings, the alpha coefficients range from 0.73 (Trustworthiness) to 0.92 (Empathy) with an overall average internal consistency coefficient of 0.82. For self-ratings, the alpha coefficients range from 0.61 (Accurate Self-Assessment) to 0.85 (Service Orientation) with an overall average internal consistency coefficient of 0.75. These results suggest that total others' ratings are more stable and reliable than self-ratings although no statistical tests were conducted to determine whether the difference is meaningful. These findings do support our general contention that self-ratings are less reliable and consequently less valid (i.e., poor predictor of performance relative to total others ECI ratings). Research presented later in this manual presents predictive validity evidence for both self and total others ratings on the ECI. This pattern of results also suggests that total others responses may be subject to a general halo effect, commonly seen in multi-rater (i.e., 360) instruments. The tendency for raters to apply an overall impression of a person may contribute to inflated reliability estimates on total others' ratings. These results, however, indicate very good internal consistency reliability for the ECI.

TABLE III.10

**Chronbach's alpha coefficients for self
and total others ECI ratings from the Hay North
American Database. Scores based on average item scores**

ECI Cluster	Competency	Total Others Rating (N=3,931)	Self Rating (N=4,001)
		Alpha Coefficient	Alpha Coefficient
Self Awareness	Emotional Self-Awareness	.74	.81
	Accurate Self-Assessment	.83	.68
	Self-confidence	.88	.80
Self-Management	Self-Control	.89	.78
	Trustworthiness	.73	.74
	Conscientiousness	.90	.81
	Adaptability	.77	.60
	Achievement Orientation	.87	.78
	Initiative	.83	.72
Social Awareness	Empathy	.92	.81
	Organizational Awareness	.84	.75
	Service Orientation	.91	.85
Social Skills	Developing Others	.88	.77
	Leadership	.80	.69
	Influence	.83	.73
	Communication	.86	.77
	Change Catalyst	.91	.84
	Conflict Management	.86	.75
	Building Bonds	.84	.75
	Team work & Collaboration	.91	.81
ECI Clusters (N=5,354)	Self-Awareness	.76	.61
	Self-Management	.88	.79
	Social Awareness	.81	.71
	Social Skills	.96	.92

Test-Retest Reliability

Although no specific test-retest reliability studies have been conducted with the ECI, other pre-and post-assessment research provides reasonable evidence for adequate levels of test-retest reliability. A sample of 20 Brazilian executives from a large consumer retail organization was assessed twice on the ECI with seven months between assessments. This period of time is higher than what is typically recommended (Anastasi, 1982). Furthermore, between assessments, the executives participated in an EI development program; therefore results must be interpreted with caution. This data also suggests that the ECI may be sensitive to change because stability coefficients for the total others ratings were only moderately high, while stability coefficients for self-scores were very low.

TABLE III.11

Test-retest stability coefficients for Self and Total Others ECI ratings with Brazilian consumer

ECI Cluster	Competence	Total Others Rating	Self Rating
		Stability Coefficient	Stability Coefficients
Self Awareness	Emotional Self-Awareness	.55	.23
	Accurate Self-Assessment	.58	.26
	Self-confidence	.69	.33
Self-Management	Self-Control	.49	.43
	Trustworthiness	.67	.22
	Conscientiousness	.92	.56
	Adaptability	.52	.55
	Achievement Orientation	.60	.19
	Initiative	.45	.15
Social Awareness	Empathy	.62	.61
	Organizational Awareness	.82	.22
	Service Orientation	.41	.05
Social Skills	Developing Others	.75	.55
	Leadership	.56	.47
	Influence	.56	.73
	Communication	.56	.08
	Change Catalyst	.69	.35
	Conflict Management	.39	.43
	Building Bonds	.72	.44
	Team work & Collaboration	.57	.82

Validity

The validity of the psychological tests generally refers to the degree to which a measure or questionnaire actually measures what it is supposed to measure. For example, a grade in a math course might typically be thought to reflect (measure) math ability, but it might also reasonably reflect other characteristics (e.g., motivation, career goals, work ethic, parents' educational background, family income, etc.). In fact, math grades might generally relate to grades in other courses, which in turn might correlate with more psychological characteristics like self-esteem, self-efficacy, and even lack of depression. In other words, understanding the true nature of a construct can be complicated.

Two types of validity research help us address these issues: content and construct validity. Content validity addresses whether a test adequately samples the relevant material it purports to cover. This is typically done qualitatively by a team of "experts" within a field.

Alternatively, construct validity refers to the degree to which a test or questionnaire is a measure of the characteristic of interest. This type of evidence typically takes the form of discriminant and convergent validity. This simply refers to whether the test correlates with other measures that ought to be conceptually related while correlating less with those that it should not be associated. For example, the ECI ought to correlate positively with self-esteem (convergent) and negatively with depression (convergent), and not correlate with cognitive ability (discriminant).

2. *Type A Behaviour Pattern Scale*

A scale of Type A behaviour pattern was developed by Robert *et al* (1986). The scale consists of 14 items. It gives a sealing of Type A personality and also the pattern of scores of individual characteristic

contributing to the total Type A score. The measures of individual characteristics of Type a personality pattern obtained are time urgency, competitiveness, goal directedness and polyphasic behaviour.

1. ***An intense sense of time urgency*** is a tendency to race against the clock, even when there is little reason to. The person feels a need to hurry for hurry's sake alone, and this tendency has appropriately been called "hurry sickness". Time urgency is measured by items 1,2,8,12,13 and 14.

2. ***Inappropriate aggression and hostility*** reveals itself in a person who is excessively competitive and who cannot do anything for fun. This inappropriately aggressive behaviour easily evolves into frequent displays of hostility, usually at the slightest provocation or frustration. Competitiveness and hostility is measured by item; 3,4,9, and 10.

3. ***Polyphasic behaviour*** refers to the tendency to undertake two or more tasks simultaneously at inappropriate time. It usually results in wasted time due to an inability to complete the tasks. This behaviour is measured by items 6 and 11.

4. ***Goal directedness without proper planning*** refers to the tendency of an individual to rush into work without really knowing how to accomplish the desired result. This usually results in incomplete work or work with many errors, which in turn leads to wasted time, energy and money. Lack of planning is measured by items 5 and 7.

Reliability and Validity

The reliability and validity of the test is already established through many investigations and studies.

3. *Job Attitude Scale*

Attitude is a tendency to act in a certain way that keeps alternating with time and situations. These are mainly influenced by values one holds, although there is a thin line of demarcation in their distinction. Values are beliefs, whereas attitudes are feelings with a common characteristic, but both are covert. It is true that attitudes are 'inside' people so they cannot be measured directly. Indirectly these could be measured through observable physical response, verbal statements of opinions and beliefs and observation of a person's behaviour. Generally speaking how one interprets at a particular time depends upon one's attitude or frame of reference. To support it, Calder and Smith (1993) observed that a person's attitude can influence his willingness to learn. It can also prevent learning from taking place. Formed from the combination of experience, social conditioning and personality, attitude can be manifested in behaviour.

The behaviour of individuals and groups in organisation is important in achieving effective organisational performance. Job related attitudes often play significant role in shaping behaviour in organizations. A person can have thousands of attitudes but most of the researches of industrial/organisational psychology have been concerned with three organisational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1997) state that organizational commitment is "a psychological state that a) characterizes the employee's relationships with the organization, and b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization" (p. 67). Other researchers use similar definitions that refer to an employee's attachment, goal congruency, identification, loyalty and allegiance to their organization.

Researchers generally agree there are three "foci" used to classify types of organizational commitment. The three types of commitment are affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to employees' perceptions of their emotional attachment to or identification with their organization. Continuance commitment refers to employees' perceptions of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Finally, normative commitment refers to employees' perceptions of their obligation to their organizations. For instance, if an organization is loyal to the employee and has supported his/her educational efforts, the employee may report higher degrees of normative commitment. This three-pronged classification allows for identification of the underlying basis for each type of commitment.

Job Involvement

Although many attempts have been made to clarify the construct of job involvement, it is primarily the work of Kanungo, (1979, 1982) which has provided with the present sense of direction and understanding. In an attempt to remove some of the conceptual confusion and ambiguity, he restricted job involvement to the cognitive dimension of attitudes towards a job. Accordingly, job involvement should be viewed as a generalized cognitive style psychological identification with the job. Involvement in a job is primarily a function of how much the job can satisfy one's salient needs and hence in this respect, job involvement is more situationally determined. The results of other recent research studies also suggest that job involvement differs from other related constructs such as intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Shore *et al.*, 1990; Patterson and O'Driscoll, 1990; Brooke *et al.*, 1988; Dolke and Srivastara, 1998; Blau, 1985). These findings serve collectively to alleviate some of the concerns expressed by Morrow (1983) for concept redundancy, particularly among construct with focus on various forms of work related commitment.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (Spector, 1997, p. 2). This definition suggests job satisfaction is general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their job. While researchers and practitioners most often measure global job satisfaction, there is also interest in measuring different "facets" or "dimensions" of satisfaction. Examination of these facet conditions is often useful for a more careful examination of employee satisfaction with critical job factors. Traditional job satisfaction facets include: co-workers, pay, job conditions, supervision, nature of the work and benefits.

Reliability and Validity

The reliability and validity of the test has been evaluated by the method of Cronbach alpha and the alpha coefficient of each domain vary between 0.73 to 0.89 and the test-retest reliability is also found to be significant and varied from 0.63 to 0.73 respectively. Criterion validity and predictor validity of each of the domain are established.

4. Performance Rating Scale

In the performance rating scale I and II, the ratings given by the subject and the supervisors (the senior manager) were consolidated. In the performance ratings the ratings done by the subjects, coworkers and the supervisors were included. On the whole, the rating scale yielded five measures for performance as follows:

- (1) Self rating (absolute rating)
- (2) Self rating (relative rating)
- (3) Rating by coworker (absolute rating)
- (4) Rating by coworker (relative rating)

- (5) Supervisory rating
- (6) Overall performance

5. *Job Related/Demographic Variable Schedule*

Finally, age, educational qualification, experience, salary, details of trainings, details of work accidents, details of job shifting, absenteeism, details of promotions, were tallied from the background information schedule provided along with the questionnaires. Apart from this, from the company records the details of accidents, absenteeism and performance were collected.

PROCEDURE AND ADMINISTRATION

In the present study different psychological measures are used for the measurement of the different variables in the study. The tools used in the study are: (a) Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), (b) Type A Behavioural Pattern Scale (c) Job Attitude Scale (d) Performance Rating Scale Self rating and Coworker rating and (e) a background information schedule. All the above mentioned tools are pinned together and given to the subjects, with the oral instructions as to how to respond to each of the questionnaires. Meanwhile the Divisional Managers of the different departments from where the data are collected were given the supervisory rating scale to rate each of the individual subject.

Even though all the materials (tools) provided had printed information as to how to respond, the investigator thought it would be better to give oral instructions for each tests, wherever found necessary. The instructions given to the subjects are given below.

(a) Emotional Competence Inventory: There are some statements regarding your experiences and behaviours at your work place for the last 12 months. Examine how true they are regarding you, and respond by marking (putting a

O) A, B, C, D or E. Mark A if the statement is always true about you, B if most of the time, C if sometimes, D, if seldom and mark E, if the statement is never true about you. Please give answers to all the statements.

(b) Type A Behavioural Pattern Inventory

Read the statements given below; mark your answers using a tick mark (✓). Choose A if your response is Almost always, B, if your response is usually true, C, if your response is sometimes true, D, if your response is seldom true and E if your response is never true. Please try to respond to all the statements.

(c) Job Attitudes

These are some statements given regarding your experiences at work. Each statement has 5 options to answer to, viz., A, B, C, D and E. If the statement is always correct about you, put a circle (O) mark on 'A', if most of the times correct about your behaviour mark B, if sometimes mark C, if seldom mark D, and if the statement is never true about you mark E. Please try to answer all.

(d) Performance Rating Scale

Self -Rating (Performance Rating I)

This test is a little different from the tests you have already answered. After reading each statement mark your opinion by putting a circle (O) around any digits in the scale. The scale is marked from 1 (indicating the test efficiency) to 7 (indicating the highest efficiency). You are free to mark your opinion from one to seven any of the digits based on your evaluation of your efficiency, both for the absolute and comparative dimensions. The same method is to be followed for the next part of the scale also; the only difference is that you have to evaluate your coworker's efficiency.

Supervisory Rating (Performance Rating II)

The instructions given to the supervisors were the same as those given in Performance Rating Scale 1 described above. The only difference being that they are to evaluate the persons working under them.

(e) Background Information Schedule

In this part what you have to do is to fill up the blanks correctly after reading the questions. Your responses will be kept confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

The completed answer sheets along with the questionnaires were collected and the individuals who filled in the responses were personally thanked.

Scoring

The collected response sheets were scored as explained below.

The Emotional Compulsory Inventory had a 5 point response format, in which 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 marks were given for Always (A), Most of time (B), Sometimes (C), Seldom (D) and Never (E). There were no negative items. There were 110 items, the minimum possible score was 110 and the maximum possible score was 550.

For type A behavioural pattern scale, a five point scoring system was used in which 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 marks were given for responses a (Almost always true), b (usually true), c (sometimes), d (seldom true) and e (never true). The highest possible score was 70. The median was used as the cut off point to divide the sample into type A (the higher score group) and type B (the lower end group).

The job attitude also has a 5 point scoring system, for which 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 marks were given for Always (A), Most of the times (B), Sometimes (C), Seldom (D) and Never (E) respectively. For negative items the scoring was reversed. The highest possible score was 300.

Consolidation of the data

The raw scores obtained by each subject on the different variables under study along with the information collected from the background information schedule were coded and entered into an excel sheet for further statistical treatments.

D. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUE USED FOR THE STUDY

The following statistical techniques were used for the analysis of the data. Viz. Correlation, t-test, analysis of variance, multiple regression and moderator regression analysis.

Correlation

Correlation is a measure of bivariate relationship between two variables. In social science co-efficient of correlation is used as a precise estimate of the direction and degree of relationship between pairs of variables. A co-efficient of correlation is a single member, that tells us to what extent two variables are related, that is to what extent variation in one go with variation in the other (Guilford, 1982).

The value of the correlation co-efficient ranges from -1 through 0 to $+1$. Zero indicates no correlation 1 indicates perfect correlation, and the sign indicates the direction of the relationship.

Significance of 'r'

The statistical significance of coefficient of correlation has to be considered before the correlation itself is interpreted. The 'r' may be tested

against the hypothesis that the population 'r' is zero. If the 'r' for the sample is large enough to invalidate this null hypothesis, we expect 'r' as indicating the presence of at least some degree of correlation. To test this, the obtained 'r' is compared with the limits established using the standard error of 'r' (Garret, 1969). The standard error for the null hypothesis is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$. Hence, a co-efficient of correlation will be significant at 0.01 level if it exceeds $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \times 2.58$, and at 0.05 level if it exceeds $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \times 1.96$. In the present study $N = 247$ and therefore, correlation will be significant at 0.01 level if it exceeds 0.16 and at 0.05 level if it exceeds 0.12.

Interpretation of 'r'

Cohen (1988) presents the following classification for interpreting the values of Pearson 'r'.

$r = 0.10$ to 0.29 or $r = -0.10$ to -0.29 small

$r = 0.30$ to 0.49 or $r = -0.30$ to -0.49 medium

$r = 0.50$ to 1.00 or $r = -0.50$ to -1.00 large

In the present study, Pearson's product movement correlation was used to obtain the correlations of Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Performance.

The 't' test

The 't' test or the test of significance of differences between means for large independent samples is used to compare the means between any two groups on any of the variables (Garrett, 1969).

In other words, the independent samples t-test is used to test the null hypothesis that the means of two populations are the same (Landu & Everitt 2004). If the obtained t values exceed the initial value (depending on the degrees of freedom) then the difference between the two groups will be statically significant.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to uncover the main and interaction effects of categorical independent variables (called "factors") on an interval dependent variable. A main effect is the direct effect of an independent variable on the dependent variable. An "interaction effect" is the joint effect of two or more independent variables on the dependent variable. Whereas regression models cannot handle interaction unless explicit cross product interaction terms are added, ANOVA uncovers interaction effects on a built-in basis.

The key statistic in ANOVA is the F-test of difference of group means, testing if the means of the groups formed by values of the independent variable (for combinations of values for multiple independent variables) are different enough not to have occurred by chance. If the group means do not differ significantly then it is inferred that the independent variable(s) did not have an effect on the dependent variable. If the F test shows that overall the independent variable(s) is (are) related to the dependent variable, then *multiple comparison tests* of significance are used to explore just which values of the independent(s) have the most to do with the relationship.

Not than analysis of variance tests the null hypotheses that group means do not differ. It is not a test of differences in variances, but rather assumes relative homogeneity of variances. Thus some key ANOVA assumptions are that the groups formed by the independent variable(s) are relatively equal in size and have similar variances on the dependent variable ("homogeneity of variance"). Like regression, ANOVA is a parametric

procedure which assumes multivariate normality (the dependent has a normal distribution for each value category of the independent(s)).

One-way ANOVA tests differences in a single interval dependent variable among two, three, or more groups formed by the categories of a single categorical independent variable. Also known as univariate ANOVA, simple ANOVA, single classification ANOVA, or one factor ANOVA, this design deals with one independent variable and one dependent variable. It tests whether the groups formed by the categories of the independent variable seem similar (specifically that they have the same pattern of dispersion as measured by comparing estimates of group variances). If the groups seem different, then it is concluded that the independent variable has an effect on the dependent variable. One may note also that the significance level of a correlation coefficient for the correlation of an interval variable with a dichotomy will be the same as for a one-way ANOVA on the interval variable using the dichotomy as the only factor. This similarity does not extend to categorical variables with greater than two values.

Two-way ANOVA analyzes one interval dependent in terms of the categories (groups) formed by two independents, one of which may be conceived as a control variable. Two-way ANOVA tests whether the groups formed by the categories of the independent variables have similar centroids. Two-way ANOVA is less sensitive than one-way ANOVA to moderate violations of the assumption of homogeneity of variances across the groups. In SPSS, select Analyze, General Linear Model, Univariate, enter the dependent variable and the independents (factors), if you want to test interactions, click Model and select Custom, Model (Interaction) and enter interaction terms, click Plots to set plot options, click Options to set what predicted group and interaction means are desired.

Multivariate or n-way ANOVA: To generalize, n-way ANOVA deals with n independents. It should be noted that as the number of independents increases, the number of potential interactions proliferates. Two independents have a single first-order interaction (AB), Three independents have three first order interactions (AB, AC, BC) and one second order interaction (ABC), or four in all Four independents have six first-order (AB, AC, AD,BC BC,CD), three second-order (ABC, ACD, BCD), and one third-order (ABCD) interaction, or 10 in all. As the number of interactions increase, it becomes increasingly difficult to interpret the model. The MAXORDERS command in SPSS syntax allows the researcher to limit what order of interaction is computed.

Post hoc Scheffe

The t-tests compare only two distributions, whereas analysis of variance is able to compare many. One-Way ANOVA will generate a significance value indicating whether there are significant differences within the comparisons being made. This significance value does not indicate where the difference is or what the differences are, but a Scheffe test can identify which groups differ significantly from each other. Be aware that there are other tests besides Scheffe that are able to identify pair wise differences.

Simple linear regression

Simple linear regression aims to find a linear relationship between a response variable and a possible predictor variable by the method of least squares. Multiple linear regression aims at finding a linear relationship between a response variable and many possible predictor variables.

The multiple regression correlation co-efficient

A measure of the proportion of variability explained by or due to the regression (linear relationship) in a sample of paired data. It is a number between zero and one and a value close to zero suggests a poor model.

A very high value of R^2 can arise even though the relationship between the two variables is non-linear. The fit of a model should never simply be judged from the R^2 value.

Step-wise regression

A 'best' regression model is sometimes developed in stages. A list of several potential explanatory variables is available and this list is repeatedly searched for variables which should be included in procedure is known as step wise regression.

Hierarchical multiple regression: Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to find out the moderation effect of emotional intelligence and personality on job attitude –performance relationship. This analysis is similar to stepwise regression, but the researcher not the computer, determines the order of entry of the variables. F- tests are used to compute the significance of each added variable(or set of variables) to the explanation reflected in R-square. This hierarchical procedure is an alternative to comparing betas for purposes of assessing the importance of the independents. In more complex forms of hierarchical regression, the model may involve a series of intermediate variables which are dependents with respect to some other independents, but are themselves independents with respect to the ultimate dependent. Hierarchical multiple regression may then involve a series of regressions for each intermediate as well as for the ultimate dependent.

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY
AS MODERATORS OF JOB ATTITUDES AND
JOB BEHAVIOURS**

**THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN PSYCHOLOGY**

MADHU. K.B.

**UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT
KERALA**

2007

Chapter IV

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

- *Correlation Analysis*
- *Multiple Regression Analysis Job Attitudes as Dependent Variable*
- *Multiple Regression Analysis Performance as Dependent Variable*
- *t-test analysis ,personality type a and b on emotional intelligence*
- *3 way ANOVA Emotional Intelligence, Personality and Age on Job Attitudes*
- *t-Test ,Accidents on all Study Variables*
- *3 Way ANVOA ,Personality, Emotional Intelligence and Job Attitudes on Performance*
- *Emotional Intelligence and personality as moderators of Job attitude and Job performance relationship*

SECTION I

Correlation Analysis among Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitude and Performance Variables

For the entire data the inter correlation was found, and there were 36 variables all together in that 20 variables of EI and the overall EI, 4 variables of personality, 3 variables of job attitudes and overall job attitudes and 5 variables on job behaviour and overall performance.

In the total (612) correlations we have conducted there were 409 significant correlations among these variables; in that 332 of them were significant at 0.01 level, 48 of them were significant at 0.01 level and 19 of them were significant at 0.05 level (Table IV.1.1).

Emotional Intelligence Intercorrelations

In the intercorrelations among 21 EI variables (210), there were 207 significant correlations, in that 203 of the were significant at 0.001 level, 2 of them were significant at 0.01 level and 2 of them were significant at 0.05 level and there were no negative correlations, which means in the present sample no EI variable is negatively contributing to the overall EI score as well as to each other. The highest significant correlation was found between EI overall and developing others (0.88); EI (overall) and change catalyst (0.854), EI (overall) and communication (0.852), EI (overall), Empathy (0.84), EI (overall) and initiative (0.82), which means as the above mentioned EI variables increases for this sample of managers there overall EI also will be increasing or most of the managers who have high EI will be the people who are high on the qualities of developing others, change catalyst, communication, empathy and initiative.

The least significant correlation was found between building bonds and self confidence (0.15), which means the least positive relationship is between building bonds and confidence of the present sample.

Personality intercorrelations

In the intercorrelations among personality variables there were 10 significant correlations and all of them were significant at 0.001 level. There were no negative correlations. The highest correlation was found between the overall personality score and time urgency (0.88) and between the overall personality and aggression hostility (0.81) dimensions of the scale. This shows that in the present sample Type A, characteristics of the managers are more manifested through time urgency and aggression and hostility.

The least significant correlation was found between goal directed behaviour without proper planning and aggression hostility dimensions (0.304) and between goal directed behaviour and time urgency (0.307).

Job Attitudes Intercorrelations

In the inter correlations among job attitude variables, there were in total 4 significant correlations and all of them were significant at 0.001 level. There were no negative correlations. The highest relationship was found between the overall job attitude and organizational commitment (0.87) and overall job attitude and job satisfaction (0.80), and between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (0.73). The least significant relationship was between overall job attitude and job involvement (0.42).

Job Behaviours (Performance) inter correlations

In the inter correlation among job behaviours (performance) variables, there were 15 significant correlations and all of them were significant at 0.001 level there were no negative correlations.

In this intercorrelation analysis there were 15 significant correlations in that the strongest relationship was between overall performance and supervisor ratings (0.93) and the next highest was between overall performance and coworker 2 (0.92). This shows that the overall performance rating was much similar to the ratings they have got from their supervisors and then from their coworkers.

The least significant correlation was found between coworker 1 and self rating 1 (0.51).

There were no negative correlations, which indicate that the self rating, coworker ratings and the supervisory ratings were unanimous and in the same direction in most of the cases.

Correlation between EI variables and Personality domains

In the correlation between 21 EI variables and 5 personality domains there were 60 relevant correlations, in that 37 of them were significant at 0.001 level and 12 and 11 of them were significant at 0.01 and 0.05 levels respectively. There were 5 negative correlations.

In the correlation analysis between EI variables and personality domain, the overall score of personality was highly correlated with organizational awareness (0.32) and also aggression hostility dimension of personality was highly correlated with the influence variable of EI (0.36), which means, the type A persons will have more organizational awareness, and also the results imply that people who are high on aggression and hostility will have more influence in the group.

The other relevant correlations among these variables are: time urgency is positively related to EI total (0.25), team work (0.30), developing others (0.25), service orientation (0.21), organizational awareness (0.31),

empathy (0.27), initiative (0.22), achievement orientation (0.22), adaptability (0.30), self control (0.26), self confidence (0.32) at 0.001 level and emotional self awareness (0.20) change catalyst (0.17) at 0.01 level and communication (0.160) at 0.05 levels of significance. This analysis reveals a very interesting fact about the population that the personality trait time urgency is very closely correlated with social and motivational competencies which are very essential for playing a leadership (as well for a good team player) role in an organization.

Aggression hostility is positively related to, EI total (0.22), team work (0.22), conflict management (0.25), influence (0.36), service orientation (0.25), organizational awareness (0.26) at 0.01 levels, and initiative (0.21), leadership (0.19), change catalyst (0.19) at 0.01 level and self confidence (0.16), adaptability (0.15), empathy (0.16) at 0.05 levels of significance.

Goal directed behaviour, without proper planning, is positively related to conflict management (0.28), influence (0.27), self confidence (0.27), empathy (0.21), at 0.001 level and with self awareness (0.20), service orientation (0.20), EI Total (0.19) at 0.01 level and initiative (0.16), leadership (0.16), service orientation (0.15) and communication (0.15) at 0.05 level.

Polyphasic behaviour is positively related to; influence (0.33) and conflict management (0.30) at 0.001 level, and with service orientation (0.16) at 0.05 level. And negatively related to self control (-0.28), conscientiousness (-.24), and achievement orientation (-.20) at 0.001 level and self assessment (-.20) at 0.01 level and with building bonds (-.15) at 0.05 level.

The overall personality score is positively related to; Organizational Awareness (0.32), influence (0.30), self confidence (0.25), adaptability (0.25), service orientation (0.25), team work (25), overall EI (0.25), empathy (0.245),

initiative (0.24), developing others (0.24), conflict management (0.23) at 0.001 level and change catalyst (0.20), leadership (0.18), self awareness (0.17) at 0.01 level and communication (0.16) at 0.05 level.

The least significant correlation was found between aggression hostility and adaptability aspect of EI (0.147).

Also there were some significant negative correlations among these variables, that is polyphasic behaviour is negatively correlated with following EI variables, self control (-0.20) and conscientiousness (-0.24) and achievement orientation (-0.20) and building bonds (-0.15).

Correlation between EI variables and Job attitude variables

In the correlation analysis carried out between EI variables and the Job attitude variables there were 29 significant correlations, in that 18 of them were at 0.01 levels, 8 of them were at 0.01 level and 3 of them were at 0.05 levels. There were 3 negative correlations.

In the correlation analysis of EI variables and job attitude variables it was found that the highest correlation was between the overall job attitude score and leadership (0.30), and at the same time leadership also highly correlates with one of the job attitudes that is job involvement (0.29) i.e., the managers who showed high leadership qualities also showed a high amount of job involvement and overall job attitude as well.

The least significant correlation was between job satisfaction and developing others (0.15) and job involvement and change catalyst (0.15).

Organizational commitment is positively correlated with accurate self assessment (0.24), initiative (0.21), developing others (0.22), leadership (0.23), change catalyst (0.23), team building (0.22) and overall EI (0.18) at 0.001 level and with influence (0.17) at 0.01 level.

Job involvement is positively associated with organizational awareness (0.24), leadership (0.29), influence (0.44), conflict management (0.50) at 0.001 level and change catalyst at 0.05 level.

Job involvement is negatively correlated with, accurate self assessment (-0.21) at 0.001 level, emotional self awareness (-0.16) at 0.01 level and conscientiousness (-0.17) at 0.05 level. Which makes it clear that in this sample of managers as accurate self-assessment, emotional self awareness and conscientiousness increases, job involvement will decrease.

Job satisfaction, there is a positive relationship between accurate self assessment (0.24), team work (0.22) at 0.001 level, self control (0.17) at 0.01 level, and developing others (0.15) at 0.05 level.

Job attitude total is positively related to developing others (0.22), leadership (0.33), influence (0.25), change catalyst (0.25) and conflict management (0.27) at 0.001 level and EI total (0.16), team work (0.19), organizational awareness (0.17), initiative (0.16) at 0.01 level.

Correlation between EI variables and Performance

In the correlation analysis between EI variables and performance variables, there were 65 relevant correlations, among them 42 of them were at 0.001 levels, 18 of them were at 0.01 level and 5 of them were at 0.05 levels. There were no negative correlations.

In the correlation analysis between EI variables and performance, there was a very high correlation between conscientiousness and coworker rating 2 (0.75) and conscientiousness and supervisory rating (0.82), which clearly means that, the more conscientiousness the employee is the more likely that the coworker and the supervisor will perceive him to be a good performer.

There are many studies which substantiate the positive relationship between high EI and performance.

At L'Oreal, sales agents selected on the basis of certain emotional competencies significantly outsold salespeople selected using the company's old selection procedure. On an annual basis, salespeople selected on the basis of emotional competence sold \$91,370 more than other salespeople did, for a net revenue increase of \$2,558,360. Salespeople selected on the basis of emotional competence also had 63% fewer turnovers during the first year than those selected in the typical way (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Spencer, McClelland, & Kelner, 1997).

In jobs of medium complexity (sales, clerks, mechanics), a top performer is 12 times more productive than those at the bottom and 85 percent more productive than an average performer. In the most complex job (insurance salespeople, accounts managers) a top performer is 127 percent more productive than an average performer (Hunter, Schmidt, & Judiesch, 1990). Competence research in over 200 companies and organizations worldwide suggests that about one-third of this difference is due to technical skill and cognitive ability while two-thirds is due to emotional competence (Goleman, 1998).

An analysis of more than 300 top-level executives from fifteen global companies showed that six emotional competencies distinguished stars from the average; influence, Team Leadership, Organizational Awareness, Self-confidence, Achievement Drive, and Leadership (Spencer Jr., 1997).

Experienced partners in a multinational consulting firm were assessed on the EI competencies plus three others. Partners who scored above the median on 9 or more of the 20 competencies delivered \$ 1.2 million more

profit from their account than did other partners – a 139 percent increment gain (Boyatzis, 1999).

The least significant correlation was found between supervisory rating and team work variable (0.15), supervisory rating and coworker 2; and finally between the supervisory rating and overall EI score.

There were also some negative correlations found, there was significant negative relationship between coworker rating 1 and influence (-0.23), that means the coworker 1 tends to perceive people high on the factor influence to be less performing.

Self rating 1, was found to be positively related to accurate self assessment (0.21), leadership (0.22) at 0.001 level and conscientiousness (0.18), adaptability (0.18), empathy (0.2), service orientation (0.19), change catalyst (0.20) at 0.01 level and developing others (0.15), self confidence (0.16) at 0.05 level.

Self rating 2 was positively related to, emotional self-awareness (0.29), accurate self assessment (0.35), self confidence (0.34), self control (0.21), consciousness (0.22), adaptability (0.40), initiative (0.21), empathy (0.31), service orientation (0.21), developing others (0.39), leadership (0.22), communication (0.24), change catalyst (0.31), overall EI (0.30) at 0.001 level and team building (0.20) at 0.01 level.

Co-worker 1, found be positively correlated with, developing others (0.25), adaptability (0.25) at 0.001 level, and emotional self awareness (0.19), self confidence (0.20), self control (0.18) at 0.01 level and negatively correlated to influence (-0.235) at 0.01 level.

Coworker 2, positively related to emotional self awareness (0.24), self confidence (0.24), conscientiousness (0.75), adaptability (0.30), empathy

(0.20), developing others (0.28), communication (0.22) at 0.001 level, accurate self-assessment (0.20) at 0.01 level, and EI total (0.15) at 0.05 level.

Supervisor rating was positively associated with emotional self-awareness (0.28), accurate self assessment (0.27), self confidence (0.26), self control (0.22), conscientiousness (0.82), adaptability (0.32), empathy (0.27), developing others (0.31) and communication (0.24) at 0.001 level, and EI total (0.29), change catalyst (0.20), service orientation (0.19) at 0.01 level and team building (0.15) at 0.05 level.

Overall performance was positively correlated with emotional self awareness (0.25), accurate self assessment (0.26), self confidence (0.27), adaptability (0.33), empathy (0.25), developing others (0.32), communication (0.21) at 0.001 level and self control (0.18), conscientiousness (0.19), service orientation (0.17), change catalyst (0.20) and EI total (0.19).

Correlation between Personality domains and Job Attitudes

In the correlation analysis between personality domains and job attitude variables there were 10 significant correlations in that 5 of them were significant at 0.01 level, 4 of them were significant at 0.01 level and one was significant at 0.05 level. There were two significant negative correlations.

In the analysis of correlation relationship between these variables it was found that the highest correlation was between job involvement and the two dimensions of personality, namely polyphasic behaviour (0.55) and aggression hostility (0.47).

The least significant correlation was found between the overall score of personality and overall score of job attitude (0.15).

There were some negative correlations as well. Job satisfaction is significant at 5% level negatively related to aggression hostility (-0.18) and

again the job satisfaction is negatively related to goal directed behaviour without proper planning (-0.17).

Job involvement is positively related to, time urgency (0.27), aggression hostility (0.47), goal directed behaviour, without proper planning (0.26), polyphasic behaviour (0.55), and total personality (0.46) at 0.001 level.

Overall job attitudes, is positively related to time urgency (0.16), polyphasic behaviour (0.18) at 0.01 level and personality total (0.15) at 0.05 level.

Correlation between personality domains and Performance

In the correlation among the 4 personality domain and overall personality score and 6 performance variables there were 5 relevant correlations, and none of them were significant at 0.01 level, 3 of them were significant at 0.01 level and 2 of them were significant at 0.05 level. There were 3 significant negative correlations.

In this analysis there are both negative and positive significant correlations among these variables. There is positive relationship between aggression hostility and self rating 2 (0.16) and there is negative relationship between self rating 1, and goal directed behaviour, without proper planning (-0.18), and polyphasic behaviour (-0.16).

Self-rating 1 is negatively related to goal directed behaviour, without proper planning (-0.18), polyphasic behaviour (-0.16) at 0.01 level.

Self-rating 2, related positively to aggression hostility (0.16) at 0.01 level, time urgency (0.16) at 0.05 level.

Coworker 2, there were, significant negative correlation between goal directed behaviour, without proper planning (-0.15) at 0.05 level.

Correlation between Job Attitudes and Performance

In the correlation analysis between the job attitude variables and performance variables there were 3 significant correlations, and all of them were significant at 0.001 level. They are between Self-rating 2 and the organizational variables, namely organizational commitment (0.15), job involvement (0.15) and the overall job attitudes (0.16).

Self-rating 2 positively related to over all job attitude (0.16), organizational commitment (0.15), and job involvement (0.15) at 0.05 levels.

The different correlation analysis done here shows the relationship among the different variables (EI, Personality, Job Attitude and Job Behaviour) used in the study. Among the inter correlations there were no significant negative correlations which signifies the internal consistency of the different tests used in the study. In the case of the correlations among the different variables most of them were found to be positively correlated. But there are some very significant negative correlation relationships among some of the variables. Some of the very crucial negative relationships are between (i) EI and Job Attitudes: that is Job involvement was negatively correlated with accurate self-assessment, emotional self awareness and consciousness. (ii) Personality and Job attitude: Job satisfaction was negatively related aggression hostility and goal directed behaviour without proper planning. (iii) Personality and performance: Both self rating I and II were negatively related to aggression hostility and polyphasic behaviour, which means Type B personality is positively related to self rating I and II.

All these negative relationships along with the other positive relationship will be further analysed and described using appropriate statistical technique.

SECTION II

Multiple Regression Analysis Job Attitudes as Dependent Variable

This part of the analysis was done to find out the predictor variables which may best predict Job Attitudes of managers. Keeping EI variables (20) and Personality variables (4) as independent variables and Job attitudes as dependent variables.

The stepwise regression analysis was done not only to select the set of variables that best predict Job Attitudes but also to eliminate superfluous predictor variables. The summary of the regression (step wise) analysis is shown in table (IV.II.1).

From the table (IV.II.1), it can be seen that the first variable entered into the multiple regression analysis was factor EI17 (change catalyst). The multiple criterion (R) obtained was 0.376. The relationship was positive as indicated by the positive value of 'b', the partial regression coefficient. This shows that higher the score on factor EI17 (change catalyst), the higher the Job attitude and vice versa. R value indicated the strength of relationship between Job attitude and the variable change catalyst was about 37.6 percent. It could also be observed from the table that R was significant at 0.01 level ($F = 40.44$, for 1, 245 df). The coefficient of multiple correlation (R^2) was 0.141. This shows that 14 percent of the variance in Job attitudes was accounted for by factor change catalyst of EI.

TABLE IV.II.1

Multiple Regression Analysis (step wise) Job Attitude as dependent variable.

Independent Variable		Multiple Regression R	F value for R	R ²	SE for R	Partial Regression coefficient 'b'	Constant	Beta coefficient B
Change Catalyst	EI17	0.376	40.44 (1,245)	0.141	16.33	1.900 (EI17)	123.77	0.376
Empathy	EI10	0.47	35.26 (2,244)	0.224	15.55	3.06 (EI17) -1.62 (EI10)	132.29	0.606 -0.367
Leadership	EI14	0.53	31.66 (3,243)	0.28	15.00	2.09 (EI17) -1.99 (EI10) 2.87 (EI14)	124.93	0.414 -0.45 0.3477
Building bonds	EI19	0.589	32.2 (4,242)	0.347	14.32	2.2 (EI17) -1.71 (EI10) 4.12 (EI14) -2.86 (EI19)	136.28	0.438 -0.388 0.498 -0.334
Initiative	EI9	0.618	29.8 (5,241)	0.382	13.96	1.36 (EI17) -2.17 (EI10) 4.39 (EI14) -2.74 (EI19) 1.29 (EI9)	138.2	2.7 -0.49 0.53 -0.32 0.28
Team work	EI20	0.636	27.2 (6,240)	0.405	13.73	0.722 (EI17) -2.39 (EI10) 4.2 (EI14) -3.02 (EI19) 1.15 (EI9) 1.23 (EI20)	132.8	0.143 -0.543 0.507 -0.353 0.256 0.270
Change catalyst (Removed on step)	EI17	0.63	32.10 (7,239)	0.399	13.77	-2.40 (EI10) 4.56 (EI14) -3.02 (EI14) 1.35 (EI9) 1.49 (EI20)	132.98	-0.545 0.55 -0.35 0.30 0.32

Communication	EI16	0.655	30.15 (8,238)	0.429	13.44	-1.9 (EI10) 4.55 (EI14) -2.76 (EI19) 1.67 (EI9) 2.01 (EI20) -1.69 (EI16)	130.49	-0.433 0.55 -0.323 0.37 0.44 -0.327
Adaptability	EI7	0.669	27.69 (9,237)	0.447	13.26	-2.367 (EI11) 4.34 (EI14) -2.62 (EI19) 1.62 (EI9) 2.04 (EI20) -1.93 (EI16) 1.18 (EI7)	128.92	-0.537 0.524 -0.307 0.36 0.449 -0.37 0.2027
Polyphasic behaviour	Per 4	0.678	25.34 (10,236)	0.46	13.14	-2.30 (EI10) 4.09 (EI14) -2.49 (EI19) 1.53 (EI9) 2.17 (EI20) -1.916 (EI16) 1.13 (EI7) 1.33 (Per 4)	121.68	-0.523 0.495 -0.291 0.34 0.477 -0.37 0.193 0.1140
Self assessment	EI2	0.688	23.67 (11,235)	0.47	13.00	-2.317 (EI10) 3.89 (EI14) -2.43 (EI19) 1.44 (EI9) 1.95 (EI20) -2.117 (EI16) 1.14 (EI7) 1.67 (Per 4) 0.89 (EI2)	116.57	-0.525 0.47 -0.28 0.321 0.43 -0.408 0.194 0.143 0.162

*Significant at 0.05 level; ** Significant at 0.01 level; ***Significant at 0.001 level.

The partial regression coefficient 'b' was 1.900. This value indicates that Job attitude changed 1.9 units for every units of change in factor change catalyst (EI).

Regression equation for this will be:

$$JA = 123.77 + 1.900 (EI 17).$$

This result suggests that in the present organisational scenario, to have a high job attitude, the prime quality one has to have is the ability to initiate organisational change. As change is inevitable in the present world of globalisation people who are ready to identify, accept and initiate change in the organisations will have a high level of Job attitude (i.e., Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Job Involvement).

The second factor entered into the step wise regression analysis was EI10 (Empathy). The multiple correlation (R) was 0.47 and it was significant at 0.001 level ($F = 35.26$, for 2 and 244 df). The strength of relationship between Job attitudes and Empathy and change catalyst put together is 47%.

The R^2 value for this step is 0.224, which means empathy and change catalyst variables of EI put together contributes for around 22.4% of variation in Job Attitudes.

The partial regression coefficient value of these two independent variables to Job Attitudes shows that, the relationship between Empathy and Job attitude is negative; that means for every unit addition of empathy there will be 1.62 unit decrement in the value of Job Attitudes; the partial regression coefficient further shows that for every unit of change of EI17 and EI10 there will be 3.06 and 1.62 unit changes in the value of Job Attitude.

The regression equation at this step will be:

$$JA = 132.29 + 3.60 (EI 17) - 1.62 (EI 10).$$

The third factor entered the equation in terms of contribution to the dependent variable was EI14 (leadership), the value of R was 0.53, significant at 0.01 level ($F = 31.66$, for 3, 243 df). The addition of EI14 has increased the strength of relationship between independent variables (EI17, EI10 and EI14) to Job Attitudes to 53%.

The R^2 (0.28) value indicates that the total variance contributed by these variables for JA is 28%.

The partial regression coefficient value (b) indicates the contribution of each of these independent variables to the dependent variable. For every unit of change in EI17, EI10 and EI14 respectively there will be 2.07, -1.99 and 2.87 units change in JA.

The equation for this step is:

$$JA = 124.93 + 2.09 (EI17) - 1.99 (EI10) + 2.87 (EI14).$$

Leadership is the third best predictor of Job Attitudes. The leaders of any group are supposed to have the highest level of positive job attitudes, because they have the blue print of the future of the organisation in their minds and they have fewer uncertainties regarding the future course of actions.

The fourth important factor that predicts Job Attitudes, is EI 19 (building bonds) with a multiple regression correlation value of 0.589, significant at 0.001 level ($F = 32.2$, for 4, 242 df).

The R^2 (0.347) value suggests that the four independent variables put together will contribute for 34.7% variation in the dependent variable.

The partial regression coefficient (b) gives us an idea about the contribution each of these variables makes to Job attitude. According to the b value for every unit change in EI17, EI10, EI14 and EI19, there will be 2.2, -1.71, 4.12 and -2.86 unit changes in Job attitude.

The contribution of Building bonds is negative as you can see from the 'b' value, that means as Building bonds increases the value of JA decreases.

The equation at this step will be:

$$JA = 136.28 + 2.2 (EI17) - 1.71 (EI10) + 4.12 (EI14) - 2.86 (EI19).$$

The next important variable entered was EI9 (initiative). The multiple correlation (R) obtained was 0.618, the value was significant at 0.01 level (F = 29.8, for 5 and 241 df).

The value of R^2 (0.382) signifies that there will be 38.2% of variation in JA which accounted for by these five independent variables together.

The partial regression coefficient (b) values show the degrees of contribution by each of the independent variables at this step to the dependent variable. There will be 1.36, -2.17, 4.39, -2.74 and 1.29 units of change in the Job attitudes for every unit of change in EI17, EI10, EI14, EI19 and EI9 respectively.

The equation at this stage will be:

$$JA = 138.2 + 1.36 (EI17) - 2.17 (EI10) + 4.39 (EI14) - 2.74 (EI19) + 1.29 (EI9).$$

Initiative is the only personal competency that has been found capable of predicting the Job attitudes so far among the EI variables initiative is motivational component which is a readiness to act on opportunities, optimism, persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and set backs in any

social and organisational situation these personal competency is a handy skill which will enhance the chance of success in such situations.

The sixth most significant variable entered was EI20 (Team work). The R value was significant at 0.001 level ($F = 27.2$, for 6 and 240 df).

The value of R^2 (0.405) shows that there will be 40% variance in JA which will be the result of the combined influence of EI17, EI10, EI14, EI19, EI9 and EI20.

The partial regression coefficient (b) values are 0.722, -2.39, 4.2, -3.02, 1.15 and 1.32 for EI17, EI10, EI14, EI19, EI9 and EI20 respectively which is an account of change contributed to JA by each of these independent variables for a unit change in each of them.

The equation at this stage will be

$$JA = 132.8 + 0.722 (EI17) - 2.39 (EI10) + 4.2 (EI14) - 3.02 (EI19) + 1.15 (EI9) + 1.23 (EI20).$$

Team work and collaboration is another relationship management skill, which is a predictor of job attitudes, it is the ability to work with others towards a shared goal, and this ability helps in team work and in creating group synergy in pursuing a common goal.

Change catalyst was entered as the 7th variable and it was removed on step value.

The eighth variable entered was communication (EI 16) the R value was 0.655, which was significant at 0.001 level ($F = 30.15$, for 8 and 238 df). The strength of relationship between overall job attitude and the independent variables put together will be 65.5%, from the value of R.

The value of R^2 was 0.429, which means 42.9% variance can be predicted on Overall Job attitudes by all the eight independent variables put together. The regression equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Job Attitude} = 130.49 - 1.9 (\text{EI10}) + 4.55 (\text{EI14}) - 2.76 (\text{EI19}) + 1.67 (\text{EI9}) + 2.01 (\text{EI20}) - 1.69 (\text{EI16}).$$

Communication skills of the manager have a predictive relationship to the overall job attitude. As Job attitude is a subjective variable the communication skill of the person can have an impact and influence on the job attitudes.

But in the present analysis from the 'b' value at this step it can be seen that there is a negative relationship between communication and job attitudes. From the regression it is clear that for every unit increment of communication there will be 1.69 units decrement in overall Job Attitude. It may be assumed that people with high communication ability may have less positive attitude towards the job and organisation.

The 9th predictor of job attitude is the adaptability variable of emotional intelligence. The R value was 0.669 significant at 0.001 level ($F = 27.69$, for 7 and 237df). The strength of relationship between overall job attitude and the nine independent variables put together will be 66.9% from the value of R.

All the nine variables entered so far can predict 44.7% of variance on Job attitudes, as the value of R^2 is 0.447. The regression equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Job Attitude} = 128.92 - 2.37 (\text{EI11}) + 4.34 (\text{EI40}) - 2.62 (\text{EI19}) + 1.62 (\text{EI9}) + 2.04 (\text{EI20}) - 1.93 (\text{EI6}) + 1.18 (\text{EI7}).$$

Job attitude reflects the sum total of the attitude an employee has towards the job and the organisation. This will be definitely influenced by the personal competence of adaptability of the employee. The more adaptable the employee is the better it can predict the possibility of a high job attitude.

Similar trends can be observed from the 'b' value at this stage. i.e., for every unit of adaptability there will be 1.18 units increase in the Job Attitudes.

Polyphasic behaviour variable of personality was the tenth predictor of Job attitude in this analysis. The R value was 0.678 significant at 0.001 level ($F = 25.34$, for 10, and 236 df). The strength of relationship between Job attitude and the ten independent variables entered so far will be 67.8% as the value of R is 0.678.

The value of R^2 is 0.46, which means 46% of variance can be predicted on job attitudes by all the 10 variables entered so far.

The regression equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Job attitude} = 121.68 - 2.30 (\text{EI10}) + 4.09 (\text{EI14}) - 2.49 (\text{EI19}) + 1.53 (\text{EI9}) + 2.17 (\text{EI20}) - 1.916 (\text{EI16}) + 1.13 (\text{EI7}) + 1.33 (\text{Per 4}).$$

Polyphasic behaviour is an integral part of Type A personality behavioural pattern. The individual may take up many tasks at a time, but this need not always lead to any kind of negative influence on Job Attitudes, rather it may be a sign of the tendency (which reflects the attitudes) to get involved in the organizational activities.

The eleventh variable entered on stepwise regression analysis as predictor of Job attitude was self assessment variable of emotional intelligence. The R value was found to be 0.688 significant at 0.001 level ($F = 23.67$, for 11 and 235df). The strength of relationship between overall Job

attitudes and the 11 predictor variables entered so far will be 68.8% from the value of R.

As the value of R^2 was 0.47, 47% of variance can be predicted on overall job attitude by all these 11 variables put together. The regression equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Job Attitude} = 116.57 - 2.317 (\text{EI10}) + 3.89 (\text{EI14}) - 2.43 (\text{EI19}) + 1.44 (\text{EI9}) + 1.95 (\text{EI20}) - 2.117 (\text{EI16}) + 1.14 (\text{EI7}) + 1.67 (\text{Per 4}) + 0.89 (\text{EI2}).$$

The 'b' value indicates that for every unit increment of the variable self assessment there will be 0.89 unit increment in Job attitude.

Self assessment is ability to assess one strengths and weaknesses. This quality will always help the employee to strike a healthy relationship with the organisation and develop values and attitudes which are helpful for the organisation and the employee.

The present analysis has substantiated that among the independent variables used, the most predictive (influential) variables for job attitudes are the EI variables of change catalyst, Empathy, Leadership, Building Bonds, Initiation, Team work. Interestingly enough among these EI variables all of them except initiative are "Relationship management skills", which means, the job attitude depends essentially on, or can be predicted using the relationship, management skills or social completing and the initiative of the managers.

The influence of emotional intelligence on Job attitudes and job behaviours well established. Studies have link co-worker relationships to Job Satisfaction organizational commitment, absenteeism and burnout (Leiter 1988; Leiter and Maslach 1988). The quality of interaction also affects communication effectiveness, perception of equity and competitive behaviour

(Vecchio and Logan, 1989; Turban and Jones, 1988) perception of equity and better communication which is result of higher EI may lead to a more positive attitudes towards to Job and the organization along with the general satisfaction to bring to the individual, it helps the individual to recognizes and regulates their own and others emotions.

From the final regression equation it can be seen that among the different predictor variables of EI, change catalyst, leadership, initiative team work adaptability, polyphasic behaviour (of personality) and accurate self assessment have a positive impact on the overall job attitudes of the individual; whereas empathy, building bonds and communication have a negative impact over the overall job attitudes of the individual.

Multiple Regression Analysis (Step wise) for Dependent Variable Organizational Commitment

In this analysis the dependent variable is Organisational Commitment; and 4 personality variables and 20 EI variables are considered as independent variables, stepwise regression analysis was carried out to find out maximum possible variance in organisational commitment that can be explained with the help of each of the independent variables. The summary of the multiple regression analysis is given in table (IV.II.2).

The first variable entered in the table was EI 17 (change catalyst), that is the most important variable in the prediction of organisational commitment (Att 1). The multiple regression value (R) for this variable is 0.38 (and the value was significant at 0.01 level ($F = 42.11$, for 1 and 245 df). The R signifies the strength of the interaction between dependent variable and independent variable and it is 38% at this stage.

TABLE IV.II.2

Multiple Regression Analysis (Step wise) Organisational Commitment as dependent variable.

	Independent Variable	Multiple Regression R	F value for R	R ²	SE for R	Partial Regression coefficient 'b'	Constant	Beta coefficient B
Change catalyst	EI 17	0.38	42.11 ^{***}	0.146	6.69	0.79 (EI 17)	41.83	0.383
Empathy	EI 10	0.432	28.01 ^{**}	0.186	6.54	1.127 (EI 17) -0.46 (EI 10)	44.27	0.54 -0.256
Initiative	EI 9	0.468	22.77 ^{**}	0.219	6.42	0.838 (EI 17) -0.6238 (EI 10) 0.508 (EI 9)	45.56	0.4041 -0.344 0.2739
Leadership	EI 14	0.5056	20.78 [*]	0.2556	6.29	0.47 (EI 17) -0.77 (EI 10) 0.58 (EI 9) 0.95 (EI 14)	43.31	0.228 -0.425 0.314 0.28
Building bonds	EI 19	0.535	19.39 [*]	0.286	6.169	0.5278 (EI 17) -0.6817 (EI 10) 0.555 (EI 9) 1.299 (EI 14) -0.809 (EI 19)	46.46	0.254 -0.376 0.299 0.38 -0.229
Aggression/ Hostility	Per 2	0.556	17.94 [*]	0.3096	6.08	0.485 (EI 17) -0.686 (EI 10) 0.57 (EI 9) 1.49 (EI 14) -0.85 (EI 19) -0.328 (Per 2)	48.42	0.23 -0.378 0.307 0.435 -0.241 -0.155
Time Urgency	Per 1	0.5676	16.23 ^{**}	0.322	6.04	0.464 (EI 17) -0.75 (EI 10) 0.57 (EI 9) 1.53 (EI 14) -0.75 (EI 19) -0.490 (Per 2) 0.198 (Per 1)	46.3	0.22 -0.414 0.307 0.45 -0.214 -0.23 0.139

Communication	EI 16	0.579	15.028 ^{***}	0.335	5.99	0.511 (EI 17) -0.60 (EI 10) 0.67 (EI 9) 1.58 (EI 14) -0.647 (EI 19) -0.518 (Per 2) 0.214 (Per 1) -0.435 (EI 16)	46.33	0.246 -0.333 0.36 0.46 -0.18 -0.245 0.15 -0.204
Teamwork	EI 20	0.5913	14.10 ^{**}	0.349	5.9	0.305 (EI 17) -0.607 (EI 16) 0.66 (EI 9) 1.51 (EI 14) -0.73 (EI 19) -0.479 (Per 2) 0.1597 (Per 1) -0.606 (EI 16) 0.44 (EI 20)	44.74	0.147 -0.335 0.358 0.4449 -0.209 -0.226 0.1127 -0.284 0.237
Change catalyst	EI 17	0.586	15.609 ^{***}	0.344	5.95	-0.604 (EI 10) 0.752 (EI 9) 1.666 (EI 14) -0.74 (EI 19) -0.48 (Per 2) 0.150 (Per 1) -0.62 (EI 16) 0.56 (EI 20)	45.27	-0.333 0.405 0.489 -0.211 -0.228 0.106 -0.29 0.300
	Per 1	0.58	17.38 ^{***}	0.337	5.97	-0.566 (EI 10) 0.738 (EI 9) 1.6 (EI 14) -0.832 (EI 19) -0.359 (Per 2) -0.628 (EI 16) 0.631 (EI 20)	46.45	-0.312 0.39 0.47 -0.236 -0.170 -0.29 0.337

* significant at 0.05 level, ** significant at 0.01 level, *** significant at 0.001 level

The value of R^2 (0.1460) proves that 14.6% of variance in organisational commitment can be contributed by the variable change catalysts.

The partial regression coefficient (b), shows that for a unit increment in EI 17 there will be 0.79 unit increment in organisational commitment.

The equation for this will be:

$$\text{Organisational commitment} = 41.83 + 0.79 (\text{EI } 17).$$

Change catalyst is the first and the best predictor of organisational commitment, as we know organisational commitment is the employee's psychological attachment to the organisation. In the present scenario of globalisation, what stands between organisational commitment of an employee and his psychological detachment to the organisation is the readiness of the employee to accept the inevitable organisational changes. Hence to the extent one can have the ability to function as a change catalyst the organisational commitment will increase.

The second most significant variable in the analysis was EI 10 (empathy), with the R value 0.432 significant at 0.01 level ($F = 28.01$, for 2 and 244 df). The strength of the interaction between the two independent variables put together to the dependent variable is 43.2%.

The value of R^2 (0.186) predicts the variance accounted for by EI 17 and EI 10 together to organisational commitment to be 18.6% percent.

The proportion of contribution to the dependent variable by these independent variables is shown by the value of 'b' i.e., for every unit change in EI 17 and EI 10, respectively, there will be 1.127 and -0.46 unit change in organisational commitment. The 'b' value of EI 10 is negative which says for

every unit of increment in Empathy there will be 0.46 unit decrement in organisational commitment.

The equation at this point will be:

$$\text{Org. Commitment} = 44.27 + 1.127 (\text{EI } 17) - 0.46 (\text{EI } 10).$$

Empathy is the ability to think from some one else point of view. The presence of empathy will predict a high amount of normative commitment (obligation to the organisation for what they have done for him/or what they might expect from him), which an integral part of organisational commitment, but in the present analysis empathy has a negative influence on organisational commitment which may be a result of the prevailing organisational atmosphere.

The third factor entered in the analysis was EI 9 (initiative), the R value was 0.468, significant at 0.01 level ($F = 22.77$, for 3, and 243 df).

The value of R^2 (0.219) shows the percentage of variance contributed to organisational commitment by the three independent variables (EI 17, EI 10 and EI 9) is 21.9%.

The values of 'b' show the degrees to which each variable contributes to the organisational commitment. For every unit of change in EI 17, EI 10 and EI 9 there will be 0.838, -0.623 and 0.508 units respectively, change in the dependent variable.

The regression equation at this stage will be :

$$\text{Organisational Commitment} = 45.56 + 0.838 (\text{EI } 17) - 0.623 (\text{EI } 10) + 0.508 (\text{EI } 9).$$

The 'b' value of EI 9 shows that, as initiative increases the value of dependent variable also increases and vice versa.

Initiative is a component of EI which is related to the motivation to act in a particular direction, which can very much predict the affective commitment of the employees, i.e. emotional attachment to the organisation because he/she likes the job.

The fourth most significant contributing variable that was entered to the table was EI 14 (Leadership). The multiple regression value (R) was 0.5056, which was significant at 0.01 level ($F = 20.78$, for 4 and 242 df). The value of R shows that the strength of interaction between the four independent variables together on the dependent variable was 50.56%.

The value of R^2 was shown as 0.2556 which means the percentage of variance contributed by the four independent variables together to the organisational commitment is 25.56%.

The 'b' values shows that for every unit of change in EI 17, EI 10, EI 9 and EI 14, there will be 0.47, -0.77, 0.58 and 0.95 unit change in the dependent variable.

The equation at this stage will be:

Organisational commitment = $43.31 + 0.47 (EI 17) - 0.77 (EI 10) + 0.58 (EI 9) + 0.95 (EI 14)$.

Leadership is a component of emotional intelligence which definitely is connected to a commitment, to the goals, causes and to the organisation, so, the higher the leadership qualities some one has the better predictor that will be of his organisational commitment.

The fifth factor that is contributing to organizational commitment was EI 19 (Building Bonds), with an R value of 0.535 which was significant at 0.001 ($F = 19.39$, for 5 and 241 df). This means the strength of relationship

between the Dependent variable and all the five Dependent variable entered including addition of EI 19, is 53.5%.

R^2 is equal to 0.286, hence the percentage of variance accounted for by the independent variables entered so far (i.e., EI 17, EI 10, EI 9, EI 14 and EI 19) is 28.6%.

The partial regression coefficient (b) values predicts that for every unit of change in EI 17, EI 10, EI 9, EI 14 and EI 19 there will be 0.527, -0.68, 0.55, 1.29 and -0.809 units change respectively in organisational commitment.

The 'b' value of EI 14 entered to negative which means, as the variable Building bonds increases the value of organisational commitment will decrease in the proportion mentioned in the regression equation.

The regression equation at this stage will be:

Organisational commitment = 46.46 + 0.427 (EI 17) – 0.68 (EI 10) – 0.55 (EI 9) + 1.29 (EI 14) – 0.809 (EI 19).

Building bonds is an EI skill which is the ability to form useful professional and personal relationships in the organisation. But in the present analysis, the 'b' value being negative the more the trait of building bonds the lesser the person tends to have commitment to the organisation. This may be because of the disillusionment the employee got as a result of the prevailing organisational atmosphere, which may not be encouraging this trait.

The sixth important contributory variable was Pers.2 (Aggression/ Hostility). The multiple regression coefficient (R) value was 0.558, it was significant at 0.001 level (F = 19.39, for b and 240 df).

The percentage of variance contributed by the six independent variables entered so far on the dependent variable will be 30.9% as the value of R^2 is 0.3696.

From the value of 'b' we may conclude that for every unit change in the independent variables i.e., EI 17, EI 10, EI 9, EI 14, EI 19 and Pers 2, will create a 0.485, -0.686, 0.57, 1.49, -0.85 and -0.328 unit change, in that order (respectively).

It may be noted the value of 'b' for aggression hostility is negative, which means for every unit increment of aggression hostility there will be a decrement in organisational commitment (in the proportion mentioned above) and vice versa. The more aggressive and hostile an individual is by nature, it is more likely that he will have disagreements and conflict with the members of the organisation. Hence the person with this trait may have proportionately lesser organisational commitment.

The regression equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Organisational commitment} = 48.42 + 0.485 (\text{EI } 17) - 0.686 (\text{EI } 10) + 0.57 (\text{EI } 9) + 1.49 (\text{EI } 14) - 0.85 (\text{EI } 19) - 0.3281 (\text{Pers } 2).$$

The seventh variable entered as significant was Pers 1 (time urgency), the R value here was 0.567 (significant at 0.01 level and the F-value was 16.23, for 7 and 239 df).

The value of R^2 was 0.322 which means the percentage of variance in organisational commitment created by the influence of these 7 independent variables will be 32.2%.

The 'b' value indicates the proportion of change in the dependent variable because of the influence of each of the independent variable with the direction of influence in this combination of variables. Here for every unit of

change in the independent variables i.e. EI 17, EI 10, EI 9, EI 14, EI 19, Pers. 2 and Pers 1. There will be correspondingly 0.464, -0.75, 0.57, 1.53, -0.75, -0.490 and 0.198 unit changes in the dependent variable.

The regression equation will be:

Organisational commitment: $46.3 + 0.464 (EI\ 17) - 0.75 (EI\ 10) + 0.57 (EI\ 9) + 1.53 (EI\ 14) - 0.75 (EI\ 19) - 0.490 (Pers\ 2) + 0.198 (Pers\ 1)$.

Time urgency is a personality trait, which is characterized by a sharp sense of time, which is exaggerated to the proportion of trying to beat time in all aspects of life. Though this can be a negative quality, individual with this quality may show high level of organizational commitment.

The eighth contributory variable was EI 16 (Communication), with an R value of 0.579 significant at 0.01 level ($F = 15.028$, for 8 ad 238 df). The strength of relationship predicted here between the dependent variable and the independent variable put together on the other side was 57.9%.

The value of R^2 was found to be 0.335 predicting the percentage of variance in the dependent variable by the eight listed variable to 33.5%.

The 'b' values show that the change in organisational commitment contributed by the listed independent variables will be in the following proportion. Unit change in the independent variables will create the following proportion of change in organisational commitment. i.e., EI 17, EI 10, EI 9, EI 14, EI 19, Per 2, Per 1 and EI 16, will create 0.464, -0.75, 0.57, 1.53, 0.75, 0.49 and 0.198 unit changes respectively in organisational commitment.

The 'b' value of communication was negative which means, the change created by communication on organisational commitment will be negative.

The regression equation at this stage will be:

Organisational Commitment: $46.33 + 0.511 (\text{EI } 17) - 0.60 (\text{EI } 10) + 0.67 (\text{EI } 9) + 1.58 (\text{EI } 14) - 0.647 (\text{EI } 19) - 0.518 (\text{Per } 2) + 0.214 (\text{Per } 1) - 0.435 (\text{EI } 16)$.

Communication skills of the employee seem to have a negative predictive relationship to the organisational commitment. It may be because of the fact that good communicator has a higher confidence level which makes him or her think independent of the organisational obligations.

The ninth influential variable was EI 20 (Team work), the R value was 0.5913 significant at 0.01 level ($F = 14.16$, for 9 and 237 df). This predicts the strength of relationship between the independent variables with the inclusion of EI 20 as one group on the independent variable to be 59.13%.

The R^2 value was 0.349 which is a measure of the percentage of variation attributed to organisational commitment by the total effort of the independent variables with the inclusion of EI 20 and the influence is around 34.9% in the organisational commitment.

The 'b' value states that for every unit change of these independent variables, that is EI 17, EI 10, EI 9, EI 14, EI 19, Per 2, Per 1, EI 16 and EI 20, there will be 0.305, 0.607, 0.66, 1.51, -0.73, 0.979, 0.159, -0.606 and 0.44 unit changes respectively.

The regression equation will be:

Organisational commitment = $44.74 + 0.305 (\text{EI } 17) - 0.607 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.66 (\text{EI } 9) + 1.51 (\text{EI } 14) - 0.73 (\text{EI } 19) - 0.479 (\text{Per } 2) + 0.1597 (\text{Per } 1) - 0.606 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.44 (\text{EI } 20)$.

Team work is the ability to work with others towards a shared goal, and the tendency to create group cohesiveness. All these abilities are hall marks of the organisational commitment of an employee.

The 'b' value of team work indicates that as this variables increase the organizational commitment also will increase as per the regression equation.

Organisational commitment is a function of team work ability of the employee, which means the team skills of the employee, is a very good predictor of the organisational commitment.

To conclude organisational commitment i.e., the tendency of an employee to continue with the organisation and to follow the values of the organisation is predicted by the ability of the employee to be a change catalyst, empathetic, his initiative, leadership, ability to build bonds, his level of aggression and hostility, the sense of time urgency, communication skill and the ability to be a team player in that order. All these variables put together can predict around 59% of the organisational commitment of an employee.

Multiple Regression Analysis (Step wise) for Dependent Variable Job Involvement

In this analysis Job Involvement was considered as the dependent variable and four variables of personality and 20 variables of EI were considered as the independent variables (Table IV.II.3.)

The variable that was found to contribute most to the Job Involvement was Conflict Management (EI 18). The value of multiple correlation (R) was 0.482, significant at 0.01 level ($F = 74.28$, for 1 and 245 df). This signified that the strength of relationship between Conflict Management and Job Involvement is around 48.2%.

The value of R^2 (0.232) indicated that Conflict Management accounted for 23% of variance in Job Involvement.

The value of 'b' signified that for every unit of change in Conflict Management there will be 0.958 unit increment in Job Involvement.

The Regression equation at this step will be

$$\text{Job Involvement} = 40.147 + 0.958 (\text{Conflict Management})$$

A talent of those skilled in the Conflict Management competence is spotting trouble as it is brewing and taking steps to calm those involved. It is the arts of listening and empathizing and are crucial to the skills of handling difficult people and situations with diplomacy, encouraging debate and open discussion, and orchestrating win-win situations. Effective Conflict Management and negotiation are important to long-term, symbiotic business relationships, such as those between manufacturers and retailers. In a survey of retail buyers in department store chains, effectiveness at win-win negotiating was an accurate barometer of the health of the manufacturer-retailer relationship (Ganesan, 1993).

Job Involvement refers to the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his/her work and the importance of work of one's self-image. The conflict management ability of the manager seems to predict the job involvement the best (23% of variance).

The second factor entered was Communication (EI 16) with the R value 0.597 the level of significance was at 0.001 ($F = 67.7$ for 2 and 244 df). This predicts the strength of relationship between the dependent variable and the two independent variable viz, (EI 18 and EI 16) as a unit to be 59.2%.

TABLE IV.II. 3

Multiple Regression Analysis (Step wise), Job Involvement as dependent variable.

	Independent Variable	Multiple Correlation R	F value for R	R ²	St for R	Partial Regression coefficient 'b'	Constant	Beta coefficient B
Conflict Management	EI 18	0.482	74.28*** (1,295)	0.232	6.74	0.958 (EI 18)	40.147	0.48
Communication	EI 16	0.597	67.7**** (2,244)	0.356	6.18	1.336 (EI 18) -0.966 (EI 16)	50.52	0.67 -0.400
Aggression/ Hostility	Per 2	0.662	63.48*** (3,243)	0.439	5.78	1.168 (EI 18) 0.86 (EI 16) 0.666 (Per 2)	45.997	0.588 -0.38 0.296
Leadership	EI 14	0.701	58.67*** (4,242)	0.492	5.516	0.95 (EI 18) -1.156 (EI 16) 0.589 (Per 2) 1.14 (EI 14)	40.787	0.478 -0.5116 0.2626 0.3156
Polyphasic Behaviour	Per 4	0.729	54.80*** (6,352)	0.532	5.30	0.801 (EI 18) -1.07 (EI 16) 0.411 (Per 2) 1.239 (EI 14) 1.158 (Per 4)	36.638	0.403 -0.474 0.18 0.34 0.227
Building Bonds	EI 19	0.745	49.95 *** (C, 240)	0.555	5.18	0.843 (EI 18) -0.947 (EI 16) 0.409 (Per 2) 1.55 (EI 14) 1.019 (Per 4) -0.759 (EI 19)	40.32	0.42 -0.43 0.18 0.43 0.200 -0.2032
Adaptability	EI 7	0.75	45.12	0.569	5.113	0.8189 (EI 18) -1.166 (EI 16) 0.400 (Per 2) 1.449 (EI 14) 1.022 (Per 4) -0.722 (EI 19) 0.4099 (EI 7)	39.51	0.412 -0.515 0.178 0.40 0.200 -0.1934 0.159
Empathy	EI 10	0.765	42.04	0.585	5.02	0.8099 (EI 18) -0.958 (EI 16) 0.408 (Per 2)	40.133	0.4077 -0.42 0.1819

						1.542 (EI 14) 0.98 (Per 4) -0.66 (EI, 9) 0.63 (EI 7) -0.436 (EI10)		0.428 0.192 -0.176] 0.2456 -0.2266
Initiative	EI 9	0.772	38.97	0.596	4.91	0.743 (EI 18) -1.111 (EI 18) 0.416 (Per 2) 1.542 (EI 14) 0.97 (Per 4) -0.605 (EI 19) 0.620 (EI 7) -0.51 (EI 10) 0.309 (EI 9)	39.84	0.374 -0.491 0.185 0.426 0.190 -0.162 0.2418 -0.2654 0.1569
Self Control	EI 4	0.777	35.97	0.603	4.23	0.727 (EI 18) -1.206 (EI 16) 0.439 (Per 2) 1.575 (EI 14) 1.10 (Per 4) -0.565 (EI 19) 0.566 (EI 7) -0.546 (EI 10) 0.285 (EI 9) 0.33 (EI 4)	37.33	0.366 -0.533 0.195 0.435 0.216 -0.1512 0.22 -0.283 0.144 0.117
Self awareness	EI1	0.78	34.109	0.61	4.82	0.687 (EI 18) -1.14 (EI 16) 0.467 (Per 2) 1.5 (EI 14) 1.12 (Per 4) -0.475 (EI 19) 0.578 (EI 7) 0.53 (EI 10) 0.344 (EI 9) 0.47 (EI 4) -0.63 (EI 1)	39.049	0.345 -0.5 0.208 0.418 0.219 -0.127 0.225 -0.275 0.1747 0.168 -0.144

* significant at 0.05 level, ** significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

The R^2 (0.356) value signifies that the degree of variance in Job Involvement accounted for by the two independent variables together will be around 35.6%.

The 'b' value indicates that for every unit change of the independent variables i.e., for conflict management and communication, there will be 1.336 and -0.906 unit (respectively) changes in the dependent variable.

The value of 'b' for EI 16 is negative which means as communication (EI 16) increases, the value of job involvement will decrease in the above mentioned proportion and vice-versa.

The equation will be:

$$\text{Job Involvement} = 50.52 + 1.336 (\text{EI } 18) - 0.906 (\text{EI } 16).$$

Job involvement is the degree of psychological identification with the job, here it was found that people with high communication skills less psychological identification with the job or the job will have less impact on their self image.

The third important predictor of the dependent variable was Per 2 (Aggression/Hostility). The R value was 0.662 the significance level was 0.01 ($F = 63.40$ for 3 and 243 df).

The value of R^2 was 0.439, which indicates the amount of variance contributed by the combined effect of the independent variables on Job Involvement is 43.9%.

The values of the partial regression coefficient showed that for every unit of change of EI 18, EI 16 and Per 2 there will be 1.168, 0.86 and 0.666 unit change respectively in the dependent variable.

The equation for this step will be:

$$\text{Job Involvement} = 45.997 + 1.168 (\text{EI } 18) + 0.86 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.606 (\text{Per } 2)$$

Aggression hostility is marked by high competitive spirit and the inability to do anything for fun. In this analysis this personality characteristic is a predictive quality for job involvement. This personality trait has positive influence in predicting job involvement.

The fourth variable entered was Leadership (EI 14). The R value was 0.701 and it was significant at 0.001 level ($F = 58.67$, for 4 and 242 df). This means the strength of relationship between the dependent variable and the four independent variables together is 70.1%.

The value of R^2 (0.492) signifies that the percentage of variance on Job Involvement accounted for by the Independent variables together will be 49.2%.

The value of 'b' suggests that for every unit of change in the independent variable i.e., EI 18, EI 16, Per 2 and EI 14 there will be 0.95, -1.156, 0.589 and 1.14 unit respectively changes in the dependent variable.

The regression equation for this stage will be:

$$\text{Job Involvement} = 40.787 + 0.95 (\text{EI } 18) - 1.156 \text{EI } 16) + 0.589 (\text{Per } 2) + 1.14 (\text{EI } 14)$$

Those adept at the Visionary Leadership competence draw on a range of personal skills to inspire others to work together toward common goals. They are able to articulate and arouse enthusiasm for a shared vision and mission, to step forward as needed, to guide the performance of others while holding them accountable, and to lead by example. Outstanding leaders integrate emotional realities into what they see and so instill strategy with

meaning and resonance. Emotions are contagious, particularly when exhibited by those at the top, and extremely successful leaders display a high level of positive energy that spreads throughout the organization. The more positive the style of a leader, the more positive, helpful, and co-operative are those in the group (George & Bettenhausen, 1990). And the emotional tone set by a leader tends to ripple outward with remarkable power (Bachman, 1988).

The fifth important contributing variable entered in the equation was Polyphasic behaviour (Per 4). The R value was 0.729, the value was significant at 0.01 level ($F = 54.80$; for 5 and 240 df).

R^2 was equal to 0.532, which means the percentage of variance contributed by the 5 independent variables together on the dependent variable was 53.2%.

The values of partial regression coefficient says job involvement will change by 0.801, -1.07, 0.411, 1.239 and 1.158 units for unit change in EI 18, EI 16, Per 2, EI 14 and Per 4 respectively.

The equation for this step will be:

$$\text{Job Involvement} = 36.638 + 0.801 (\text{EI } 18) - 1.07 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.411(\text{Per } 2) + 1.239 (\text{EI } 14) + 1.158 (\text{Per } 4).$$

Polyphasic behaviour is a tendency to take-up many tasks at a time, which may lead to failure to do well, in any of these tasks. But this characteristic clearly shows the high involvement the worker has on his job. Here it is seen that polyphasic behaviour will be a predictor or job involvement.

The sixth variable entered was Building Bond (EI 19), the R value was 0.745, which was significant at 0.01 level ($F = 49.95$, for 6 and 239 df).

The value of R^2 was 0.555 which means 55.5% of variance in the dependent variable was created by these six independent variables together.

From the value of 'b' we can understand that for a unit change in the independent variables i.e., EI 18, EI 16, Per 2, EI 14, Per 4 and EI 19, there will be 0.843, -0.972, 0.409, 1.55, 1.019 and -0.709 units change respectively in Job involvement.

The value of 'b' value of building bonds was negative which means as the value of EI 19 increases the value of the dependent variable decreases; as per the mentioned proportion and vice versa.

The regression equation for this step will be:

$$\text{Job Involvement} = 40.32 + 0.843 (\text{EI } 18) - 0.97 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.407 (\text{Per } 2) + 1.55 (\text{EI } 14) + 1.019 (\text{Per } 4) - 0.759 (\text{EI } 19).$$

From the 'b' value it can be observed that the trait of building bonds is a negatively contributed to job involvement.

Adaptability (EI 7) is the seventh important variable, with an R value of 0.75 significant at 0.001 level ($F = 45.12$, for f and 238 df). This means that the strength of relationship between the seven independent variables and the dependent variable is around 75%.

The value of R^2 was found to be 0.569 which means 56.9% percentage of variance in the dependent variable was awarded for by the seven independent variables together.

The partial regression coefficient value of the variable predicts the proportionate change accounted for by each independent variable on the dependent variable. Here a unit change in EI 18, EI 16, Per 2, EI 16, Per 4, EI 19 and EI 7 will create 0.8189, -1.166, 0.400, 1.449, 1.022-0.722, and 0.4099 unit changes respectively in the dependent variable.

The equation for this step will be:

$$\text{Job involvement} = 39.51 + 0.8189 (\text{EI } 18) - 1.166 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.400 (\text{Per } 2) + 1.449 (\text{EI } 14) + 1.022 (\text{Per } 4) - 0.722 (\text{EI } 19) + 0.4099 (\text{EI } 7).$$

Adaptability is a self management skill, as the job involvement is a very personal and psychological construct one's ability to adapt and psychologically to new changes and emerging trends can decide one's level of job involvement.

The eighth most important variable entered was Empathy (EI 10). The R value was 0.765 significant at 0.01 level ($F = 42.04$, for 8 and 237 df). This shows that the strength of relationship between the dependent variable and the eight independent variables together is 76.6%.

The value of R^2 was entered as 0.585 which means the percentage of variance contributed to the dependent variable by the eight independent variables is around 58.5%.

The values of 'b' shows that for every unit of change in the independent variable i.e., EI 18, EI 16, Per 2, EI 14, Per 4, EI 19, EI 7 and EI 10 the dependent variable will change by 0.809, -0.958, 0.408, 1.54, 0.98, -0.66, 0.63 and -0.436 units respectively.

The 'b' value for EI 10 is negative, which mean as Empathy increases job involvement decreases or vice versa, according to the mentioned proportion.

The regression equation for this stage will be:

$$\text{Job involvement} = 40.133 + 0.809 (\text{EI } 18) - 0.958 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.408 (\text{Per } 2) + 1.5 (\text{EI } 14) + 0.98 (\text{Per } 4) - 0.66 (\text{EI } 19) + 0.63 (\text{EI } 7) - 0.436(\text{EI } 10).$$

The negative value of 'b' signifies a negative relationship between job involvement and empathy. The more empathetic the people tend to be the less involved they will be with their jobs.

The ninth variable that contributed to the dependent variable was EI 9 initiative (EI 9). The value of R was 0.772 significant at 0.001 level ($F = 38.97$, for 9 and 236 df). The strength of relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable is 77.2%.

The value of R^2 was found to be 0.596, which means the total percentage of variance on the dependent variable caused by the independent variable (8 of them together) will be 59.6%.

The 'b' coefficient values show that for every unit of change in the independent variable that is for EI 18, EI 16, Per 2, EI 14, Per 4, EI 19, EI 7, EI 10 and EI 9, there will be 0.743, -1.111, 0.416, 1.542, 0.97, -0.605, 0.620, -0.51 and 0.309 units changes respectively.

The equation at this stage will be:

Job involvement = $39.04 + 0.743$ (EI 18) – 1.11 (EI 16) + 0.416 (Per 2) + 1.54 (EI 14) + 0.97 (Per 4) – 0.605 (EI 19) + 0.62 (EI 7) – 0.51 (EI 10) + 0.309 (EI 9).

Initiative is the readiness to act when the right opportunity comes; this is both useful from the individual point of view as well as the organisational point of view. Initiative a sign of motivation and involvement in the work which means the employee will have high job involvement if his initiative is high.

The 10th variable found significant was EI 4 (self control) with an R value of 0.777 significant at 0.01 level ($F = 35.97$ for 10 and 235 df). This shows that strength of relationship between these ten independent variables to dependent variable is 77.7%.

The value of R^2 was 0.603, that is around 60.3% of variance in the dependent variable was contributed by the ten independent variables together.

The partial regression coefficient values shows that a unit change in EI 18, EI 16, Per 2, EI 14, Per 4, EI 19, EI 7, EI 10, EI 9 and EI 4 will create 0.727, -1.206, 0.439, 1.525, 1.10, -0.565, 0.566, -0.546, 0.285 and 0.33 unit changes respectively in the dependent variable.

The equation for this stage will be like:

$$\text{Job Involvement} = 37.73 + 0.727 (\text{EI } 18) - 1.206 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.439 (\text{Per } 2) + 1.575 (\text{EI } 14) + 1.10 (\text{Per } 4) - 0.565 (\text{EI } 19) + 0.566 (\text{EI } 7) - 0.546 (\text{EI } 10) + 0.285 (\text{EI } 9) + 0.33 (\text{EI } 4).$$

Self control is an invaluable personal competency which is very essential for any psychologically oriented personal constructs. Self control helps the individual to exercise control over one's impulses especially in emotional experiences. It also helps the individual to express and experience the appropriate type and amount of emotions at work.

The 11th variable entered was self awareness (EI 1) the multiple coefficient R was 0.78 which was significant at 0.01 level ($F = 34.109$ for 11 and 234 df). The value of R shows that the strength of relationship between the dependent variable on all of the independent variables put together will be 78%.

The value of R^2 (0.610) signifies that, the independent variables together (11 of them) accounts for 61% of variance in the dependent variable.

The 'b' values shows that every change in one unit of EI 18, EI 16, Per 2, EI 14, Per 4, EI 19, EI 7, EI 10, EI 9, EI 4 and EI 1 will cause 0.687, -1.14, 0.467, 1.5, 1.12, -0.475, 0.578, 0.53, 0.344, 0.47 and -0.63 unit changes respectively in the dependent variable.

The 'b' value of EI, is negative which means as Self awareness increases the Job involvement will decrease and vice versa.

The regression equation at this step will be:

$$\text{Job Involvement} = 39.049 + 0.687 (\text{EI } 18) - 1.14 (\text{EI } 16) + 0.467 (\text{Per } 2) + 1.5 (\text{EI } 14) + 1.12 (\text{Per } 4) - 0.475 (\text{EI } 11) + 0.578 (\text{EI } 7) + 0.53 (\text{EI } 10) + 0.344 (\text{EI } 9) + 0.47 (\text{EI } 6) - 0.63 (\text{EI } 1).$$

Self awareness is one's insight into one's own emotional needs, states and strengths and weaknesses. This personal competency will help the individual to be more, appropriately oriented emotionally towards the job at hand, also make the right emotional adjustments in terms of decisions. But in the present analysis emotional self awareness has a negative impact on Job involvement.

Overall the job involvement is predicted best by a combination of EI and personality attributes. Since the construct job involvement is a psychological and subjective construct the role of emotional competencies and personality variables are very evident. The biggest contributors to job involvement are two EI constructs which are social competencies, namely conflict management and communication in that order. The third best predictor is a personality variable inappropriate aggression and hostility. The fourth contributor is another EI variable which again a social competency known as leadership. Again the fifth predictor is a personality construct, polyphasic behaviour. All the rest of the predictors are EI variables, namely Building bonds, Adaptability, Empathy, Initiative and Self control in that order.

Multiple Regression Analysis for Dependent Variable Job Satisfaction

The first variable entered in the analysis (Table IV. II. 4) was EI1 (Self assessment) with the R value 0.359 significant at 0.001 level ($F = 36.426$ for 1

and 245 df). The value of R signifies that the strength of relationship between the independent variable that is EI2 and Job Satisfaction is 35.9%.

The value of R^2 was entered as 0.129 which means the degree of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by EI2 in 12.9%.

The partial regression coefficient (b) value shows that for every unit of EI2 there will be 0.01 unit increment in Job Satisfaction.

The equation at this step will be

$$\text{Job Satisfaction} = 34.03 + 1.01 (\text{EI2}).$$

Job Satisfaction is a measure of the degree of pleasure one derives from the job, in the present analysis the first predictor of job satisfaction is accurate self assessment it is the ability to assess accurately one's own strengths and weaknesses. This will definitely help the individual to set the right standards for oneself and be satisfied with the outcomes and one's own performances. In short this ability will help the person to set realistic targets, which should lead to some sort of job satisfaction.

The second most important variable was EI10 (Empathy), the R value was 0.44 significant at 0.01 level ($F = 29.58$, for 2 and 244). The strength of relationship between the dependent variable and the two independent variables put together is 44% according to the R values.

Since the value of R^2 is 0.195, the percentage of variance contributed by both the independent variables for the job satisfaction will be 19.5%.

The values of 'b' signifies that for every unit change in the variable self assessment and Empathy there will be 1.469 and -0.686 units, corresponding change in Job Satisfaction.

TABLE IV.II.4

Multiple Regression Analysis (Stepwise), Job Satisfaction as dependent variable.

	Independent Variable	Multiple Regression R	F value for R	R ²	SE for R	Partial Regression coefficient 'b'	Constant	Beta coefficient B
Self Assessment	EI2	0.359	36.426 ^{***} (1,245)	0.129	8.47	1.01 (EI2)	34.03	0.359
Empathy	EI10	0.44	29.58 (2,244)	0.195	8.16	1.469 (EI2) -0.686 (EI10)	39.81	0.52 -0.302
Team work	EI20	0.517	29.57 (3,243)	0.267	7.8	1.006 (EI2) -1.098 (EI10) 0.948 (EI20)	31.66	00.356 -0.484 0.404
Building Bonds	EI19	0.557	27.32 (3,242)	0.311	7.58	1.03 (EI2) -0.96 (EI10) 1.169 (EI20) -1.127 (EI10)	36.37	0.36 -0.423 0.498 -0.2558
Self awareness	EI1	0.574	23.69 (4,241)	0.329	7.49	1.249 (EI2) -0.86 (EI10) 1.187 (EI20) -1.096 (EI19) -0.93 (EI1)	38.03	0.442 -0.379 0.506 -0.268 -0.179

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.05 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level.

It may be noticed that the value of 'b' for Empathy is negative, which means as the value of Empathy increases the value of Job Satisfaction decreases, and vice versa as per the given proportion.

The regression equation at this point will be:

$$\text{Job Satisfaction} = 39.81 + 1.469 (\text{EI2}) - 0.686 (\text{EI10}).$$

Empathy is the second highest contributor to job satisfaction, which means one's satisfaction at job will decrease as ability to empathise increases.

The third variable entered as significant predictor was team work (EI 20), with the R value 0.517 significant at 0.001 level (29.57 for 3 and 243 df). The strength of relationship between the dependent variable and the 3 independent variables together is 51.7%.

The value of R^2 for this step was 0.267 which implies the degree of variance caused by the combined effect of the three independent variables on Job Satisfaction is 26.70%.

The 'b' values for this stage implies that for every unit change of EI2, EI1 and EI20 there will be 1.006, -1.098 and 0.948 units changes respectively in job satisfaction.

The equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Job Satisfaction} = 31.66 + 1.006 (\text{EI2}) - 1.098 (\text{EI10}) + 0.948 (\text{EI20}).$$

Team work is a social competence, which is the third highest contributor for job satisfaction in this analysis. That is to get job satisfaction one needs to have the ability to work in teams, set personal goals in synergy with the common goals. To put it simply one needs to know how to grown with the organisation.

The fourth significant variable entered in the analysis was Building Bonds (EI19) the R value for this was 0.557, significant at 0.001 level ($F = 27.32$ for 4 and 242df). The multiple regression R implies that the strength of relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables together on the other side, will be 55.7%.

The R^2 (0.311) indicates that the total percentage of variance caused by the independent variables on Job Satisfaction at this step will be 31.1%.

The 'b' values for these independent variables suggests that for every unit of change in EI2, EI10, EI20 and EI19 will create 1.03, -0.96, 1.169 and -1.127 units respectively changes in the dependent variable.

It may be noticed that the 'b' value of Building bonds is negative, that means for every unit of increment in Building bonds there will be 1.127 unit of decrement in Job Satisfaction and vice versa.

The regression equation at this step will be

Job Satisfaction = $36.37 + 1.03 (EI2) - 0.096 (EI10) + 1.169 (EI20) - 1.127 (EI19)$.

Building bonds is also a social competence under the EI construct, this is the 4th highest contributor variable for Job Satisfaction. In this analysis building bonds variable has a negative relationship with job satisfaction.

The fifth significant variable entered in the table was self awareness (EI1). The multiple regression value (R) was 0.574 significant at 0.001 level ($F = 23.69$ for 5 and 241 df). The strength of relationship according to this between dependent variable (Job Satisfaction) and the total independent variable will be 57.4%.

The R^2 (0.329) indicates that the degree of variance caused by the 5 independent variable together on Job Satisfaction will be 32.9%.

The partial regression coefficient values shown suggests 1.249, -0.86, 1.187, -1.096 and 0.93 unit changes in the dependent variable for every unit change in EI2, EI10, EI20, EI19 and EI respectively.

The regression equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Job Satisfaction} = 38.03 + 1.249 (\text{EI2}) - 0.86 (\text{EI10}) + 1.187 (\text{EI20}) - 1.096 (\text{EI19}) - 0.93 (\text{EI1}).$$

Self awareness is the fifth important predictor of job satisfaction, i.e., in the present analysis the more one is aware of her/his need abilities the less satisfied the person seems to be.

General Conclusion

All the predictor variables of job satisfaction in this analysis are EI variables. According to this analysis understanding of oneself (self assessment and self awareness) and others (Empathy) and the ability to work with the team (team work and building bonds) are the most important competencies required (which can predict) job satisfaction of managers.

Martinez – Pons (1997-1998) tested the predictive power of Emotional intelligence on three areas of personal functioning, goal orientation, life satisfaction and depression symptomatology. He found emotional intelligence to be a significant predictor of all the three variables. This means the higher one's emotional intelligence the higher one's ability to carry out adaptive task oriented behaviours, performance in this area tend to enhance the overall satisfaction (in all areas of life). As stated earlier Job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their jobs. Our present analysis similarly has shown that job satisfaction is predicted by some of the EI variables.

The final regression equation shows that among the five EI variables that have predicted Job satisfaction accurate self assessment and team work has a positive influence on Job satisfaction; Whereas Empathy, Building bonds and Self Awareness has a negative impact on Job Satisfaction of the individual.

SECTION III

Multiple Regression Analysis

Performance as Dependent Variable

In the present study step wise regression analysis was carried out using 20 EI variables, 4 personality variables and 3 Job Attitude variables as independent variables to find out from among them the most significant variables with regard to their contribution to job performance of the managers and it also showed the relative contribution of each of these EI, personality and Job attitude variables towards performance.

From (Table IV.III. 1) it can be seen that the variable contribute most to performance is adaptability (EI 7); the multiple correlation (R) obtained was 0.4006, the relationship is positive as indicated by the 'b' value (partial regression coefficient), this says that the higher the value of adaptability, the higher the performance will be. The value also indicates that the strength of the relationship between the two variables is about 40 percentages. The R was significant at 0.001 level, the coefficient of multiple R^2 was 0.1605. This shows that 16.05 percentage of variance in performance was accounted by adaptability.

The regression equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Performance} = 3.93 + 0.115 (\text{EI } 7)$$

TABLE IV.III. 1

Multiple Regression Analysis (Step wise), Performance as dependent variable.

	Independent Variable	Multiple Regression R	F value for R	R ²	SE for R	Partial Regression coefficient 'b'	Constant	Beta coefficient B
Adaptability	EI7	0.40055	46.82***	0.16044	0.79	0.1155 (EI 7)	3.933	0.40055
Organisational awareness	EI11	0.4529	31.49***	0.2051	0.772	0.1657 (EI 7) -0.0882 (EI11)	4.272	0.574 -0.273
Developing others	EI13	0.513	29.07***	0.26413	0.745	0.118 (EI 7) -0.1289 (EI11) 0.105 (EI13)	3.719	0.409 -0.4002 0.3588
Influence	EI15	0.557	27.2***	0.31	0.722	0.94 (EI7) -0.077 (EI11) 0.144 (EI13) -0.053 (EI15)	3.79	0.329 0.24 0.49 -0.304
Trustworthiness	EI5	0.574	23.69***	0.329	0.714	0.1039 (EI7) -0.052 (EI11) 0.152 (EI13) -0.0497 (EI15) -0.078 (EI5)	4.08	0.36 -0.1615 0.519 -0.282 -0.1949
Goal directed behaviour	Perso 3	0.6012	22.64***	0.361	0.698	0.1097 (EI7) -0.0469 (EI11) 0.148 (EI13) -0.0365 (EI15) -0.109 (EI5) -0.09219 (Per 3)	4.50	0.38 -0.14577 0.50 -0.207 -0.27 -0.193
Job involvement	Att 2	0.6159	20.87***	0.379	0.6898	0.104117 (EI7) -0.04755 (EI11) 0.154689 (EI13) -0.051363 (EI15) -0.10076 (EI5) -0.0990 (Per 3) 0.01735 (Att 2)	3.755	0.361037 -0.147622 0.527797 -0.291782 -0.249385 -0.207566 0.154386
Building bonds	EI 19	0.62855	19.42929***	0.39507	0.68253	0.091869 (EI7) -0.035701 (EI11) 0.148004 (EI13) -0.064001 (EI15)	3.149584	0.318568 -0.110818 0.504988 -0.363578

						-0.099310 (EI5) -0.098169 (Per 3) 0.021017 (Att 2) 0.062631 (EI19)		-0.247478 -0.205714 0.186975 0.149160
Organisational Awareness (Removed on step)	EI 11	0.62519	21.90841	0.39086	0.68347	0.081505 (EI7) 0.145121 (EI13) -0.071234 (EI15) -0.112121 (EI5) -0.099793 (Per 3) 0.021275 (Att 2) 0.068206 (EI19)	3.127547	
Achievement Orientation	EI 8	0.63691	20.30471	0.40565	0.67654	0.100237 (EI7) 0.148312 (EI13) -0.068247 (EI15) -0.096222 (EI5) -0.109999 (Per 3) 0.019432 (Att 2) 0.084027 (EI 19) -0.051141 (EI 8)	3.420356	0.3476 0.5060 -0.3877 -0.2398 -0.2305 0.1729 0.2001 -0.1789
Conscientiousness	EI 6	0.65413	19.69487	0.42789	0.66516	0.117047 (EI7) 0.123102 (EI13) -0.064025 (EI15) -0.110418 (EI5) -0.117162 (Per3) 0.020254 (Att 2) 0.068526 (EI19) -0.07692 (EI8) 0.071037 (EI6)	3.077107	0.4059 0.4200 -0.3637 -0.2752 0.2455 0.1802 0.1632 0.2691 0.2109
Self awareness	EI 1	0.66414	18.62412	0.44108	0.65884	0.118363 (EI7) 0.100068 (EI13) -0.058955 (EI15) -0.123604 (EI5) -0.135652 (Per 3) 0.024446 (Att 2) 0.064102 (EI19) -0.082543 (EI8) 0.065224 (EI6) 0.081221 (EI1)	2.847440	0.4104 0.3414 -0.3349 -0.3080 -0.2843 0.2175 0.1527 -0.2887 0.1936 0.1640

Teamwork and collaboration	EI 20	0.67140	17.54002	0.45086	0.65444	0.118632 (EI7) 0.122090 (EI13) -0.050805 (EI15) -0.133860 (EI5) -0.135561 (Per 3) 0.022364 (Att 2) 0.072536 (EI19) -0.069159 (EI8) 0.078915 (EI6) 0.080208 (EI1) -0.042296 (EI20)	3.123316	0.4114 0.4166 -0.2886 -0.3336 -0.2839 0.1990 0.1727 -0.2419 0.2343 0.1619 -0.1893
Self-confidence	EI 3	0.67938	16.71588	0.46156	0.6494	0.110433 (EI7) 0.102941 (EI13) -0.050729 (EI15) -0.135357 (EI5) -0.150687 (Per 3) 0.025779 (Att 2) 0.068814 (EI 19) -0.070216 (EI 8) 0.070583 (EI6) 0.074760 (EI1) -0.044841 (EI20) 0.038863 (EI3)	3.010986	0.3829 0.3512 -0.2882 -0.3373 -0.3158 0.2293 0.1639 -0.2456 0.2095 0.1509 -0.2007 0.1674
Self Control	EI 4	0.68845	16.14852	0.47396	0.64327	0.118711 (EI7) 0.8947 (EI13) -0.059078 (EI15) -0.127896 (EI5) -0.1482 (Per 3) 0.0270 (Att 2) 0.59143 (EI19) -0.07131 (EI8) 0.0882 (EI6) 0.09379 (EI1) -0.03463 (EI20) 0.05085 (EI3) -0.05716 (EI4)	2.822723	0.4116 0.3232 -0.3356 -0.3035 -0.3106 0.2405 0.1409 -0.2495 0.2618 0.1894 -0.1550 0.2191 -0.1802

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

There are many recent studies supporting this finding, according to Spencer & Spencer (1993). If there is any single competence our present times call for, it is Adaptability, the superior performers in management ranks show this competence". People with high levels of adaptability are able to accommodate 'change' which is a constant phenomenon in today's organisational set up.

Factor EI 11 (Organisational awareness), was entered into step wise regression analysis as the second most significant variable. The multiple correlation (R) between performance on one side and EI7 and EI11 on the other was 0.4529, which means the strength of relationship between performance and adaptability and organisational awareness put together is 45 percent (R was significant at 0.001 level) (F = 31.49).

R^2 was equal to 0.2051, hence, the two variables, i.e., adaptability and organisational awareness put together could explain about 20.5 percent of the variance in performance.

The partial regression coefficients shows that when EI7 and EI11 are included as predictors of performance, performance will change by 0.165 and -0.088 points for every units of change in EI7 and EI11 respectively. The regression equation for the same is given below:

$$\text{Performance} = 4.27 + 0.165 (\text{EI7}) - 0.088 (\text{EI 11})$$

Organizational Awareness is the ability to read the currents of emotions and political realities in groups. It is the competence vital to the behind-the-scenes networking and coalition building that allows individuals to wield influence, no matter what their professional role. Insight into group social hierarchies requires Social awareness on an organizational level, not just an interpersonal one. Outstanding performers in most organizations share this ability; among managers and executive generally, this emotional

competence distinguishes star performers. Their ability to read situations objectively, without the distorting lens of their own biases and assumptions, allows them to respond effectively (Boyatzis, 1982).

But in the present sample from the b value it was found that the contribution of organizational awareness to performance is negative. Which means the less the organizational awareness the better the performance will be. The reason could be very specific to the prevailing situations in the organizations concerned.

In the third step, EI13 (developing others) variable of EI has entered as the next important variable in contributing to performance. The multiple correlation with the three factors (EI7, EI11 and EI13) was 0.513, which was significant at 0.01 level ($F = 29.07$), which means the strength of relationship between three factors put together and performance is about 51 percent.

The value of R^2 (0.264) shows that, 26 percent of variance in performance is explained by those three variables (in EI7, EI11 and EI13).

The obtained partial regression coefficient (b) with these three variables indicate that change in performance will be 0.118, -0.128 and 0.105 units for every units of change in variables EI7, EI11 and EI13 respectively. The regression equation at this step will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 3.719 + 0.118 (\text{EI7}) - 0.128 (\text{EI11}) + 0.105 (\text{EI13}).$$

The relationship management set of competencies includes essential Social Skills. Developing others involves sensing people's developmental needs and bolstering their abilities – a talent not just of excellent coaches and mentors, but also outstanding leaders. Competence in developing others is a hall mark of superior managers; among sales managers, for example, it typifies those at the top of the field (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). Although

this ability is crucial for those managing front-line work, it has also emerged as a vital skill for effective leadership at high levels (Goleman, 2000b).

The regression equation at this stage will be

$$\text{Performance} = 3.72 + 0.118 (\text{EI } 7) - 0.128 (\text{EI } 11) + 0.105 (\text{EI } 13)$$

Variable EI15 (influence) was entered as the fourth important factor, the multiple correlation value (0.557) was significant at 0.001 level ($F = 27.2$); the strength of relationship between the four factors together and performance is 55.7 percent.

The value of R^2 (0.31) indicates that EI7, EI11, EI13 and EI15 together can explain 31% of variance in performance.

The 'b' coefficient of the data shows the inclusion of these four independent variables will change performance by 0.94, -0.077, 0.144 and -0.053, units for each unit of EI7, EI11, EI13 and EI15 respectively. The regression equation for this step is

$$\text{Performance} = 3.79 + 0.94 (\text{EI}7) - 0.077 (\text{EI}11) + 0.144 (\text{EI}13) - 0.053 (\text{EI}15).$$

We practice the essence of the influence competence when we handle and manage emotions effectively in other people and are persuasive. The most effective people sense others' reactions and fine-tune their own responses to move interaction in the best direction. This emotional competence emerges over and over again as a hallmark of star performers, particularly among supervisors, managers and executives (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Star performers with this competence draw on a wider range of persuasion strategies than others do, including impression management, dramatic arguments or actions, and appeals to reason. At the same time, the influence competence requires them to be genuine and put collective goals before their

self-interests; otherwise what would manifest as effective persuasion becomes manipulation. This is what exactly has happened in the present study from the 'b' values it can be seen that the variable Influence has a negative impact on performance. This could be because of the resistance they face as a result of their (Over) enthusiasm to influence others; and were perceived as manipulators and selfish. Some times the excess of this quality (influence) may lead to unpopularity among the colleagues and superiors.

The fifth variable entered into the analysis was EI5 (trustworthiness), the multiple correlation (R) value for these 5 factors together against performance was 0.574. This means that the strength of relationship between the dependent variable and the 5 factors together is 57%. The value was significant at 0.001 level ($F = 23.69$).

The value of R^2 (0.32) predicts the amount variance caused on performance by the five factors (EI7, EI11, EI13, EI15 and EI5) together is around 32%.

The partial regression coefficient value (b) shows that for every units of change in EI7, EI11, EI13, EI15 and EI5, the value of performance change by 0.103, -0.052, 0.152, -0.0497 and -0.078 units respectively.

The regression equation for this step will be:

$$\text{Performance} = -0.052 (\text{EI } 11) + 0.152 (\text{Q13}) - 0.0497 (\text{EI15}) - 0.078 (\text{EI5}).$$

The Trustworthiness competence translates into letting others know one's values and principles, intentions and feelings, and acting in ways that are consistent with them. Trustworthy individuals are forthright about their own mistakes and confront others about their lapses. A deficit in this ability operates as a career derailer (Goleman, 1998b). One of the interesting observations we can make from the negative value of 'b' co-efficient for

trustworthiness is that though it serves as very good personal quality the impact of it on performance seem to be negative which may be because the transparency and forthrightness they show may evoke some amount of uneasiness among people who does not want to readily expose their own weakness and mistakes.

The sixth variable entered into the step wise regression analysis was Pers 3 (Goal directed behaviour) of Type A, Type B Personality pattern. The value of R (0.0012) (F = 22.6) shows, with addition of this variable the total strengths of relationship between performance and the 6 independent variables has become 60 percent.

The value of R^2 was 0.361, which means the six independent variables could together predict 36% variance in Job performance.

The partial regression coefficient with all the six variables shows that the change in performance will be 0.109, -0.0469, 0.148, -0.036, -0.109 and 0.092 units for each units of addition of EI7, EI11, EI13, EI15, EI5 and Per 3 respectively.

The regression equation for this step will be

$$\text{Performance} = 4.50 + 0.109 (\text{EI7}) - 0.0469 (\text{EI11}) + 0.148 (\text{EI13}) - 0.036 (\text{EI15}) - 0.109 (\text{EI5}) - 0.092 (\text{Per 3}).$$

From the 'b' value it can b understood that the personality variable goal directed behaviour without proper planning is a negative contributor to performance which means even if the persons with this attribute is highly motivated to achieve the goal; his lack of planning and direction will hamper with his ability to perform. This may affect the team members also negatively.

The seventh variable entered in the stepwise analysis was Job Involvement from the Job attitude dimensions. The R value (0.6159) indicates

that the strength of relationship increased to 61.5% with the addition of Job involvement variable to the group of predictor variables. R value was significant at 0.01 level ($F = 20.87$).

The value of R^2 was 0.379 which predicts the variance contributed by the addition of job involvement to the predictor variables is 37.1%.

The regression equation will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 3.76 + 0.104 (\text{EI7}) - 0.048 (\text{EI11}) + 0.155 (\text{EI13}) - 0.0513 (\text{EI15}) - 0.10 (\text{EI5}) - 0.10 (\text{Pt 3}) + 0.017 (\text{Att2}).$$

The beta co-efficient show that job involvement has a positive impact on performance. That is for every unit of increment in job involvement there will be 0.017 unit increment performance. Job involvement is the extent of the ego involvement with job and how much the job is contributing to one's self image. Understanding these variables can have a higher predicative value for performance as the analysis has shown.

Building bonds is the eighth predictor variable for performance in this analysis, with R value of 0.6285 which is significant at 0.001 level ($F = 19.429$ for 8, 238 df). With the addition of the eighth variable the strength of relationship between performance and the predictor variables (all of the put together) has increased to 62.85%.

The value of R^2 (0.395) indicates that the variance contributed by all these eight contributors variables predicted so far will be 39.4%.

The regression equation at this stage will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 3.15 + 0.0918 (\text{EI7}) - 0.036 (\text{EI11}) + 0.15 (\text{EI13}) - 0.064 (\text{EI15}) - 0.10 (\text{EI5}) - 0.10 (\text{Per 3}) + 0.02 (\text{Alt 2}) + 0.063 (\text{EI19}).$$

Building bonds is the 8th most important predictor of performance; may a researcher have commented on the importance of this variable for success in organisations. Building bonds competence epitomizes stars in fields like engineering, computer science, biotechnology, and other knowledge work fields in which networking is crucial for success; these stars tend to choose people with a particular expertise or resource to be part of their networks (Kelley, 1998). Outstanding performers with this competence balance their own critical work with carefully chosen favors, building accounts of goodwill with people who may become crucial resources down the line. One of the virtues of building such relationships is the reservoir of trust and goodwill that they establish; highly effective managers are adept at cultivating these relationships, whereas less effective managers generally fail to build bonds (Kaplan, 1991).

The 9th variable entered was organisational awareness which was removed on the step as it had already appeared in as the 2nd predictor variable in the list.

Achievement orientation was the 10th variable entered in the analysis, the R value was 0.6369, which is significant at 0.01 level ($F = 20.31$). With the addition of achievement orientation the strength of relationship between performance and the independent variables mentioned so far put together will become 63.69%. The value of R^2 (0.40565) signifies that the addition of achievement orientation the total variance in the performance variable that can be predicted by these independent variables has become 40.56%.

Though, achievement orientation is inherently essential for performance. As stated earlier, performance is of two types, task performance and contextual performance. For task performance achievement orientation is very essential, whereas in the case of contextual performance where one needs to co-operate and share with others, the excessive focus on task

performance (n Ach) may hinder the performance output. This can be the reason for the negative relationship between achievement orientation and performance here.

The equation for this step will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 3.42 + 0.1002 (\text{EI7}) + 0.15 (\text{EI13}) - 0.068 (\text{EI15}) - 0.096 (\text{EI5}) - 0.11(\text{Per 3}) + 0.02 (\text{Att 2}) + 0.084 (\text{EI19}) - 0.051 (\text{EI8}).$$

The 11th variable entered into the equation was EI6 (Conscientiousness) of EI variable. The R value (0.6541) indicates the strength of relationship increased to 65.41% with the addition of EI6 between independent variables and performance the value is significant at 0.01 levels.

The value of R^2 is 0.4278, while predicts the variance contributed by the addition of EI6 to the other independent variables is 42.78%.

Equation will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 3.08 + 0.12 (\text{EI7}) + 0.123 (\text{EI13}) - 0.064 (\text{EI13}) - 0.110 (\text{EI5}) - 0.12 (\text{Pr 3}) + 0.020 (\text{Att 2}) + 0.069 (\text{EI19}) - 0.077 (\text{EI8}) + 0.071 (\text{EI6}).$$

The signs of the Conscientiousness competence include being careful, self-disciplined, and scrupulous in attending to responsibilities. Conscientiousness distinguishes the model organizational citizens the people who keep things running as they should. In studies of job performance, outstanding effectiveness in virtually all jobs – from the bottom to the top of the corporate ladder–depends on Conscientiousness (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Among sales representatives for a large U.S. appliance manufacturer, those who were most conscientious had the largest volume of sales (Barrick, Mount & Straus, 1993).

Self awareness is the 12th variable entered with an R value of 0.664, that significant at 0.001 level ($F = 18.62$). This shows that the strength of relationship has increased to 66.4% between the dependent variable (performance) and the independent variables so far entered.

The R^2 value was 0.44108 indicating that the total variation caused by these 12 variables on dependent variable was 44.1%.

The partial regression coefficient value (b) indicates the contribution of each of the 12 independent variables to performance. For every unit of change in EI7, EI13, EI15, EI5, Per 3, Att 2, EI19, EI8, EI6 and EI1, there will be, 0.1183, 0.100, -0.059, -0.123, -0.1357, 0.0244, 0.064, -0.082, 0.065 and 0.08122 unit changes in performance.

The equation for this step will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 2.85 + 0.1183 (\text{EI7}) + 0.100 (\text{EI13}) - 0.059 (\text{EI15}) - 0.123 (\text{EI5}) - 0.136 (\text{Per 3}) + 0.0245 (\text{Att 2}) + 0.0641 (\text{EI19}) - 0.0825 (\text{EI8}) + 0.065 (\text{EI6}) + 0.081 (\text{EI1}).$$

Self awareness does influence performance, there are many studies supporting this view. Church (1997), found managers' self awareness lead to greater management performance and self monitoring was positively related to self awareness. Managers who maintain self awareness were rated more effective by both superiors and subordinates than those who were not self-aware (Sosik and Megerian 1999).

The next variable entered into the stepwise regression analysis was EI20 (team work and collaboration). The value of R was 0.6714 significant at 0.01 level ($F = 17.54$). With the addition of EI20 the strength of relationship between performance and the predictor variables have increased to 67.14%.

The value of R^2 (0.4508) signifies that the degree of variance contributed by the predictor variables to performance was 45.08%. The regression equation at this stage will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 3.1233 + 0.1186 (\text{EI7}) + 0.1221 (\text{EI13}) - 0.0508 (\text{EI15}) - 0.13387 (\text{EI5}) - 0.1355 (\text{Per 3}) + 0.0224 (\text{Att 2}) + 0.0725 (\text{EI19}) - 0.0692 (\text{EI8}) + 0.079 (\text{EI6}) + 0.0802 (\text{EI1}) - 0.0423 (\text{EI2}).$$

The fourteenth variable entered in the partial regression equation was self confidence (EI3), the R value was 0.679 significant at 0.01 level ($F = 16.72$). The R value shows that the strength of relationship between the predictor variables including EI3 and performance has increased to 67.9% at this step.

The R^2 was found to be 0.461 which shows a variance of 46.1% on the performance by the 14 predictor variables mentioned so far.

The regression equation at this step will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 3.010986 + 0.1104 (\text{EI7}) + 0.1029 (\text{EI13}) - 0.0507 (\text{EI15}) - 0.135 (\text{EI5}) - 0.151 (\text{Per 3}) + 0.0258 (\text{Alt 2}) + 0.0688 (\text{EI19}) - 0.07021 (\text{EI8}) + 0.071 (\text{EI6}) + 0.075 (\text{EI1}) - 0.044 (\text{E20}) + 0.0389 (\text{EI3}).$$

The positive impact of self confidence competence on performance has been shown in a variety of studies. Among supervisors, managers and executives, a high degree of self confident distinguishes the best from the average performance (Boyatzis 1982).

The last variable entered in the present analysis was self control with an R value of 0.68845 significant at 0.001 level ($F = 16.15$). The R value suggests a strength of 68.8% relationship between performance and the 15 predictor variables mentioned so far.

The value of R^2 was 0.474 which indicates that the variance accounted by the predictor variables on performance is 47.4%.

The equation at this stage of analysis will be:

$$\text{Performance} = 2.82272 + 0.1187 (\text{EI7}) + 0.094 (\text{EI13}) - 0.059088 (\text{EI15}) - 0.121786 (\text{EI5}) - 0.1482 (\text{Per 3}) + 0.027 (\text{Alt 2}) + 0.5914 (\text{EI19}) - 0.07131 (\text{EI8}) + 0.0882 (\text{EI6}) + 0.09379 (\text{EI1}) - 0.0346 (\text{EI20}) + 0.05085 (\text{EI3}) - 0.05716 (\text{EI4}).$$

From the equation it is evident that variables like adaptability, developing others, job involvement, building bond, conscientiousness, self awareness, self confidence, influence, performance predict performance positively whereas the influence of influence, trustworthiness, goal directed behaviour, achievement orientation, teamwork and collaboration and self control are negative on performance.

General Comments

In the present analysis the criterion variable performance is predicted by 14 predictor variables. The variables are presented in the order of the degree of influence they have on the criterion variable. From the final regression equation of the final step we can understand the predictive relationship each variable has with performance. In the equation the predictor variables are presented in the order of their capability to influence variance in the dependent variable, that adaptability, organsitional awareness, developing others, influence, trustworthiness, goal directed behaviour without proper planning, job involvement, building bonds, achievement orientation, conscientiousness, self awareness, team work and collaboration, self confidence and self control. From this analysis it can be concluded that from among the 14 predictor variables most of the influential variables (12 of them) are EI variables and the first five predictors are exclusively EI variables. This

substantiates the fact that EI is an important predictor of performance in managers.

The present analysis supports the definition of EI by Salovey & Mayer (1990) as the accurate appraisal and expression of emotions in self and others, the adaptive regulation of emotions in the self and others and the utilization of emotions to facilitate performance.

SECTION IV

't'-test analysis

Personality type A and B on Emotional Intelligence

The first, t-test analysis was conducted to find out the significant mean differences between the type A and type B personalities on EI variables (Table IV. IV. 1). The t-test showed that regarding the Emotional Intelligence (overall score) aspect, the type A personalities have higher mean (324.69) than the type B personalities (295.23) and the critical ratios obtained for the mean differences of the two groups was 3.44 and was significant at 0.001 level.

Apart from the higher significant mean score in the overall EI, the type A personalities have scored higher on all variables of Emotional Intelligence compared to type B personalities with the exception of Accurate Self assessment ($t = 0.84$) and Building Bonds ($t' 0.19$), both had higher mean value for type B groups, but were not statistically significant. Otherwise, there were no significantly higher mean score in favour of the type B personalities for any variable of Emotional Intelligence.

This analysis clearly shows that type A personalities are significantly higher on all Emotional Intelligence variables and overall Emotional Intelligence compared to type B personalities, with the exception of 2

emotional intelligence variables viz., Accurate Self assessment and Building bonds, both have not statistically significant higher means.

TABLE IV.IV.1
t-test results on the difference between
type A and type B Personalities on EI

Variables	Group I type B (N = 53)		Group II type A (N = 194)		t'
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	
Self awareness (EI 1)	8.81	2.02	9.05	1.66	-0.78
Self assessment (EI 2)	18.02	3.83	17.54	3.02	0.84
Self confidence (EI 3)	16.96	3.51	19.40	3.61	-4.46***
Self-control (EI 4)	10.94	3.25	12.59	2.45	-3.43***
Trustworthiness (EI 5)	10.62	2.096	11.46	2.14	-2.58**
Conscientiousness (EI 6)	16.92	2.55	17.10	2.57	-0.45
Adaptability (EI 7)	11.72	2.92	13.38	2.92	-3.68**
Achievement orientation (EI 8)	16.58	3.13	17.15	2.98	-1.17
Initiative (EI 9)	14.17	4.49	15.88	3.65	-2.55**
Empathy (EI 10)	18.21	4.09	20.57	3.82	-3.78***
Organisational awareness (EI 11)	9.64	2.40	11.69	2.59	-5.4***
Service orientation (EI 12)	18.74	3.92	21.44	3.9	-4.46***
Developing Others (EI 13)	14.15	3.57	15.89	2.64	-3.31**
Leadership (EI 14)	11.30	2.25	12.34	2.04	-3.02**
Influence (EI 15)	15.45	5.98	18.58	4.35	-3.55***
Communication (EI 16)	15.7	3.69	17.36	3.23	-2.98**
Change catalyst (EI 17)	19.75	4.84	20.97	2.97	-1.74
Conflict Management (EI 18)	11.17	3.98	13.87	3.64	-4.45***
Building Bonds (EI 19)	12.13	2.50	12.06	1.92	0.19
Team work and collaboration (EI 20)	24.23	4.68	26.38	3.42	-3.02**
Overall EI	295.23	58.16	324.69	43.007	-3.44***

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

SECTION V

3 way ANOVA

Emotional Intelligence, Personality and Age on Job Attitudes

A 3 way ANOVA was conducted to find out the independent effect, and interaction effects of personality (type A and type B), EI (low EI and high EI) and age (low, medium and high) on organisational commitment, Job involvement, Job satisfaction and Overall Job attitudes (Table IV. V. 1)

Main effects (Personality and Job Attitude)

In this section the sample was divided on the basis of personality types into two groups viz., type A and type B and the two groups were tested for their mean values for each of the 3 job attitudes and also for overall job attitudes. The results (table IV.V.1.1) indicated a significantly higher mean values for type A personalities for Job involvement (53.88), Job satisfaction (52.07) and for overall Job attitudes (164.41) (table IV.V.2)). The type A personalities have significantly higher overall job attitudes as well as Job involvement and Job satisfaction compared to type B personalities.

EI and Job Attitudes

The sample was divided into two groups based on their EI scores keeping medium as a act of point. The two groups, low EI group and high EI groups were compared to find out which group has higher Job attitudes. From the F values of the analysis it was found that except for job involvement all the other measures have significant difference between the two groups. As expected the High EI group had significantly higher overall Job attitudes (168.79), organisational commitment (61.02) and Job satisfaction (55.24) compared to Low EI groups (table IV.V.1.2).

TABLE IV.V.1

The results of the 3 way ANOVA, showing the F values for main effect, 2 way and 3 way interactions among Emotional intelligence, Personality and Age on Job Attitudes

Variables	Residual		Personality			EI			Age			Pt x EI			Pt x Age			EI x Age			Pt x EI x Age		
	Sum of Sq.	Mean sq.	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F
Att 1	10075.0	42.87	55.2	55.2	1.29	1738.24	1738.24	40.55 ***	219.02	109.51	2.55	0.404	0.404	0.009	16.141	8.07	0.188	249.08	124.54	2.905	475.95	2.377	5.551 **
Att 2	11427.36	48.63	223.83	223.83	4.60 *	0.169	0.1569	0.003	1063.63	531.81	10.94 ***	432.89	432.89	8.9 **	168.28	84.14	1.73	176.09	88.05	1.811	102.65	51.33	1.06
Att 3	14193.75	60.399	310.43	310.43	5.14 *	2048.68	2048.68	33.91 ***	1474.57	737.28	12.20 ***	339.206	339.206	5.616 *	182.5603	91.251	1.511	1232.75	616.38	10.205 ***	141.167	70.58	1.17
Att Tot	62977.8	267.99	1600.74	1660.47	5.97 *	7632.79	7632.79	28.48 ***	129.18	648.09	2.42	3.073	3.073	0.011	29.008	14.504	0.054	1440.69	720.35	2.69	1326.67	663.33	2.475

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

TABLE IV.V.1.1
Table Showing Means and Standards Deviations of two
Personality groups on Job Attitudes

Job Attitude	Personality B (N = 53)		Personality A (N = 194)	
	X	σ	X	σ
Att 1	57.70	5.85	58.46	7.57
Att 2	49.21	5.94	53.88	7.81
Att 3	51.53	4.31	52.07	9.98
Att total	158.43	13.10	164.41	18.45

TABLE IV.V.1.2
Table Showing Means and Standards Deviations of two
EI groups on Job Attitudes

Job Attitudes	EI Low (N = 124)		EI High (N = 123)	
	X	σ	X	σ
Att 1	55.59	7.12	61.02	6.27
Att 2	53.23	7.11	52.52	8.22
Att 3	48.69	8.37	55.24	8.55
Att Tot	157.51	16.58	168.79	16.81

TABLE. IV.V.1.3
Table Showing Means and Standards
Deviations of three Age groups on Job Attitudes

Job Attitudes	Age (Low) (N=75)		Age (Medium) (N=58)		Age (High) (N=114)	
	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ
Att 1	59.57	5.84	57.81	8.70	57.70	7.19
Att 2	49.29	7.76	52.28	8.35	55.54	6.16
Att 3	55.64	6.04	51.50	12.18	49.76	8.12
Att tot	164.51	16.41	161.59	21.52	163.00	16.16

Age and Job Attitudes

In the next main effect analysis the entire sample was divided into 3 groups based on their Age as Low age group, Medium age group and High age group. These groups were compared to find out who has higher Job attitudes. The F values showed that the groups significantly differed in their Job involvement and Job satisfaction from each other. The One way table (table IV.V.1.3) shows that the higher age group has better job involvement (55.54), and the lower age group has a better Job satisfaction among the three age categories. In the other measures of Job attitudes the groups did not significantly differ among them.

Two-way Interaction

For the two way analysis the different possible combinations between Personality EI and age categories mentioned earlier were tested for their significant difference in Job Attitudes.

EI and Personality on Job Attitudes

In the first two way analysis the four different possible combinations of the variables were tested to find out which group has better scores for the Job attitudes. From the F values it can be understood that, in Job involvement and Job satisfaction there is significant differences among the groups. The two way table (table IV.V.1.4) shows that the type A persons with Low EI have a higher Job involvement (55.25) and type A persons with high EI have a higher Job Satisfaction (55.91) compared to the rest of the 3 groups.

TABLE IV.V.1.4

Means and Standard Deviations of 2 way ANOVA for Personality and EI Groups

Job Attitudes	Personality type B (53)				Personality type A (194)			
	EI Low (N=29)		EI High (N=24)		EI Low (N=95)		EI High (N=99)	
	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ
Att 1	55.41	4.26	60.46	6.39	55.64	7.80	61.16	6.27
Att 2	46.62	6.35	52.33	3.49	55.25	6.05	52.57	9.02
Att 3	50.72	5.03	52.5	3.05	48.07	9.08	55.909	9.31
Att Tot	152.76	11.57	165.29	11.64	158.97	17.62	169.64	17.79

Personality and Age

In the second two way analysis the sample was divided into six groups based on the different combinations of 3 age groups and two personality groups mentioned earlier. The F values showed no significantly higher mean differences for any of the six groups compared to each other. From the two way table (table IV.V.1.5) it can be observed that the mean values of all the groups are more or less the same for all the job attitude components as well as for overall job attitude.

This means among the six combinations listed they do not differ significantly in the Job attitude components and overall job attitude.

TABLE IV.V.1.5

Means and Standards deviation of 2 way ANOVA for Personality and Age groups on Job Attitude

Job Attitudes		Personality type B (N=53)			Personality type A (N=194)		
		Age			Age		
		Low (36)	Medium (7)	High (10)	Low (39)	Medium (51)	High (104)
Att 1	X	58.53	56.00	55.9	60.54	58.06	57.88
	σ	5.59	5.35	6.97	5.97	9.08	7.22
Att 2	X	49.03	48.57	50.3	49.54	52.78	56.05
	σ	6.89	1.40	4.03	8.57	8.78	6.10
Att 3	X	52.25	52.14	48.50	58.77	51.41	49.88
	σ	3.98	1.07	5.68	5.96	13.00	8.33
Att Tot	X	159.81	156.71	154.7	168.85	162.25	163.81
	σ	14.81	4.99	9.87	16.81	22.83	16.45

EI and Age

In the third 2 way analysis the sample was divided into six groups based on EI and Age categories as mentioned above. From the F values of the analysis it can be observed that only Job satisfaction has a significantly higher value among the different Job attitudes tested for the different groups tested. From the two way (tableIV.V.1.6), it can be seen that High EI group with low age have the highest Job Satisfaction (mean 58.33) among all the groups. This has been stated by Crites (1969) after reviewing early empirical studies on Job Satisfaction with age and discovered a developmental trend.

A similar trend which was called a "U-shaped satisfaction cycle" that stated, at about age 20 with high satisfaction, dipped to low satisfaction at about 30, and then gradually rose to high satisfaction by mid-career was reported by Crites (1969) In rest of the attitude measures, the groups does not differ significantly.

TABLE IV.V.1.6
Means and Standard deviations of 2 way ANOVA for EI and Age groups
on Job Attitude

Job Attitudes		EI Low (124)			EI High (123)		
		Age			Age		
		Low (33)	Medium (20)	High (71)	Low (42)	Medium (38)	High (43)
Att 1	X	56.49	51.85	56.23	62.00	60.95	60.14
	σ	3.92	9.24	7.36	5.99	6.60	6.25
Att 2	X	47.73	54.85	55.34	50.52	50.92	55.88
	σ	7.15	5.85	6.06	8.08	9.18	6.37
Att 3	X	52.21	42.35	48.85	58.33	56.32	51.28
	σ	5.05	12.26	7.30	5.39	9.08	9.22
Att Tot	X	156.42	149.05	160.41	170.86	168.18	167.30
	σ	14.495	21.26	15.31	15.11	18.76	16.78

3-way Analysis (EI , Personality and Age)

A three way ANOVA was conducted to find out the single best group using the 12 possible combinations of the three variables i.e. personality, EI and age, in terms of their Job attitudes dimensions and overall Job attitude. In the three way analysis the F value showed that in only one measure of Job attitudes (organisational commitment) one of the 12 groups was significantly better than the rest.

From the 3 way table (IV.V.1.7) it can be understood that type B persons with high EI who are in the high age category have significantly higher organisational commitment (mean = 62.67) compared to the rest of the groups.

In conclusion the type B persons with high EI, in the higher age category have significantly higher organisational commitment compared to the rest.

TABLE IV.V.1.7

Table showing the means and standard deviations for the 3-way analysis among EI, personality and age on Job Attitudes

Job Attitudes		Personality B (53)						Personality A (194)					
		EI Low (29)			EI High (24)			EI Low (95)			EI High (99)		
		Low (20)	Medium (2)	High (7)	Low (16)	Medium (5)	High (3)	Low (30)	Medium (18)	High (64)	Low (26)	Medium (33)	High (40)
Att 1	X	55.75	60.5	53.0	62.0	54.2	62.67	57.62	50.89	56.58	62.0	61.97	59.95
	σ	2.55	10.61	5.42	6.45	0.84	5.69	5.33	8.88	7.49	5.82	6.49	6.32
Att 2	X	45.45	48.0	49.57	53.5	48.8	52.0	51.23	55.61	55.97	48.69	51.24	56.18
	σ	6.89	2.83	4.58	3.50	0.83	2.00	6.25	5.63	5.89	9.52	9.83	6.50
Att 3	X	51.05	52.5	49.29	53.75	52.0	46.67	54.00	41.22	48.80	61.15	56.97	51.63
	σ	4.78	2.12	64.2	1.91	0.707	3.79	5.10	12.42	7.44	4.87	9.59	9.43
Att tot	X	152.25	161.00	151.86	169.25	155.00	161.33	162.85	147.72	161.34	171.85	170.18	167.75
	σ	12.69	9.90	8.63	11.68	0.000	10.97	15.23	21.93	15.63	17.03	19.38	17.15

3 Way ANVOA

EI, Personality and Age on Performance

3 Way ANOVA was conducted for different levels of Personalities (type A & type B), Emotional Intelligences (high and low) and Age (low, medium and high). The analysis revealed the interaction effects among different groups on their performances.

The analysis was done at 3 levels, based on the categories of groups interacting to predict the relationships viz., The F value of the main effects, the two way interaction and the three way interactions (table IV.V.2).

The Main Effects (Personality and Performance)

In the first analysis the sample was divided into two groups based on their personalities, viz., type B and type A, and was tested for their differences in different performance ratings used (SR1, SR2, CO1, CO2 and Sup) and for overall performance. The F value showed that there are highly significantly higher scores for type B personalities for performance ratings. By SR1 (mean 18.25), significant at 0.001 level, CO2 (mean 7.02) significant at 0.01 levels; Supervisor rating (mean 5.68) significant at 0.05 level and in overall performance rating (mean = 9.5) significant at 0.01 level.

TABLE IV.V.2

Results of the 3 way ANOVA of Performance for Different Levels of Personality, EI and Age

Variables	Residual		Personality			EI			Age			Pt x EI			Pt x Age			EI x Age			Pt x EI x Age		
	Sum of Sq.	Mean sq.	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F
SR1	165.18	0.703	12.83	12.83	18.25 ***	6.71	6.71	9.55	1.32	0.659	0.94	0.115	0.115	0.163	5.72	2.86	4.07 *	7.83	3.91	5.57 **	6.69	3.34	4.76 **
SR2	165.42	0.704	2.604	2.604	3.699	48.87	48.87	69.42 ***	4.06	2.03	2.89	5.86	5.86	8.32 **	0.83	0.414	0.588	8.26	4.13	5.86 **	6.34	3.17	4.505 *
CO1	187.57	0.798	2.502	2.502	3.134	10.56	10.562	13.73 ***	5.743	2.872	3.598 *	2.406	2.406	3.014	1.67	0.84	1.046	17.32	8.665	10.85 ***	3.68	1.84	2.307
CO2	182.77	0.778	5.46	5.46	7.02 **	17.29	17.29	22.24 ***	11.58	5.79	7.44 ***	0.63	0.63	0.809	4.081	2.04	2.62	17.08	8.54	10.98 ***	15.34	7.67	9.86 ***
Sup.	163.50	0.696	3.95	3.95	5.68 *	12.896	12.890	18.54 ***	4.93	2.46	3.54 *	0.38	0.38	0.54	1.78	0.89	1.28	15.43	7.72	11.09 ***	51.96	2.59	3.74 *
Per.	122.03	0.519	4.93	4.93	9.5 **	16.94	16.94	32.63 ***	4.69	2.35	4.52 *	1.02	1.02	1.96	1.88	0.944	1.82	12.31	6.15	11.85 ***	6.72	3.36	6.47 **

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

In other performance ratings also type B had higher mean scores though not significant statistically. In short the type B personalities are better than type A personalities in all measures of performances (table IV.V.2.1).

TABLE IV.V.2.1

Table showing the Mean and Standard deviation for the One-way Interaction between Personality Groups on Performance

Performance	Personality B (N = 53)		Personality A (N = 194)	
	X	σ	X	σ
SR 1	6.08	0.78	5.43	0.92
SR 2	5.75	1.14	5.51	0.99
CO 1	5.58	1.22	5.30	0.93
CO 2	5.83	1.10	5.29	1.01
Sup	5.60	0.90	5.20	0.94
Per	5.77	0.91	5.35	0.83

EI and Performance

When two groups of EI (low and high EI) were compared for their performances it was found that, in all the performance ratings except for SRI, the high EI group scored significant higher mean values and all were significant at 0.001 level (table IV.V.2.2). In short high EI groups are significantly higher on performance compared to low EI groups.

TABLE IV.V.2.2

Table showing the Mean and Standard deviations for One-way Interactions between Low and High EI groups

Performance	EI Low (N = 124)		EI High (N = 123)	
	X	σ	X	σ
SR 1	5.40	0.91	5.75	0.92
SR 2	5.08	1.02	6.05	0.78
CO 1	5.12	1.05	5.61	0.89
CO 2	5.09	0.99	5.72	1.03
Sup	5.02	0.90	5.55	0.93
Per	5.14	0.81	5.74	0.81

In short the high EI persons are very high on their performance (in all measures of performance expect SRI)

Age and Performance

In the comparison of the different age categories (low, medium and high) for their performances it was found from the F values that there were significant differences in the performances of the three age groups except for SR1 and SR2 ratings. The mean values in table (IV.V.2.3) for the significant performance ratings were as follows: CO1 (5.66) and overall performance (5.67) both in favour of the medium age group, and the low age group was significantly higher on CO2 (5.77) and Sup (3.52).

TABLE IV.V.2.3

Table showing the mean and standard deviation for the One-way Interaction of Age groups on Performance

Performance	Age (Low) (N=75)		Age (Medium) (N=58)		Age (High) (N=114)	
	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ
Self 1	5.81	0.78	5.66	0.95	5.37	0.97
Self 2	5.71	1.04	5.90	0.89	5.30	1.02
Co 1	5.49	1.04	5.66	0.93	5.13	0.96
Co 2	5.77	0.91	5.66	0.98	5.04	1.06
Sup	5.52	0.84	5.5	0.995	5.03	0.93
Per	5.66	0.81	5.67	0.84	5.17	0.84

In short in this analysis (table IV.V.2.3) the low age group was rated high on self rating 1 (5.81, not significant), CO2 (5.77 significant at 0.01) and supervisor rating (5.52 significant at 0.05). The medium age group was rated higher on self rating 2 (5.90 not significant), CO1 (5.66 significant at 0.05) and for overall performance (5.67 significant at 0.05 levels). The high age group was not rated higher on any of the ratings used. The overall performance was higher for medium age group.

Two way Interactions: In the two way interaction analysis for differences in performance on the different groups (the combinations of groups tested were, Personality Vs. EI, Personality Vs. Age and EI Vs. Age).

Personality and Emotional Intelligence on Performance: In spite of the individual effects personalities and EI had on performance, when they interacted there was only one combination which produced a significantly

high performance compared to its counterpart combinations. The rating which showed a significant difference in performance was self rating 2, the F value showed a 0.01 level significance and the type B personalities who have high EI are significantly better on self rating 2 measure of performances. Other groups did not differ significantly in their performances (table IV.V.2.4).

TABLE IV.V.2.4.

Table showing the Mean and Standard Deviation for Two-way Interaction between Personality and EI on Performance

Performance	Personality B (53)				Personality A (194)			
	Low EI (N=29)		High EI (N=24)		Low EI (N=95)		High EI (N=99)	
	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ
SR1	5.86	0.79	6.33	0.702	5.25	0.90	5.61	0.91
SR2	4.93	0.80	0.75	0.53	5.13	1.07	5.88	0.73
CO1	4.97	1.24	6.33	0.64	5.17	0.99	5.43	0.86
CO2	5.31	0.97	6.46	0.93	5.02	0.99	5.55	0.97
Sup	5.10	0.72	6.21	0.72	5.00	0.95	5.39	0.90
Per	5.23	0.74	6.42	0.63	5.11	0.83	5.57	0.77

Personality and Age on Performance

When different possible combination among type B and type A personalities and 3 age groups were tested for their difference in performance ratings, from all the 6 possible combinations on different performance ratings only in one rating, that is in Self Rating 1 there was a significant difference between the groups. From table (IV.V.2.5) it can be seen that the group higher on SR1 was type B persons in the medium age category (mean 6.43, F significant at 0.05 level).

TABLE IV.V.2.5

Table showing the Mean and Standard Deviation for Two-way interaction between Personality and Age on Performance

Performance		Personality type B (N=53)			Personality type A (N=194)		
		Age			Age		
		Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
SR1	X	6.22	6.43	5.30	5.44	5.55	5.38
	σ	0.68	0.79	0.67	0.68	0.92	1
SR2	X	5.81	6.14	5.3	5.62	5.86	5.30
	σ	1.21	1.22	0.67	0.85	0.85	1.05
CO1	X	5.56	6.43	5.10	5.44	5.55	5.13
	σ	1.27	0.79	0.99	0.79	0.90	0.97
CO2	X	6.06	6.00	4.90	5.51	5.61	5.05
	σ	1.04	1.15	0.88	0.68	0.69	1.08
Sup	X	5.69	6.00	5.00	5.36	5.43	5.03
	σ	0.86	1.15	0.67	0.81	0.96	0.95
Perf.	X	5.87	6.20	5.12	5.47	5.60	5.18
	σ	0.89	0.99	0.63	0.68	0.80	0.86

In short only type B persons in the medium age group has some significantly higher performance compared to other groups, rest of the groups does not differ significantly in any of the performance ratings.

Emotional Intelligence and Age on Performance

In the different groups formed on the basis of the 6 combinations of low and high EI and 3 groups of age, the performance ratings were compared for significant of differences.

The F values showed that, there are very highly significant differences among these groups in the different performance ratings used. It was very interesting to note from table (IV.V.2.6), that in all the performance ratings, people with high EI in the low age category were significantly better than the rest of them in their performance scores. This clearly shows that people who have high EI and lower age are best in overall performance and all the individual measures (SR1, SR2, CO1, CO2, Sup) of performance used.

TABLE IV.V.2.6

Table showing the Means and Standard Deviations for Two-way Interaction between EI and Age on Performance

Performance		EI Low (124)			EI High (123)		
		Age			Age		
		Low (33)	Medium (20)	High (71)	Low (42)	Medium (38)	High (43)
SR1	X	5.64	5.85	5.15	5.95	5.55	5.72
	σ	0.86	1.04	0.82	0.696	0.89	1.098
SR2	X	4.91	5.80	4.96	6.33	5.95	5.86
	σ	0.88	1.20	0.95	0.65	0.70	0.89
CO1	X	4.82	6.00	5.01	6.02	5.47	5.33
	σ	1.13	0.97	0.90	0.56	0.86	1.04
CO2	X	5.21	5.95	4.79	6.21	5.50	5.44
	σ	0.89	1.15	0.83	0.65	0.86	1.28
Sup	X	4.91	5.75	4.87	6.00	5.37	5.28
	σ	0.72	1.12	0.81	0.58	0.91	1.05
Perf.	X	5.10	5.87	4.96	6.10	5.57	5.53
	σ	0.73	1.02	0.67	0.55	0.72	0.98

Three way Interaction (Personality, EI and Age)

In the three way interaction analysis we were trying to find out the best combination of (Personality, EI and Age groups) which can predict significantly better performance. The F value showed that except the CO1 rating rest of the all ratings and overall performance, difference between the groups. From the table (IV.V.2.7) it can be seen that in SR1 type B people with high EI in the medium age group have higher (mean 6.8) performance score than the rest of the groups. In SR2 type B people with high EI in the lower age category has a better (mean 6.94) compared to the rest of the groups. In CO2 type B persons with high EI in the lower age category have a higher (mean 6.81) than the rest, in supervisor rating type B persons with high EI in the medium age category have a higher (mean 6.4) value than the rest of the groups. Finally in the overall performance type B persons with high EI in the medium age group were found to better (mean 6.68) than the rest of the group.

In conclusion overall performance type B personalities with high EI in the medium age groups are better than the rest of them.

TABLE IV.V.2.7

Table showing the Means and Standard Deviations of the Three-way Interaction on Personality, EI and Age on Performance

Performance		Personality Type B (N = 53)						Personality Type A (N = 194)					
		EI Low (29)			EI High (24)			EI Low (95)			EI High (99)		
		Age Low (20)	Age Medium (2)	Age High (7)	Age Low (16)	Age Medium (15)	Age High (3)	Age Low (13)	Age Medium (18)	Age High (64)	Age Low (26)	Age Medium (33)	Age High (40)
SR1	X	6.05	5.5	5.43	6.44	6.8	5.00	5.00	5.88	5.125	5.65	5.36	5.775
	σ	0.76	0.707	0.79	5.12	0.45	0.000	0.58	1.08	0.826	0.629	0.783	1.120
SR2	X	4.9	4.5	5.14	6.94	6.8	5.66	4.92	5.94	4.937	5.96	5.818	5.875
	σ	0.85	0.707	0.69	0.25	0.447	0.577	0.95	1.11	0.973	0.527	0.635	0.911
CO1	X	4.9	5.5	5.00	6.38	6.8	5.33	4.7	6.06	5.02	5.81	5.27	5.32
	σ	1.33	0.707	1.15	0.500	0.447	0.578	0.75	0.998	0.88	0.49	0.72	1.07
CO2	X	5.45	4.5	5.14	6.81	0.6	4.33	4.85	6.11	4.75	5.85	5.33	5.52
	σ	0.998	0.707	0.899	0.403	0.55	0.57	0.55	1.079	0.817	0.464	0.777	1.281
Sup	X	5.15	5.00	5.00	6.38	6.4	5.00	4.54	5.83	4.86	5.77	5.21	5.300
	σ	0.67	1.41	0.82	0.50	0.89	0.000	0.66	1.098	0.814	0.514	0.82	1.098
Perf.	X	5.29	5.00	5.14	6.59	6.68	5.066	4.8	5.967	4.93	5.81	5.4	5.56
	σ	0.756	0.848	0.76	0.35	0.52	0.116	0.589	1.006	0.66	0.432	0.592	1.002

One Way ANOVA

Experience on Job Attitudes

The sample was divided into 3 groups based on the number of years of experience in the jobs, as group (a) I (0-15 years), (b) group II (from 16-30 years) and (c) group III (from 31 years and above). These groups were tested for ANOVA to find out if they differ significantly among themselves in their Job attitude variables (Organisational commitment, Job involvement, Job satisfaction and Overall Job attitudes) and performance (Self rating 1, Self rating 2, Coworker 1, Coworker Rating 2, Supervisor Rating and Overall performance). The F-values and mean values of these tests are summarised in table (IV.V.3) and table (IV.V.4) respectively.

TABLE IV.V.3

F-Values for Job Attitudes for Various groups formed on the basis of experience

Variable Job Attitudes	Between Groups		Within Groups		F
	Sum of squares	Mean squares	Sum of squares	Mean squares	
Organisational Commitment	64.26	32.13	12801.17	52.46	0.61
Job Involvement	1874.77	937.39	12631.58	51.77	18.11***
Job Satisfaction	788.17	394.08	19408.34	79.54	4.95**
Overall Job Attitude	817.43	408.72	75314.42	308.67	1.32

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

TABLE IV.V.3.1
Means and Standard Deviations
for the 3 experienced groups based on Job Attitudes

Variables	Group I (N=75)		Group II (N=98)		Group III (N=74)	
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	Mean	σ
Organisational commitment	59.07	5.80	57.99	8.42	57.92	6.86
Job Involvement	50.20	6.07	51.85	8.27	56.96	6.71
Job Satisfaction	54.61	5.98	51.14	10.72	50.34	8.77
Overall Job attitude	163.88	15.93	160.98	19.25	165.22	16.80

Experience on Job Attitudes

The Scheffé shows that among the Job Attitudes, Job Involvement ($F = 18.11$ significant at 0.001 level) (table IV.V.3.1) was found to vary between group 3 and group 1 and between group 3 and group 2 and Job Satisfaction ($F = 4.95$ significant at 0.01 level) was found to vary between group 1 and group 2, and group 1 and group 3 significantly.

TABLE IV.V.4
F-Values for Performance for Various groups formed on the basis of experience

Performance	Between Groups		Within Groups		F
	Sum of squares	Mean squares	Sum of squares	Mean squares	
Self Rating 1	17.38	8.91	194.68	0.80	11.17***
Self Rating 2	5.99	2.99	252.79	1.04	2.89
Coworker Rating 1	7.60	3.80	239.61	0.98	3.87*
Coworker Rating 2	20.42	10.21	253.09	1.04	9.84***
Supervisor Rating	9.65	4.82	210.94	0.86	5.58**
Overall Performance	10.20	5.10	173.08	0.71	7.19***

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

This means that as the employee becomes more experienced in the Job he/she tends to have more commitment and involvement in the job, whereas in the case of Job Satisfaction the freshers tend to have highest job satisfaction and it tends to get reduced as the employer attains more and more experience. May be this is because of the monotonous and unchallenging nature of the job.

Experience and Job Performance

Among the performance variables, in Self Rating 1 ($F = 11.17$, significant at 0.001 level), coworker rating 1 ($F = 3.87$, significant at 0.05 level), coworker rating 2 ($F = 9.84$ significant at 0.001 level) and in the overall performance ($F = 7.19$ significant at 0.001 level), the group with least experience (group I) was found to have highest mean values (5.93) Table (IV.V.4.1). The Scheffe test showed that in Self Rating 1, the group 1 differed significantly from group 2; in Co-worker Rating 1, group 1 differed significantly from group 3. In Co-worker 2, group 1 significantly differed from both group 2 and group 3. In Supervisory rating, the group 1 significantly differed from group 2 and group 3 and in the Overall Performance; group 1 significantly differed from group 2 and group 3.

This means that (from table IV.V.4.1), in Self Rating 1, the low experience group had better performance than medium experience group. In Co-worker Rating 1, the low experience group was better than high experience group. In Co-worker 2 rating, low experience group was better than medium and high experience group. In Supervisory Rating, low experience group was better than medium and high experience group and finally in the overall performance also the low experience group was significantly better than medium and high experience groups.

To conclude, the overall performance rating, the low experience group was significantly higher than medium and high experience group.

TABLE IV.V.4.1
Means and Standard Deviations
for the 3 experienced groups based on Performance

Variables	Group I (N=75)		Group II (N=98)		Group III (N=74)	
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	Mean	σ
Self Rating 1	5.93	0.794	5.29	0.96	5.58	0.89
Self Rating 2	5.77	1.07	5.40	1.05	5.57	0.91
Coworker Rating 1	5.59	1.08	5.37	0.91	5.14	0.997
Coworker Rating 2	5.84	0.93	5.20	0.95	5.23	1.18
Supervising Quality	5.59	0.87	5.15	0.92	5.16	0.99
Overall Performance	5.74	0.84	5.28	0.84	5.34	0.84

ONE WAY ANOVA

Salary, Job Attitude and Performance

For this analysis the sample was split into 3 groups based on the salary, as (a) group I (low salary group, group up to Rs.15 thousand) (b) group II (medium salary group; from Rs.16 – 30 thousand) and (c) group III (high salary group from Rs.31 – above). These groups were compared for their Job attitude variables and performance variables as mentioned before. The F values and the difference in the means of the different groups were found out. The results are summarised in table IV.V.5 and table IV.V.6 respectively.

TABLE IV.V.5

F-Values for Job Attitudes for Various groups formed on the basis of Salary

Variable	Between Groups		Within Groups		F
	Sum of squares	Mean squares	Sum of squares	Mean squares	
Organisational Commitment	1076.24	538.12	11789.19	48.32	11.14***
Job Involvement	605.59	302.80	13900.76	56.97	5.32**
Job Satisfaction	704.64	352.32	19491.87	79.88	4.41**
Overall Job Attitude	2038.94	1019.47	74092.91	303.66	3.36*

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

TABLE IV.V.5.1

Means and Standard Deviations for the 3 Salary Groups based on their Job Attitudes

Variables	Group I (N=87)		Group II (N=110)		Group III (N=50)	
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	Mean	σ
Organisational commitment	57.95	7.74	56.75	6.69	62.30	5.99
Job Involvement	55.00	6.20	51.78	8.62	51.60	7.04
Job Satisfaction	49.99	7.99	52.30	9.33	54.62	9.58
Overall Job attitude	162.94	15.41	160.83	17.16	168.52	20.98

One way ANOVA for different salary groups on Job Attitudes

When the three salary groups were tested using ANOVA for their difference in Job attitudes, the F value showed that the groups differed from each other significantly in all their Job attitudes variables and in overall Job

attitudes. The Scheffe test showed that the pattern of differences between the groups were as follows: In Organisational Commitment group 3 significantly differed from group 2 and group 1; in the case of Job Involvement, group 1 differed significantly from group 2 and 3; in Job Satisfaction, group 3 differed significantly from group 1. In the case of Overall Job Attitudes, group 3 differed significantly from group 2. Organisational commitment ($F = 11.14$ significant at 0.001) was found to be higher for high salary groups (mean = 62.3) and Job Involvement ($F = 5.32$ significant at 0.01 level) was high for low salary group (mean = 55.00), Job satisfaction ($F = 4.41$ significant at 0.01 level) was found to be higher for high salary group (mean 54.62) and overall job satisfaction ($F = 3.36$ significant at 0.05 level) was found to be higher for high salary group (mean = 168.52) (table IV.V.5.1). From this analysis it is very clear that salary has a big impact on the job attitudes of the employee. Except job involvement all the job attitudes like organisational commitment, job satisfaction and overall job attitude seem to increase as the salary increased. But Job involvement is showing an opposite trend, where it seems to be higher for the lower salary group.

TABLE IV.V.6
F-Values for Performance for Various groups formed
on the basis of Salary

Variable	Between Groups		Within Groups		F
	Sum of squares	Mean squares	Sum of squares	Mean squares	
Self Rating 1	1.01	0.50	211.50	0.866	0.58
Self Rating 2	1.13	0.57	257.65	1.00	0.54
Coworker Rating 1	3.69	1.84	243.52	0.998	1.85
Coworker Rating 2	6.62	3.31	266.89	1.09	3.03*
Supervisor Rating	3.43	1.72	217.16	0.89	1.93
Overall Performance	1.57	0.78	181.72	0.74	1.05

* Significant at 0.05 level

TABLE IV.V.6.1

**Means and Standard Deviations for the 3 Salary Groups
based on their Performance**

Variables	Group I (N=87)		Group II (N=110)		Group III (N=50)	
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	Mean	σ
Self Rating 1	5.62	0.97	5.50	0.92	5.64	0.898
Self Rating 2	5.64	1.17	5.55	1.01	5.46	0.76
Coworker Rating 1	5.33	1.06	5.48	1.40	5.16	0.7
Coworker Rating 2	5.49	1.22	5.48	1.09	5.08	0.44
Supervising Quality	5.31	0.98	5.37	1.00	5.06	0.71
Overall Performance	5.48	0.96	5.48	0.90	5.28	0.53

One way ANOVA for different salary groups on Performance

When three groups were tested for the significant difference in their performances, interestingly enough it was found that only one performance variable was significantly different for the three groups of salaries viz., coworker rating 2, with an F value of 3.03 significant at 0.05 level and the group which was highest on this was the low salary group with a mean of 5.49 (table IV.V.6.1), but the Scheffe results showed no significant difference between any salary groups on performance. This gives a clear indication that performance is not very strongly influenced by salary of the employee. The only performance variable that could account for some difference was Coworker rating 2.

t-Tests on Training, Job Attitudes and Performance

The whole sample was divided into two groups, based on whether they have got training or not. The people who did not get training were group 1 and people who got training were group 2.

Training on Job Attitudes

The two groups were subjected to t-test (Table IV.V.7) to find out whether they differed in their Job attitudes. The analysis showed that the managers who got trained had significantly higher organisational commitment (mean = 59.02), and overall job attitude (mean = 164.47). This means that trained managers have higher organizational commitment and overall Job Attitudes compared to the non-trained managers.

TABLE IV.V.7

t-test results of two groups based on Training on Job Attitudes

Variables	Train (1) (N = 66)		Train (2) (N = 181)		t
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	
Org. Commitment	56.30	6.85	59.02	7.25	-2.72**
Job Involvement	51.02	10.21	53.56	6.42	-1.89
Job Satisfaction	52.14	8.10	51.89	9.41	0.2
Job Attitude Total	159.45	14.72	164.47	18.38	-2.21*

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level

Training on Performance

In the table (IV.V.8), t-test analyses for the trained and non trained groups were tested on their performance by different rating criteria used. In this analysis it was found that the trained managers had higher mean scores on self rating 1, self rating 2, co-worker rating 2 and in overall performance

ratings (5.52). This means that the trained managers have better performance than their counterpart.

TABLE IV.V.8

Results of the t-test of two groups based on training on performance

Variables	Train (1) (N = 66)		Train (2) (N = 181)		t
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	
Self Rating 1	5.23	0.76	5.70	0.96	-3.99***
Self Rating 2	5.27	0.70	5.67	1.03	-2.79**
Coworker 1	5.26	0.933	5.40	1.03	-1.06
Coworker 2	5.15	1.01	5.50	1.06	-2.35*
Supervisor	5.18	0.89	5.33	0.97	-1.1
Overall performance	5.22	0.78	5.52	0.88	-2.60**

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

SECTION VI

t-Test

Accidents on all Study Variables

t-test analysis were conducted to find out the significant mean differences between people who had industrial accident and people who did not have accidents based on their Emotional Intelligences, personality characteristics, Job attitudes and their Performance variables.

Accident and EI

In table (IV.VI.1), the two groups were tested for their differences in EI variables, from the table it can be observed that the two groups differed significantly only in 4 variables of EI i.e., self confidence (mean 19.29), conscientiousness (17.04), service orientation (21.18) and Leadership (2.83), the people who did not have had incidents had better scores in these variables which means that people who did not have had accidents had significantly

higher self confidence, conscientiousness service orientation and leadership qualities compared to the people who have had industrial accidents.

TABLE IV.VI.1

The results of t-test for two groups based on accident on EI variables

Variables	Acci-1 (N=203)		Acci-2 (N=44)		t'
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	
Self awareness	8.93	1.745	9.30	1.72	-1.27
Self assessment	17.71	3.18	17.34	3.36	0.67
Self confidence	19.29	3.68	17.0	3.33	4.05***
Self control	12.32	2.80	11.86	2.30	1.13
Trustworthiness	11.27	2.03	11.36	2.65	-0.23
Conscientiousness	17.31	2.28	15.93	3.41	3.30***
Adaptability	13.10	2.89	12.66	3.46	0.79
Achievement Motivation	17.04	2.76	16.95	4.06	0.14
Initiative	15.38	3.77	16.11	4.42	-1.02
Empathy	20.10	3.98	19.89	4.07	0.32
Org. Awareness	11.16	2.69	11.66	2.59	-1.15
Service orientation	21.18	3.86	19.39	4.62	2.4**
Developing others	15.58	2.79	15.23	3.61	0.60
Leadership	12.31	2.01	11.20	2.42	2.83**
Influence	17.76	4.99	18.57	4.50	-1.06
Communication	17.13	3.22	16.41	4.08	1.10
Change catalyst	20.76	3.22	20.45	4.56	0.43
Conflict management	13.10	3.82	14.14	3.99	1.57
Building bonds	12.17	1.88	11.64	2.70	1.25
Team work and collaboration	26.04	3.74	25.34	4.38	0.98
Overall EI	319.65	45.27	312.43	59.69	0.76

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

Accident and Personality

Analysis was done to find out if there is any difference between the people who had accidents and who did not have accidents in their different personality. Characteristics of time urgency, inappropriate aggression hostility, goal directed behaviour without planning, polyphasic behaviour and their overall score for these dimensions. But the analysis showed (table IV.VI.2) that none of this dimensions were significantly different for the two groups. Which means the two groups (Accident and Non-accident) did not differ in their personality characteristics.

TABLE IV.VI.2

t-test results for two groups based on Accident on Personality Variables

Variables	Acci-1 (N=203)		Acci-2 (N=44)		t'
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	
Time Urgency	17.56	5.29	18.11	4.16	-0.76
Aggression Hostility	8.85	3.07	9.82	4.68	-1.32
Goal Directed Behaviour without Planning	4.01	1.71	4.57	2.16	-1.59
Polyphasic Behaviour	4.40	1.39	4.57	1.98	-0.52

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

Accident and Job Attitudes

t-test was conducted to find out if the groups which had accidents and the groups which did not have accidents were different in their organisational commitment, Job involvement, Job satisfaction and in their overall Job attitudes. The analysis showed no significant differences between the two groups in their job attitudes (table IV.VI.3). This means that the industrial accidents are not significantly related to the job attitudes of the employees.

TABLE IV.VI.3

t-test results of two groups based on accidents on Job Attitudes

Variables	Acci-1 (N=203)		Acci-2 (N=44)		t'
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	
Organisational commitment	58.57	7.38	57.05	6.43	1.38
Job Involvement	52.91	7.88	52.75	6.75	0.14
Job Satisfaction	52.23	9.29	50.70	7.88	1.12
Overall Job Attitude	163.70	17.65	160.50	17.26	1.11

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

Accidents and Performance

In table (IV.VI.4), the two groups, i.e. the group which have had industrial accidents and the group which did not have an accident were compared for their differences in performance ratings, by self rating 1, self rating 2, coworker 1, coworker 2, supervisor and the overall performance. The analysis revealed that the two groups were different in their Self Rating 1 and 2, supervisor rating and in the overall performance.

The people who did not have industrial accidents were found to have higher mean values for Self rating 1 (5.65), self rating 2 (5.66), supervisory rating (3.34) and for overall performance (5.49). This indicates that there is a significant difference between the people who had accidents and who did not have accidents in their performances. The non-accident group has better performance than the accident groups.

TABLE IV.VI.4

The t-test results for two groups based on Accidents on Performance Variables

Variables	Acci-1 (N=203)		Acci-2 (N=44)		t'
	Mean	σ	Mean	σ	
Self Rating 1	5.65	0.92	5.23	0.88	2.82**
Self Rating 2	5.66	0.97	5.11	1.15	2.94**
Coworker Rating 1	5.38	1.00	5.27	0.997	0.67
Coworker Rating 2	5.44	1.05	5.25	1.06	1.07
Supervisor Rating	5.34	0.97	5.02	0.79	2.34*
Overall Performance	5.49	0.86	5.18	0.83	2.29*

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

SECTION VII

3 Way ANVOA

Personality, Emotional Intelligence and Job Attitudes on Performance

As we have already established the relationships among different variables in the study as well as the contributory effects and strengths of those relationships. In the present analysis we are trying to find out the interaction effects of different variables on the dependent variables.

The first analysis was done to find out effects of personality, emotional intelligence and job attitudes on performance of managers. The analysis was done at three levels, the main effects, two way interaction analysis and three way interaction analysis. The F values are shown in table (IV.VII.1).

TABLE IV.VII.1

Table showing the F values for the 3-way, 2-way and One-way interaction among EI, Personality and Job Attitude on Performance

Variables	Residual		Personality			EI			Age			Pt x EI			Pt x KA			EI x JA			Pt x EI x JA		
	Sum of Sq.	Mean sq.	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F	Sum of sq.	Mean Sq.	F
SR1	175.2	0.733	20.85	20.85	28.4 ***	6.99	6.99	9.5 **	4.8	4.8	6.60 *	0.40	0.40	0.55	2.65	2.65	3.6	0.04	0.04	0.06	3.7	3.7	5.1
SR2	173.9	0.73	5.3	5.3	7.3 **	52.85	52.85	72.6 ***	6.6	6.6	9.05 **	7.88	7.88	10.8 **	0.84	0.84	1.6	2.23	2.23	3.07	2.65	2.65	3.64
CO1	185	0.77	4.71	4.71	6.08 *	13.82	13.82	17.86 ***	1.69	1.69	2.17	6.26	6.26	8.08 **	5.46	5.46	7.05 **	7.49	7.48	9.68 **	16.9	16.9	21.83 ***
CO2	215.1	0.9	14.34	14.34	15.93 ***	25.25	25.25	28.1 ***	0.40	0.40	0.45	1.24	1.24	1.4 **	9.00	9.00	10.00 **	1.73	1.73	1.92	4.7	4.7	5.2
Supr	180.6	0.76	8.54	8.54	11.3 ***	16.83	16.83	22.26 ***	1.06	1.06	1.4	3.36	3.36	4.45 **	0.32	0.32	0.43	2.3	2.3	3.02	6.23	6.23	8.24 **
Per	136.3	0.57	9.92	9.92	17.4 ***	20.72	20.72	36.3 ***	2.4	2.4	4.2 *	3.16	3.16	5.54 *	1.08	1.08	1.9	1.88	1.88	3.3	6.08	6.08	10.67 ***

* Significant at 0.05 level, ** Significant at 0.01 level, *** Significant at 0.001 level

Main effects

Personality on Performance

In the first analysis two groups of personality viz., type A and type B were tested for their difference in performance for different ratings (SR1, SR2, CO1, CO2, Sup) used, and for overall performance. The analysis showed that the type B managers had a significantly higher mean than this type A managers in all the ratings used as well as in the overall performance (table IV.VII.1.1). This results show that type B people are better in their performance than the type B managers.

TABLE IV.VII.1.1

Means and Standard Deviations for One-way Interaction for 2 groups of Personality

Performance	Personality B (N=53)		Personality A (N=194)	
	X	σ	X	σ
SR1	6.08	0.78	5.43	0.92
SR2	5.75	1.142	5.51	0.99
CO1	5.58	1.22	5.30	0.93
CO2	5.83	1.10	5.29	1.01
Sup	5.60	0.91	5.20	0.94
Per	5.77	0.91	5.35	0.83

EI on Performance

The sample was divided into two groups based on their EI scores as low EI and high EI groups. These groups were tested for their difference in performance. The results showed that there is significant difference in the two groups in all ratings of performances as well as the overall performance.

High EI group was found to have higher means in all the performance ratings as well as the overall performance rating (table IV.VII.1.2).

TABLE IV.VII.1.2

Means and Standard Deviations for the One-way on 2 groups of EI

Performance	EI (Low) (N = 124)		EI High (N = 123)	
	X	σ	X	σ
SR1	5.40	0.91	5.75	0.92
SR2	5.08	1.02	6.05	0.78
CO1	5.12	1.05	5.61	0.89
CO2	5.09	0.99	5.72	1.03
Sup	5.02	0.90	5.52	0.93
Per	5.14	0.81	5.74	0.81

This concludes that high EI managers have better performance scores than low EI managers.

Job Attitudes on Performance

In the third main effect the sample was divided into two based on their scores on Job attitudes, into high and low job attitude groups. These groups were tested for their performance scores. In this analysis the F values of the means showed that only self rating 1, self rating 2 and overall performance ratings were significantly higher for high job attitude groups. The overall performance and self rating 1 and 2 were significantly high for managers with high Job attitudes (table IV.VII.1.3).

TABLE IV.VII.1.3

**Means and Standard Deviations for the One-way Interactions of
2 groups of Job Attitudes**

Performance	JA (Low) (N = 126)		JA High (N = 121)	
	X	σ	X	σ
SR1	5.45	1.09	5.69	0.71
SR2	5.36	1.15	5.78	0.83
CO1	5.27	1.09	5.46	0.90
CO2	5.36	1.10	5.45	1.01
Sup	5.21	1.09	5.36	0.77
Per	5.33	0.99	5.55	0.70

In conclusion, the performance was better for managers with high Job Attitudes.

Two way Interaction

Analysis was done to find out the 2 way interaction effects of personality, EI and Job attitudes on performance.

(a) Personality and EI

It was interesting note that inspite of the excellent independent relationships EI and Personality showed with performance in their combined interaction, there were only 4 significant mean differences with performance. In the personality EI interaction, the following results were found; personality B with high EI was found high on self rating 2 (6.75), coworker 1 (6.33), supervisor rating (6.21) and overall rating (6.42). This means that in all

combinations of personality and EI, the managers with type B personality and high EI were significantly better on overall performance, self rating 1, coworker rating 1, supervisor rating and in overall performance rating. The same was true for the other ratings of performances but was not statistically significant (table IV.VII.1.4).

TABLE IV.VII.1.4

Table showing the Means and Standard Deviations for Two-way Interaction between Personality and EI

Performance	Personality type B (53)				Personality type A (194)			
	EI Low (N=29)		EI High (N=24)		EI Low (N=95)		EI High (N=99)	
	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ
SR1	5.86	0.79	6.33	0.70	5.25	0.90	5.61	0.91
SR2	4.93	0.80	6.75	0.53	5.13	1.07	5.88	0.73
CO1	4.97	1.24	6.33	0.64	5.17	0.99	5.43	0.86
CO2	5.31	0.97	6.46	0.93	5.02	0.99	5.55	0.97
Sup	5.10	0.72	6.21	0.72	5.00	0.95	5.39	0.90
Per	5.23	0.74	6.42	0.63	5.11	0.83	5.57	0.77

(b) Personality and Job Attitudes

In the interaction between Personality and Job attitudes only two F values were significant. Both the values were of coworker ratings (Co1 and Co2). In both coworker 1 and coworker 2 ratings type B personalities with high job attitudes had higher means (6.28 and 6.56 respectively) that rest of the groups. This means type B persons with high job attitudes have significantly better performance ratings by coworker 1 and coworker 2. The

other ratings and overall performance was not significantly different among the groups (table IV.VII.1.5).

TABLE IV.VII.1.5

Table showing the Means and Standard Deviations for the Two-way Interaction between Personality and Job Attitude

Performance	Personality type B (53)				Personality type A (194)			
	JA Low (N=29)		JA High (N=24)		JA Low (N=95)		JA High (N=99)	
	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ
SR1	6.09	0.92	6.06	0.42	5.21	1.06	5.63	0.73
SR2	5.43	1.20	6.39	0.70	5.33	1.14	5.67	0.81
CO1	5.23	1.33	6.28	0.46	5.29	0.99	5.32	0.88
CO2	5.46	1.09	6.56	0.70	5.32	1.10	5.26	0.93
Sup	5.43	1.07	5.94	0.24	5.13	1.09	5.26	0.79
Per	5.53	1.01	6.24	0.35	5.25	0.97	5.43	0.67

EI and Job attitudes

In the interaction analysis among groups based on EI and Job attitudes there was only one significant F value, which was for Coworker 2. The analysis showed that among the 4 groups, Managers with high EI and low Job attitudes were found to have significantly high performance (5.81) than the rest of the three groups (table IV.VII.1.6). This means managers with high EI and low JA have significantly better coworker rating 2 rating than the rest of them. The rest of the performance rating does not differ for any groups.

TABLE IV.VII.1.6

Table showing the Means and Standard Deviations for the Two-way Interaction between EI and Job Attitudes

Performance	EI (Low) (124)				EI (High) (123)			
	JA Low (N=72)		JA High (N=52)		JA Low (N=54)		JA High (N=69)	
	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ	X	σ
SR1	5.33	1.03	5.48	0.70	5.61	1.16	5.86	0.67
SR2	4.86	1.10	5.38	0.80	6.02	0.84	6.07	0.734
CO1	4.90	1.08	5.42	0.94	5.76	0.91	5.49	0.87
CO2	5.01	1.04	5.19	0.91	5.81	1.01	5.65	1.04
Sup	4.90	0.95	5.19	0.79	5.63	1.12	5.49	0.74
Per	5.00	0.91	5.33	0.61	5.77	0.93	5.71	0.72

Three way interaction

EI, Personality and Job Attitudes on Performance

In the three way interaction between personality, EI and JA, there were 8 possible groups. These groups were compared for their difference in the mean value for different ratings of performance and overall performance. There were 4 significant F values were found. Coworker rating 1 was significantly higher for type B, high EI and low Job attitude group (6.62) (table IV.VII.1.7); secondly coworker rating 2 was significantly better for type B personality, with low EI and high JA (6.57), the third significantly higher score was for supervisory rating for type B personality, with high EI and low Job attitudes (6.46). Finally the overall performance rating was significantly higher for type B personality with high EI and low JA (6.57).

TABLE IV.VII.1.7

Table showing the Means and Standard Deviations for the 3 way Interaction among EI, Personality and Job Attitude on Performance

Performance Rating		Personality Type B (N = 53)				Personality Type A (N=194)			
		EI Low (N= 29)		EI High (N=24)		EI Low (N=95)		EI High (N= 99)	
		JA Low (N = 22)	JA High (N = 7)	JA Low (N = 13)	JA High (N = 11)	JA Low (N = 50)	JA High (N = 45)	JA Low (N = 41)	JA High (N = 58)
Self Rating 1	X	5.77	6.14	6.62	6.0	5.14	5.4	5.29	5.83
	σ	0.87	0.38	7.7	0.45	1.05	0.68	1.08	0.70
Self Rating 2	X	4.64	5.86	6.77	6.73	4.96	5.31	5.78	5.95
	σ	0.66	0.38	0.44	0.65	1.24	0.82	0.79	0.69
Coworker 1	X	4.41	6.71	6.62	6.00	5.12	5.22	5.49	5.396
	σ	0.796	0.49	0.77	0.00	1.12	0.82	0.78	0.92
Coworker 2	X	4.91	6.57	6.38	6.55	5.60	4.98	5.63	5.48
	σ	0.61	0.79	1.12	0.69	1.19	0.72	0.92	1.01
Supervisor 1	X	4.82	6.00	6.46	5.91	4.94	5.07	5.37	5.41
	σ	0.59	0.00	0.88	0.30	1.08	0.78	1.07	0.77
Performance	X	4.91	6.26	6.57	6.24	5.04	5.19	5.51	5.61
	σ	0.48	0.34	0.77	0.37	1.04	0.51	0.83	0.73

The results show the pattern of relationships among the study variables. It is very clear that from the analysis type B personality has a positive effect on performance, individually as well as in combination with either of EI or Job Attitudes or with both of them in interaction.

But Emotional intelligence though individually has very positive relationship with performance; in combination with Job attitudes it does not seem to predict much of performance.

Same is the case with Job attitude as well, individually Job attitude has a reasonably good predictive ability on performance, but in combination with EI, it seems to have lost (partially) its ability to predict performance.

From the results of the 3-way analysis, it could be concluded that there is a reciprocal relationship between EI and Job attitude in predicting performance. That is for a high Job attitude group it is better to have low EI to have high performance, or for a low Job attitude group it is better to have a high EI for a higher performance. But in any case Type B personalities have a positive effect on performance.

SECTION VIII

Emotional Intelligence and personality as moderators of Job attitude and Job performance relationship

Moderation refers to the statistical interaction between two independent variables, in predicting a dependent variable. Researchers can use multiple regression analysis, whether the predictor or moderator variables are categorical (e.g., sex or race) or continuous (e.g., age). When both the predictor and moderator variables are categorical, analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure can be used, but multiple regression is preferred because of the flexibility in options in providing for coding categorical variables (Cohen et al., 2003). The present analysis has made use of the

multiple regression analysis because one of the moderator variables (emotional intelligence) is a continuous variable. We have already performed ANOVA in section VII, using both the moderator variables (EI and Personality) and Job attitudes as independent variables, on Performance. The results of which will also be discussed in the context of moderation effect, in this section.

The second reason for the preference of regression analysis over, the comparison of correlations is because; the difference in correlations between the groups may reflect differential variance between the groups rather than true moderator effects (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Chaplin 1991; Jude et al. 1995).

In this section the hierarchical regression analysis was employed to find out the moderating effects of Emotional intelligence and personality on the correlational (predictive) relationship between Job attitudes and Performance. The analysis was performed under three heads:

1. The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on job attitude - performance relationships.
 2. The moderating effect of personality on job attitude - performance relationship.
 3. The moderating effect of emotional intelligence and personality on job attitude - performance relationship.
- 1. The moderating effects of Emotional Intelligence on Job attitude-Performance relationship.**

The hierarchical regression was done in three steps. In the first step, the predictive effects, of job attitude (Independent variable) on performance was found; in the second step, the predictive effect of emotional intelligence(predictor variable) on performance was found and in the third

step, the interaction effect of emotional intelligence on job attitude-performance relationship(moderation effect) was found.

In the first step the predictive relationship between (i) job attitude and performance was found (X1), the R^2 value showed that 0.7% of performance is accounted for by job attitude. (ii) In the second step (X2), the R^2 value of the predictive relationship between emotional intelligence and performance showed that 7.3% of the performance is accounted for by the addition of emotional intelligence on job attitude performance relationship and (iii) In the third step, (X3), the interaction effect of emotional intelligence and job attitude was added to the equation, with this the R^2 value increase to 0.133, which meant that 13.3% of performance can be predicted by job attitude, emotional intelligence and the interaction effect of emotional intelligence on job attitude performance relationship (table IV.VIII.1).

TABLE IV.VIII.1

Showing the moderation effect of Emotional Intelligence on Job Attitude – Performance Relationship

Variables entered in the equation	R^2	R^2 change	F	F change	significance of F
JA (X1)	0.007	0.007	1.743	1.743	0.188
JA x EI (X2)	0.073	0.066	9.56	17.267***	0.00
JA x EI x EI.JA (X3)	0.123	0.060	12.39	16.812***	0.00

Dependent Variable: Performance

*** Significant at 0.001 level

Now let's examine the individual contributions of these independent variables on performance, from the R^2 change (table IV.VIII.1). Job attitude accounted for 0.7% of variance in performance; emotional intelligence accounted for 6.6% change in performance and with the interaction effect of emotional intelligence on job attitude performance relationship there is a 6%

change in performance. This means that there is some interaction (moderation) effect of emotional intelligence on job attitude performance relationship.

To find out whether these changes in R^2 in each step (X1, X2 and X3) are significant enough to indicate a moderation effect the F values were calculated.

When the significance of the predictive relationship was compared in these three steps for the significant difference (table IV.VIII.1) it was found that job attitudes (X1) does not have any significant moderating (predictive) effect on performance ($F = 1.74$, significant at 0.188 level), whereas in the second stage (X2) job attitude combined with emotional intelligence, has a significantly higher ($F = 9.56$, significant at 0.001 level) predictive effect on job attitude-performance relationship, and emotional intelligence, job attitude interaction effect has (X3) a very highly significant moderating effect ($F = 12.39$, significant at 0.001 level) on job attitude performance relationship. From this considerable change in the R^2 value, and from the significant value of F, found when the interaction effect was entered in to the relationship (X3), it can be concluded that there is a significantly higher moderating effect by emotional intelligence on job attitude performance relationship.

2. The moderating effect of personality on Job attitude - performance relationship

This analysis was done in three steps,

In the first step (X1) the predictive relationship of job attitude on performance was found. From the R^2 , it can be seen that 0.7% of performance can be predicted by job attitude alone; in the second step (X2) the predictive ability of personality for performance was found. From the R^2 value it was seen that 1.33% of the performance can be predicted because of the

introduction of personality into the equation. In the third stage (X3), the combined effect of job attitude and personality on performance was found. From the R² value at this step, it was clear that around 11.6% of performance can be accounted for by the combined effect of job attitude, personality and interaction effect of personality on job attitude performance relationship (table IV.VIII.2).

TABLE IV.VIII.2

Showing the moderation effect of Personality on Job Attitude – Performance Relationship

Variables entered in the equation	R ²	R ² change	F	F change	significance of F
JA (X1)	0.007	0.007	1.743	1.743	0.188
JA. x Pt. (X2)	0.013	0.006	1.666	1.585	0.209
JA x Pt. x Pt. JA (X3)	0.116	0.102	10.578	28.03***	0.000

Dependent Variable: Performance

*** Significant at 0.001 level

From the R² change, the independent effect of job attitude, personality and Job attitude personality interaction on job attitude-performance relationship was found. In the first stage (X1) there was 0.7% contribution by job attitude on performance. In the second stage (X2) the personality contributed an extra 0.6% to the performance and in the third step (X3) personality, job attitude interaction created an additional 10.2% change in performance. This means there is a moderation effect by personality on job attitude performance relationship.

To find out the significance in the difference of R² values for each of the above combinations (X1, X2 and X3), the F values were found out and the change in the F values were also calculated table (IV.VIII.2). From that it

could be found that, there is no significant independent influence by personality on performance ($F=1.743$, significant at 0.188, level), and also when Job attitude was entered into the step (X2), the change in the R^2 value was not significant ($F=1.585$, significant at 0.209 level) enough to predict an interaction effect. But in the third step (X3), when the interaction effect of personality on job attitude was entered, there was a significant increment in the value of R^2 , ($F = 10.58$, significant at 0.001 level). This means that, there is a significant change in the existing relationship between job attitude and performance because of the moderating effect of personality. So in conclusion the personality has a moderating effect on Job attitude–performance relationship.

3. The moderation effect of Emotional Intelligence and personality on Job Attitude - performance relationship

This analysis was done in three steps,

In the present analysis, at first the predictive relationship between job attitude and performance was found out (X1) from the R^2 value (table (IV.VIII.3) and, it was found that 0.07% of variance in performance was predicted by job attitude alone. The second stage (X2) was to find out the predictive relationship between job attitude and performance with the introduction of emotional intelligence and personality. From the corresponding R^2 values it was seen that 1.1% of performance was accounted for by the addition of emotional intelligence and personality to the equation. In the third stage (X3) the interaction effect of emotional intelligence and personality with job attitude, on job attitude - performance was calculated. From the R^2 value it was found that around 12.7% of the performance was accounted for by the combined effect of job attitude, emotional intelligence, and personality on job attitude – performance relationship.

To find out the moderating effect of EI and personality on job attitude performance relationship the R^2 change was calculated (table IV.VIII.3). From the R^2 change it could be seen that at the first step (X1) job attitude contributed 0.7% to the performance, in the second step (X2) with the addition of emotional intelligence and personality it was found that there was only 0.4% increment occurred in the predictive relationship, and in the final step (X3) when the interaction (moderating) effect of EI and Personality was added the increment in the predictive relationship between job attitude performance became 11.6%. This means that there is some amount of moderating effect on job attitude performance relationship by emotional intelligence and personality together. To find out the significance of these moderating effects the F values were calculated (table IV.VIII.3). The F values were not significant for steps X1 and X2, but the F value was very highly significant for X3 ($F = 11.77$, significant at 0.001 level). This showed that the combined effect of emotional intelligence and personality has changed the relationship between job attitudes and performance. This establishes the existence of a moderating effect by emotional intelligence and personality on job attitude performance relationship.

TABLE IV.VIII.3

Showing the moderation effect of Emotional Intelligence and Personality on Job Attitude – Performance Relationship

Variables entered in the equation	R^2	R^2 change	F	F change	Significance of F
JA (X1)	0.007	0.007	1.743	1.743	0.188
JAx EI x Pt. (X2)	0.011	0.004	1.304	0.866	0.353
ATT, EI.PT x EI.PT.Att (X3)	0.127	0.116	11.77	32.376***	0.00

Dependent Variable: Performance

*** Significant at 0.001 level

As it was proved here, Emotional Intelligence and personality has a moderating effect on Job attitude performance relationship, now there is one more analysis, in the present study which substantiate this point, viz. the results of the 3 –way ANOVA, (VIIth analysis) already, done in this study using the different groups formed on the basis of Personality (Type A, Type B), Emotional intelligence (High, Low), Job attitudes (High, Low) on performance. Earlier in this analysis a positive relationship was established between job attitude and performance (table IV.VII.1.3). From the results of the 3-way analysis (table IV.VIII.1.7) i.e. the type B personalities, with high emotional intelligence and low Job attitude had better performance. It could be further established that, personality and emotional intelligence have a moderating effect on Job attitude performance relationship, as the personality and emotional intelligence could intervene and change the existed, positive relationship between job attitude and performance.

In conclusion, it can be assumed that, Emotional intelligence and personality both have a moderating effect on the Job attitude- performance relationship.

This implies that emotional intelligence and personality are capable of changing the influence job attitude has on performance. This will be very useful information for the organizational psychologists.

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Chapter V

SUMMARY & CONCLUSION

- *Summary of the Study*
- *The sample*
- *Variables and tools*
- *Statistical techniques used*
- *Tenability of the hypotheses*
- *Major findings of the study*
- *Implications of the study*
- *Suggestions for future research.*

As a result of the globalisation and the advancement of information technology (information era), human beings as a resource have largely overshadowed all other components of the industrial world. The organisations today increasingly have recognised the importance and value of human resources in the development of the organisations. It is well understood that the success (performance) of an employee is strongly associated with certain personal qualities and skills of the employees. This is one of the reasons why the present study has chosen personality and Emotional intelligence as the moderators of the Job attitude -performance relationship.

Job attitudes are of particular interest to the organisational psychologists (practitioners) because of their assumed link to job performance (Staw et al. 1986). Organisational psychologists have gone to a great extent studying the concept of job attitude, because of its importance in deciding the relationship of an employee with the organisation, colleagues, the job itself and the satisfaction one derives from the job and the overall impact of the work in the life of the individual.

Today's organisations are becoming more aware of the emotional aspect of the work situation and emotional intelligence proved to be a very important skill for the effective functioning of an individual, group and for the organisation. Personality has been always considered as an important variable which will, add its flavour to all what an individual possess and does function as a subjective factor in the organizational out comes. The relationship between Job attitudes and performance has been, differently reported by different researchers. Hence the present study is an effort to understand the moderating influence of Emotional Intelligence and Personality on the job attitude performance relationship. The study also have explored the in-depth interrelationship among all these variables as well.

We have also analysed the interrelationships among the different study variables and performance.

The method used for the present study is briefly outlined below

THE SAMPLE

The sample used for the present study consisted of 247 managers belonging to four major Public sector production oriented Chemical factories in Kerala. The data was collected using simple random sampling method.

VARIABLES AND TOOLS

As mentioned above the main focus of the study was to find out the moderating effects of Emotional Intelligence and Personality on Job attitude and Performance. The variables belonging to the different aspects of the study were: **Emotional Intelligence** (emotional self awareness, accurate self assessment, self confidence, self control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement orientation, initiative, empathy, organizational awareness, service orientation, developing others, leadership, influence, communication, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds and team work and collaboration.), **Personality** (time urgency, inappropriate aggression and hostility, polyphasic behaviour, and goal directedness with out proper planning.), **Job attitudes** (organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction.), and **Performance** (self rating-1, self-rating-2, Co-worker rating-1, Co-worker rating-2, supervisor rating). Apart from these major variables some relevant demographic variables (age, experience, training, salary, and industrial accidents) were also studied

The following tools were administered on the sample to measure these variables.

1. Emotional Competency Inventory (Sala, 2000).
2. Type A Behavioural pattern Scale (Robert *et al.* 1998)

3. Job Attitude Scale (Jayan & Manikandan, 2002)
4. Performance Rating Scale (Jayan & Dharmangadhan, 1995)
5. Job Related /Demographic variable schedule (Jayan, 1995)

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

The testing of the hypotheses was primarily based on the statistical treatment of the data obtained from the sample. The present study made use of the statistical techniques like, correlation, stepwise regression analysis, t-tests, one way ANOVA, three way ANOVA, and moderator regression analysis.

TENABILITY OF THE HYPOTHESES

The tenability of the hypotheses could be found using the results of the statistical analyses done in the study. For this purpose, five out of the seven hypotheses were split into its sub hypotheses.

The First Hypothesis

I. The first hypothesis of the study is that, ***there will be significant relationships among the dimensions of EI, Personality, job attitudes and Performance.***

This hypothesis was split into sub hypotheses (Hp1a, Hp1b, Hp1c, Hp1d, Hp1e, and Hp1f,) and the details of the tenability of the hypotheses are given below.

Hp1a. There will be significant relationships between Emotional Intelligence and Personality variables.

EI total was significantly positively related to different dimensions of personality, like time urgency, aggression /hostility, polyphasic behaviour and was also positively correlated with overall personality. Only one dimension of

personality was not correlated with overall EI score that was goal directed behaviour with out proper planning.

Hence, this sub hypothesis was accepted.

Hp.1b, there will be significant relationship between Emotional intelligence and Job attitude variables.

The over all EI score was positively related to overall job satisfaction and organistional commitment.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is partially accepted.

Hp1c, there will be significant relationship between Emotional intelligence and Performance variables.

The over all emotional intelligence score was positively related to all the performance ratings except coworker 1, hence this sub hypothesis was accepted.

Hp1d. there will be significant relationship between personality and the Job attitude variables.

The overall personality was positively correlated with job involvement and overall job attitudes. Hence this sub hypothesis is accepted.

Hp1e, there will be significant relationship between Personality and performance variables.

The overall personality (Type A behavioural pattern) was correlated with none of the performance ratings.

Hence, this sub hypothesis was rejected.

Hp1f. Job attitude will be significantly related to performance.

The overall job attitudes were positively related to self rating 2. Hence this hypothesis is partially accepted.

The Second Hypothesis

II. The second hypothesis is that, ***the variables of EI and Personality can be used to predict the Job attitudes of the managers. The hypothesis was split into 4 sub hypothesis (Hp2a, Hp2b, Hp2c, and Hp2d)***

Hp2a, the variables of EI and personality can be used to predict organizational commitment. To verify this hypothesis, regression analyses was conducted keeping organizational commitment as the criterion variable and Emotional intelligence and Personality variables as predictor variables. The results of the analysis showed that, 34.9 % organizational commitment could be predicted by EI and Personality variables.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is accepted.

Hp2b, the variables of emotional intelligence and personality can be used to predict Job involvement. To verify this hypothesis we conducted regression analyses, keeping Job Involvement, as the criterion variable and Emotional intelligence variables and Personality variables as predictor variables. The results of the analysis showed that, 61 % job involvement could be predicted by Emotional Intelligence variable and Personality variables, hence this sub hypothesis accepted.

Hp2c, the variables of emotional intelligence and personality can be used to predict job satisfaction. To verify this hypothesis regression analyses was conducted keeping job satisfaction as the criterion variable and emotional intelligence variables and personality variables as predictor variables. The results of the analysis showed that 32.9 % job satisfaction could be predicted by Emotional Intelligence and Personality variables.

Hence, the sub hypothesis Hp2c is accepted.

Hp2d, the variables of emotional intelligence and personality can be used to predict overall job attitude. To verify this hypothesis we conducted regression analyses, keeping over all Job attitudes as the criterion variable and Emotional intelligence variables and Personality variables as predictor variables. The results of the analysis showed that, 47 % overall job attitudes could be predicted by Emotional Intelligence and Personality variables.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is accepted.

The Third Hypothesis

III. The third hypothesis of the study was,

The variables of EI, Personality, Job attitudes shall be used to predict Job performance.

To verify this hypothesis, a regression analysis was conducted keeping performance as the criterion variable and variables of Emotional intelligence, personality and Job attitude variables as predictor variables. The analysis showed a clear support of the hypothesis that these variables can predict a substantial amount of performance. In the analysis it was seen that 47.4% of performance is accounted for by 13 Variables of Emotional intelligence, personality and Job attitudes.

Hence, the third hypothesis is accepted.

The Fourth Hypothesis

The fourth hypothesis was that, ***there will be significant difference between Type A and Type B personalities on different dimensions of emotional intelligence and overall EI.***

To verify this hypothesis a t-test was done comparing the means of each EI competencies and overall EI scores of type A and Type B personalities for the significance in their differences. The results indicated

that the Type A personalities are higher than the Type B personalities in their EI competencies as well as in the overall Emotional intelligence.

Hence, the fourth hypothesis is accepted.

The Fifth Hypothesis

V. The fifth hypothesis was that, ***there will be, significant interaction between the classificatory factors – job related and demographic variables (age, salary, experience, training), Emotional Intelligence (low-high), and Personality (Type A-Type B) on Job attitudes and Performance.***

This hypothesis was split into 13 sub hypotheses, (HpVa, HpVb, HpVc, HpVd, HpVe, HpVf, HpVg, HpVh, HpVi, HpVj, HpVk, HpVl, HpVm and HpVn) To verify these hypotheses different analyses (t-test, one way ANOVA, and three way ANOVA) were conducted

HpVa. , there will be significant difference between the different age groups in their Job attitudes., from the analysis it was found that there is no significant difference among the three age groups (low , medium and high) in their Job attitudes.

Hence the hypothesis is rejected.

HpVb. there will be significant difference between the different age groups in their performance. From the analysis it was found that the overall performance was high for the medium age group.

Hence, this hypothesis was accepted.

HpVc. There will significant difference among the three salary groups (low, medium and high) in their job attitudes. From the results it was seen that, the highest salary group has the highest Job attitudes.

Hence, this hypothesis is accepted.

HpVd There will significant difference among the three salary groups(low , medium and high) in their performance . The results showed that, the three salary groups did not differ in their performance.

Hence, this hypothesis is rejected.

HpVe, there will be significant difference among the three experience groups (low , medium and high) in their Job attitudes. The analysis showed that, the three experience groups did not differ in their overall job attitude.

Hence, this hypothesis is rejected.

HpVf there will be significant difference among the three experience groups (low , medium and high) in their performance. The results showed that, the low experience group has the highest performance rating of all the three experience groups.

Hence, this hypothesis is accepted.

HpVg there will be significant difference between the two training based groups (trained and non trained) in their Job attitudes. The results showed that, the trained managers have better job attitudes than the non trained managers.

Hence, this hypothesis is accepted.

HpVh there will be significant difference between the two training based groups (trained and non trained) in their performance. The results, indicate that, the trained managers are better on the performance rating compared to the non trained managers.

Hence this hypothesis is accepted.

HpVi there will be significant, difference between the two EI groups (low and high), in their job attitudes. The results shoed that, the high EI group is

significantly, high on their job attitudes compared to the low EI groups. Hence, this hypothesis is accepted.

HpVj, there will be significant, difference between the two EI groups (low and high), in their performance. The results indicated that, the high EI group has a better rating for performance than the low EI groups.

Hence, this hypothesis is accepted.

HpVk, there will be significant difference between the Type A and Type B personalities in their, job attitudes. The results of the study indicated that, the Type A personalities have significantly higher Job attitudes compared to the Type B personalities.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is accepted.

HpVl, there will be significant difference between the Type A and Type B personalities in their performance. The result of the analysis indicates that, the Type B personalities have a higher performance rating compared to the Type A personalities.

Hence, this hypothesis is accepted.

HpVm. There will be significant interaction between, the classificatory factors of Age, Emotional intelligence and personality on Job attitudes. From the results of the three way ANOVA , conducted on the, different combinations of the groups, formed on the basis of Emotional intelligence(low, high), Personality (type A, type B), and age (low, medium and high) for their significant difference in Job attitudes, it was found that, the groups did not differ significantly in their overall job attitudes. The groups differed significantly only in their organizational commitment. Those who were in the higher age category with Type B personalities and high Emotional intelligence were, found to have higher organizational commitment.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is partially accepted.

HpVn, there will be significant interaction between, the classificatory factors of Age, Emotional intelligence and personality on performance.

From the results of the three way ANOVA, conducted on the, different combinations of the groups, formed on the basis of Emotional intelligence (low, high), Personality (type A, type B), and age (low, medium and high) for their significant difference in performance, it was found that, the group of Type B personalities, with high emotional intelligence falling in the medium age category were, significantly better in their performance, compared to the rest of the groups.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is accepted.

The Sixth Hypothesis

VI the sixth hypothesis is that, there will be significant difference between accident and non accident groups on EQ, Personality, job attitudes and Performance. This hypothesis was subdivided into 4 sub hypotheses (HpVIa, HpVIb , HpVIc, and , HpVIe).

HpVIa, there will be significant difference between the two accident based groups (non accident groups and accident groups) in their Emotional intelligence. The results of the analysis indicated that, the two groups did not differ in their Emotional intelligence.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is rejected.

HpVIb, there will be significant difference between the two accident based groups (non accident groups and accident groups.) in their personality dimensions. The results of the analysis show that, the two groups based on the accidents did not differ in their personality dimensions.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is rejected.

HpVIc, there will be significant difference between the two accident based groups (non accident groups and accident groups), in their Job attitudes.

The results of the analysis show that, the two groups did not differ in their job attitudes.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is rejected.

HpVIId, there will be significant difference between the two accident based groups (non accident groups and accident groups) in their performance.

The results of the analysis show that the people who have had no industrial accidents are significantly higher on their performance.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is accepted.

The Seventh Hypothesis

VII , the seventh hypothesis is that, there will be significant interaction between the classificatory factors –Emotional intelligence (low, high) Personality (Type A, Type B) Job attitudes (low , high) on Performance.

From the results of the three way ANOVA, conducted on the, different combinations of the groups, formed on the basis of emotional intelligence (low, high), personality (type A, type B), job attitudes (low, high) for their significant difference in performance, it was found that, the group with Type B personality, high emotional intelligence and low job attitude are the one's with highest performance.

Hence, there is an interaction and the seventh hypothesis is accepted.

The Eighth Hypothesis.

VIII The eighth hypothesis is that, EI and Personality shall be used to moderate job attitude and Job performance. This hypothesis is sub divided into three sub hypotheses (HpVIIa, HpVIIb, and HpVIIc).

HpVIIIa, Emotional intelligence shall be used to moderate the Job attitude-Performance relationship. From the results of the analysis it was found that, with addition of the interaction effect of emotional intelligence and Job attitude, the predictive relationship between Job attitude and performance have changed. This means that Emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between Job attitudes and Performance.

Hence this sub hypothesis is accepted.

HpVIIIb, personality shall be used to moderate the Job attitude-Performance relationship. From the results of this analysis it could be seen that, with addition of the interaction effect of personality and Job attitude, the predictive relationship between Job attitude and performance have changed. This shows that there is a moderating effect.

Hence, this sub hypothesis is accepted.

HpVIIIc, the interaction of Emotional intelligence and personality shall be used to moderate the Job attitude- Performance relationship. From the results of the final analysis it could be understood that, the interaction effect of Emotional intelligence, personality and job attitude have markedly changed the nature of the predictive relationship between Job attitudes and performance. This means that there is a moderating effect by Emotional intelligence and personality together on the Job attitude performance relationship.

Hence, this sub- hypothesis is accepted.

MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

1. Trained managers have higher job attitudes
2. Untrained managers have better performance

3. The people who did not have accidents have higher self confidence, conscientiousness, service orientation and leadership qualities of emotional intelligence.
4. The accident group and non accident group did not significantly differ in their personality and job attitudes.
5. The non accident groups were better performers than the accident group.
6. Type A persons had higher emotional intelligence than the Type B persons.
7. The Job involvement was found to be higher for high experience group.
8. Job satisfaction was found to be higher for low experience group.
9. The low experience group was found to have higher performance indices compared to the medium and high experience groups.
10. The low salary group was found to have high job involvement.
11. The high salary group was found to have high overall job attitudes, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.
12. The salary doesn't significantly affect the performance (overall); only in the coworker 2 rating the low salary group have significantly higher performance.
13. The best predictors of Organisational commitment are (in the order of predictive strength), change catalyst, empathy (negatively), initiative, leadership, building bonds (negatively), aggression/hostility (negatively), time urgency, communication, team work and

collaboration and change catalyst. All these variables put together predict 34.9% of organizational commitment.

14. The best predictors of job involvement are (in the order of predictive strength), conflict management, communication, aggression hostility, leadership, goal directed behaviour without proper planning, building bonds (negatively), adaptability, empathy, initiative, self control, and emotional self awareness (negatively). All these variables together accounts for 61% of variance in job involvement.
15. The best predictors of (in the order of predictive strength) of job satisfaction are accurate self-assessment, empathy (negatively), team work and collaboration, building bonds (negatively) and emotional self awareness (negatively). All these variables put together accounts for 32.9% variance in job satisfaction.
16. The best predictors (in the order of predictive strength) of overall job attitude are empathy (negatively), leadership, building bonds (negatively), initiative, team work and collaboration, communication (negatively) adaptability, goal directed behaviour without proper planning and accurate self assessment. All these variables put together predicts 47% of variance in overall job attitudes.
17. The best predictors of overall performance are, adaptability, organizational awareness, developing others, influence, trustworthiness, polyphasic behaviour, job involvement, building bonds, achievement orientation, conscientiousness, emotional self awareness, team work and collaboration, self confidence and self control. All these variables together predict around 47.4% of performance.

18. The Type B persons with high emotional intelligence in the higher age category have significantly higher organisational commitment.
19. The overall performance of Type B personalities with high emotional intelligence in the medium age category are better than any other groups.
20. The over all performance was higher for Type B personalities with high emotional intelligence and low job attitudes.
21. Emotional intelligence has a moderating effect in the job attitude – performance relationship.
22. Personality has a moderating effect on the job attitude- performance relationship.
23. Emotional intelligence and personality together also can exert a moderating effect on the job attitude –performance relationship.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study was designed to understand and find out the influences of emotional intelligence and personality, in controlling the relationship dynamics between job attitudes and performance. The study also has tried to find out the interrelationship among different study variables and to establish predictive relationships among these variables.

These findings of this study are very useful for the managers and employers and HR specialists to devise strategies for enhancing the performances of the individual employees.

The findings can be made use by the individual employees to enhance their job satisfaction and success in their jobs by developing the right combinations of skills as suggested by the findings.

The knowledge of the role of emotional intelligence in performance regulation and in job satisfaction can help the employee to decide on the personality development strategies for oneself.

This knowledge about the interactive relationships among personality, emotional intelligence, job attitude, and performance variables is of great use for HR professionals, in devising promotional criteria and recruitment strategies.

The understanding of the inter relationships among emotional intelligence, personality and job attitudes and performance can help any individual, or organisation, who wants to maintain a satisfactory and productive workforce.

THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1. The sample size of the study was limited to 247 subjects. If more subjects were included in the study, the results would have been more general and more detailed explorations would have been possible.
2. The subjects selected were only middle level managers; it would have been more meaningful to include lower level and top level managers in the study.
3. The sample was limited to the male managers. There were no female managers included in the study, because of the special nature of the organisations from where the data were collected.
4. The research was originally aiming at studying the Job Behaviours of the managers, but, because of the peculiar situation in Kerala, only the performance could be studied, as the other variables coming under the concept Job Behaviours (i.e. Turnover, absenteeism etc) were not

much reported in these organisations where the data were collected from.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1. It would be appropriate to conduct another study within the same area of research, including more industries / organisations and the more departments, which could give a more comprehensive result on the topic and will be of better utility to the consultants and managements.

2. The present study was focused on the middle managers from 4 organisations while, it would be of wider implications if the study could include more areas of work and senior and lower level managers from different categories like finance, HRM, IT ,operation etc. In future if similar studies are conducted keeping the above mentioned points in mind, the results of those studies may gives more comprehensive understanding and over view of the differences in the levels of emotional intelligence, in performance of individuals and organisations.

3. The present study concentrated only on the Kerala industrial/ organizational setting. While a comparative study of other states' and Kerala 's industrial force on Emotional intelligence, would be an interesting study to analyse and understand the regional variations in the construct of Emotional intelligence. It will be a useful piece of information for the HRD specialists in their recruitment and selection process.

It will be of great satisfaction to the researcher, if any of the suggestions are made use of by the future researchers and /or HR professionals.

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**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY
AS MODERATORS OF JOB ATTITUDES AND
JOB BEHAVIOURS**

**THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN PSYCHOLOGY**

MADHU. K.B.

**UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT
KERALA**

2007

APPENDICES

APPENDIX - I

**EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY
(ECI)**

Directions:

Each question in this questionnaire describes a work-related behaviour. Think about your performance over the last 12 months, then use the scale below to indicate how characteristic is each behaviour for yourself.

A – Always; **B** – Most of the times; **C** – Sometimes; **D** – Rarely and **E** – Never.

Read each statement and mark your response using a circle (**O**) on the appropriate letter against each statement.

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| 1. | Confronts unethical actions in others | A B C D E |
| 2. | Identifies and uses opportunities to meet new people and develop new contacts | A B C D E |
| 3. | Present self in an assured, forceful, impressive and unhesitating manner | A B C D E |
| 4. | Enlists others in pursuit of a change initiative | A B C D E |
| 5. | Knows how feelings impact own performance | A B C D E |
| 6. | Applies standard procedures flexibly (e.g., alters normal procedures to fit a specific situation) | A B C D E |
| 7. | Establishes and maintains close relationships among work associates | A B C D E |
| 8. | Believes oneself to be among the most capable for a job and likely to succeed | A B C D E |
| 9. | Stimulates enthusiasm and makes work exiting | A B C D E |
| 10. | Finds and acts upon present opportunities | A B C D E |
| 11. | Makes career choices to leverage opportunities to learn new things or broaden one's experiences | A B C D E |
| 12. | Accurately reads key relationships and social networks in groups, organizations, or the larger world | A B C D E |

- 13. Acknowledges own strengths and areas of weakness A B C D E
- 14. Models the change expected to others A B C D E
- 15. Promotes groups reputation with outsiders A B C D E
- 16. Has sense of humor about oneself A B C D E
- 17. Fine-tunes delivery in accord with audience's mood and emotional reactions A B C D E
- 18. Respects, treats with courtesy and relates well to people of diverse background A B C D E
- 19. Uses factual arguments to persuade and influence others (e.g., appeals to reasons or data) A B C D E
- 20. Matches customer or client needs to services or products A B C D E
- 21. Shows attention to details (e.g., double checks information for accuracy) A B C D E
- 22. Values, solicits and uses other's inputs A B C D E
- 23. Behaves calmly in stressful situations A B C D E
- 24. Responds to stereotyping by stating and appreciating person's uniqueness A B C D E
- 25. Asks questions to understand another person A B C D E
- 26. Accurately reads peoples moods, feeling, or nonverbal cues A B C D E
- 27. Maintains clear communication of mutual expectations with customers or clients A B C D E
- 28. Uses strong mutual relationships toward work goals A B C D E
- 29. Feels confidence to work without the need for direct supervision A B C D E
- 30. Takes personal responsibility for solving customer or client problems undefensively A B C D E
- 31. Has 'presence' (e.g., stands out in a group) A B C D E

- 32. Gains the buy-in of influential parties and enlists their help in convincing others A B C D E
- 33. Expresses positive expectations, or respect for others at work A B C D E
- 34. Gives directions or demonstrations to develop someone A B C D E
- 35. Consistently and visibly leads by example and sets a clear standard for teams and colleagues A B C D E
- 36. Is not defensive in receiving new information or perspectives about oneself A B C D E
- 37. Stays composed and positive, even in trying moments A B C D E
- 38. Effective in give-and-take with an audience A B C D E
- 39. Resists the impulse to act immediately A B C D E
- 40. Cuts through red tape and bends the rules when necessary to get the job done A B C D E
- 41. Seeks out opportunities to broaden one's repertoire of capabilities A B C D E
- 42. Makes decisions, sets priorities, and chooses goals on the basis of calculated costs and benefits A B C D E
- 43. Gets people to "buy in" or take ownership of ideas or plans A B C D E
- 44. Follows through on commitments A B C D E
- 45. Sets own standard and use them to judge performance A B C D E
- 46. Willingly changes ideas and perceptions based on new information or contrary evidence A B C D E
- 47. Leads by giving directions and by using one's formal authority or positional power A B C D E
- 48. Finds a common ideal to which all parties in a conflict can endorse A B C D E

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 49. | Recognizes the situations that arouse own emotions | A | B | C | D | E |
| 50. | Smoothly juggles multiple demands | A | B | C | D | E |
| 51. | Brings disagreement and grievances into the open | A | B | C | D | E |
| 52. | Recognizes specific strengths or development | A | B | C | D | E |
| 53. | Pays attention and listens | A | B | C | D | E |
| 54. | Expresses an explicit vision for change to those affected | A | B | C | D | E |
| 55. | Expresses positive expectations about others' potentials | A | B | C | D | E |
| 56. | Continuously broadens and maintains a wide network of relationships | A | B | C | D | E |
| 57. | Understands organizations values and culture (e.g., unspoken rules and expectations) | A | B | C | D | E |
| 58. | Acts on own values even when there is significant risk | A | B | C | D | E |
| 59. | Builds team spirit by creating symbols of identity and pride | A | B | C | D | E |
| 60. | States a need for change | A | B | C | D | E |
| 61. | Takes a strong public stand to advocate change despite opposition | A | B | C | D | E |
| 62. | Identifies and encourages opportunities for collaboration across and within the groups | A | B | C | D | E |
| 63. | Invites dialogue when communicating | A | B | C | D | E |
| 64. | Uses nonverbal cues like the tone of voice to focus on the message | A | B | C | D | E |
| 65. | Gives timely, constructive feedback in behavioural rather than in personal terms | A | B | C | D | E |
| 66. | Removes barriers to change | A | B | C | D | E |
| 67. | Acts rather than simply waiting to study options | A | B | C | D | E |

- 68. Takes symbolic actions to have a specific impact on the audience A B C D E
- 69. Helps de-escalate conflicts A B C D E
- 70. Anticipates obstacles to a goal in order to overcome them A B C D E
- 71. Publicly admits to mistakes even when it is not easy to do so A B C D E
- 72. Adapts by changing overall strategy, goals, or projects to fit the situation A B C D E
- 73. Uses examples and/or visual aids to effectively clarify or emphasis the message A B C D E
- 74. Goes beyond what is required or expected A B C D E
- 75. Calms others in stressful situations A B C D E
- 76. Acts as a trusted advisor to a customer or client over time A B C D E
- 77. Sets measurable and challenging goals for oneself or others A B C D E
- 78. Expresses dissatisfaction with the status quo and seek ways to improve performance A B C D E
- 79. Is comfortable with ambiguity A B C D E
- 80. Personally leads change initiatives A B C D E
- 81. Initiates actions to create possibilities for the future A B C D E
- 82. Communicates the position of those involved in a conflict to all concerned A B C D E
- 83. Makes self available to customer or clients A B C D E
- 84. Convinces by appealing to people's self interest A B C D E
- 85. Develops broad, behind-the-screen support to increase persuasive impact A B C D E

- 86. Assumes significant personal or professional risk to accomplish important goals (e.g., challenging powerful others with an unpopular point of view) A B C D E
- 87. Takes calculated risks to reach a goal A B C D E
- 88. Compensates for on stated limitations by working with others with the necessary strengths A B C D E
- 89. Monitors customer or client satisfaction A B C D E
- 90. Expresses concern with own image and reputation, or his/her organizations A B C D E
- 91. Speaks out for a course of action one believes in even when others disagree A B C D E
- 92. Focuses disagreement on the issue or action involved rather than the person A B C D E
- 93. Understands the underlying causes for someone's feelings, behaviour, or concerns A B C D E
- 94. Expresses own feelings A B C D E
- 95. Uses engaging style in writing or presenting to an audience A B C D E
- 96. Understands the history and reasons for continuing organizational issues A B C D E
- 97. Understands political forces at work in the organization A B C D E
- 98. Is organized and careful in own work A B C D E
- 99. Strives to keep promises A B C D E
- 100. Inspires others to action by articulating a compelling mission or vision A B C D E
- 101. Demonstrates an ability to see things from someone's perspective A B C D E
- 102. Is decisive A B C D E

- 103. Provides long term monitoring or coaching in the context of a continuing relationship **A B C D E**
- 104. Actively promotes a friendly climate, good morale and co-operation **A B C D E**
- 105. Seeks information in unusual ways or from sources not typically used **A B C D E**
- 106. Behaves consistently with own stated values and beliefs **A B C D E**
- 107. Builds trust through reliability – can be counted on **A B C D E**
- 108. Maintains co-operative working relationships **A B C D E**
- 109. Addresses unexpressed needs of the customer or client **A B C D E**
- 110. Shares information (e.g., keeps others inform) to foster collaboration **A B C D E**

APPENDIX - II

**A SCALE OF TYPE A BEHAVIOUR PATTERN
A SELF ASSESSMENT SCALE**

Name : Religion/Caste :
Age : District :
Educational : Profession :
Qualification : Male / Female :
Married/Single:

Read the statements given below carefully and mark your answers using '✓' mark.

Choose from the responses given against each statements to answer the questions below:

a – Almost always true; **b** – Usually true; **c** – Sometimes; **d** – Seldom true; **e** – Never true.

Answer each questions according to what is generally true for you.

1. I don't like to wait for other people to complete their work before I can proceed any own a b c d e
2. I hate to wait in lines a b c d e
3. People tell me that I tend to get irritated too easily a b c d e
4. Whenever possible I try to make activities competitive a b c d e
5. I have a tendency to rush into work that needs to be done before knowing the procedure I will use to complete the job a b c d e
6. Even when I go for vacation, I usually take some work along a b c d e
7. When I make a mistake, it is usually due to the fact that I have rushed into the job before completely planning it through a b c d e
8. I feel guilty for taking off from work a b c d e

9. People tell me, I have bad temper when it came to competition situations a b c d e
10. I tend to lose my temper when I am under a lot of pressure at work a b c d e
11. Whenever possible, I will attempt to complete two or more task at once a b c d e
12. I tend to race against the clock a b c d e
13. I have no patience for lateness a b c d e
14. I catch myself rushing when there is no need a b c d e

APPENDIX - III

JOB ATTITUDE SCALE

(C. Jayan, 2002)

Directions:

There are some statements regarding your experiences and feelings about your Job. Indicate how far each statement is characteristic of you by choosing the appropriate response given against each statement. The responses are:

A – Always; **B** – Most of the times; **C** – Sometimes; **D** – Rarely and **E** – Never.

Read each statement and mark your answer by putting a circle (O) on the chosen letter.

Organisational Commitment

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1. | I continue in this job only due to circumstantial compulsions | A | B | C | D | E |
| 2. | Our superiors are capable of solving all our labour problems | A | B | C | D | E |
| 3. | I am not given proper recognition here. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 4. | I do not want to shrink away from responsibilities in my job | A | B | C | D | E |
| 5. | Compared to any other job, I like the present one | A | B | C | D | E |
| 6. | This institution assists each of the employees to achieve their life goals | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. | I am fully satisfied with the performance of this institution | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. | The management is very much interested in the needs and welfare of the employees | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. | This job is in line with my interests and aptitudes | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. | Many irrelevant and meaningless regulations exist here | A | B | C | D | E |

- 11. Since expected results are not forthcoming, I have no sincerity in this job A B C D E
- 12. I am prepared to make sacrifice for the success of this institution A B C D E
- 13. I would never behave in a manner that would affect the prestige and good tradition of this institution A B C D E
- 14. I have faith in and respect for the executives and management of this institution A B C D E
- 15. The employees are put to a lot of difficulties because of management's policies and regulations A B C D E

Job Involvement

- 16. I feel boredom when I do not have any work to do A B C D E
- 17. When the work problem is not solved then I continue to think about that in the home also A B C D E
- 18. Sometimes it is difficult for me to have sleep when I think about the job A B C D E
- 19. I become anxious when the work is not completed A B C D E
- 20. In the holidays also I think that my work is not being done A B C D E
- 21. I complete my work even if it takes more than allotted time without any extra salary A B C D E
- 22. The important events of my life are related to my work A B C D E
- 23. I feel frustrated on my failure at work A B C D E
- 24. Work is every thing for me A B C D E
- 25. Mostly I like to stay at home in comparison to coming for the work A B C D E
- 26. My work is the most important part of my life A B C D E
- 27. There are other things important than this work A B C D E
- 28. Sometimes I would like to blame myself for my faults at my work A B C D E

- 29. I do not stay overtime even if some work is left incomplete A B C D E
- 30. My work is so good that I do not get fatigued even after doing it for longer time A B C D E

Job Satisfaction

- 31. I believe that since my services are essential for this institution I will not be dismissed A B C D E
- 32. I believe that since I am suitably qualified I will not be dismissed A B C D E
- 33. My present salary is not sufficient for me to maintain my social status A B C D E
- 34. I feel my present salary is less than what I should be getting for the work I do A B C D E
- 35. My job is not in keeping with the social prestige that I otherwise enjoy A B C D E
- 36. This job can take me to high positions in accordance with my ambitions A B C D E
- 37. I feel that the promotion system in this institution is not scientific A B C D E
- 38. I cannot approve of the way every one's work is apportioned in this institution A B C D E
- 39. Employees here get as many holidays as those of other institutions A B C D E
- 40. In this institution I do not have any enduring friendship with anyone A B C D E
- 41. This job deserves many more holidays than are now given A B C D E
- 42. Sufficient pension benefits are being provided in this job A B C D E
- 43. I have a feeling that I will not achieve anything from this job A B C D E

44. In my present work there are very few opportunities to show my talent

A B C D E

45. It is reassuring that in my work I get all cooperation from the management

A B C D E

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APPENDIX - IV

Background Information

(C. Jayan, 1995)

1. Name of the Institution :
2. Name of the employee (Manager) :
3. Age :
4. Educational Qualifications : (a) SSLC (b) General
(c) Technical
5. How many years of service have you put in this organisation :
6. How long have you been serving in the present position :
7. Before joining this organisation have you worked in any other organisation? : Yes / No
If Yes, how long :
8. Current monthly income :
9. Average income of the family :
10. Amount you received as bonus last year :
11. Marital Status : Single / Married
If married, how many children :
12. Total no. of dependents :
(a) Below 18 years :
(b) Above 18 years :
13. Accommodation : Own house / Quarters provided /
Rented home

- 5
14. Are you trained for your job : Yes / No
If yes, (a) Nature of training :
(b) How long :
(c) Where from :
15. Have you ever had an industrial accident? : Yes / No
If yes, it was : very serious / serious / minor /
very minor
How many times? :
16. (a) Do you take leaves without any specific reasons? : Yes / No
(b) Do you take leaves for fun? : Yes / No
(c) Do you feel bad if you have not used up your casual leaves? : Yes / No
(d) Is taking leave for no reasons good? : Yes / No

APPENDIX - V

Performance Rating – 1

(C. Jayan, 1995)

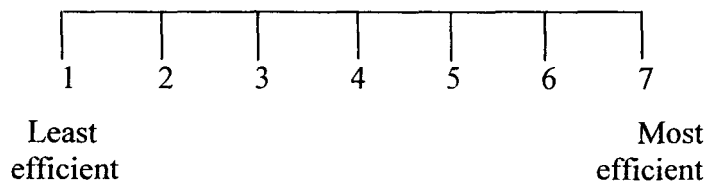
Self

Given below is a scale to rate your own performance at work. Mark your position in the scale given below by putting a circle (O) in the appropriate place. In this scale '1' indicate least efficiency and '7' indicates maximum efficiency. You can choose any value from 1 – 7 depending on the ratings you give for your performance.

Statement

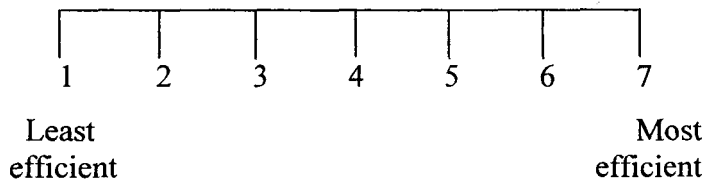
1. In your opinion, how efficient are you in performing your work?

Scale



2. Compared to your co-workers how efficient are you in your job?

Scale



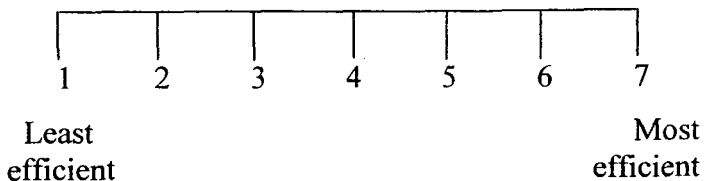
Co-worker

Rate your co-worker on his/her performance efficiency. Follow the same pattern as self rating.

Statement

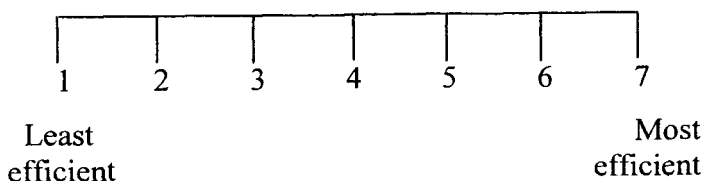
1. How efficient is your coworker in his/her work?

Scale



2. Compared to the other employees how efficient is your co-worker?

Scale



APPENDIX - VI

Supervisor Rating

As a supervisor (or superior), please rate the following employees (working under you) for their efficiency in performance. Mark your opinions in the scale given below by putting a circle (O) in the appropriate number. In this scale '1' indicates least efficiency and '7' indicates maximum efficiency. You can choose any value from 1-7 depending on the ratings you have for that particular employee.

Statement:

What is your ratings about the following employees on their work efficiency?

<u>Name</u>	<u>Scale</u>
1. _____	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">1</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">2</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">3</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">4</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">5</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">6</div> <div>7</div> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; width: 100%; margin-top: 5px;"> Least efficient Most efficient </div>
2. _____	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">1</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">2</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">3</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">4</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">5</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">6</div> <div>7</div> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; width: 100%; margin-top: 5px;"> Least efficient Most efficient </div>
3. _____	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">1</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">2</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">3</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">4</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">5</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">6</div> <div>7</div> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; width: 100%; margin-top: 5px;"> Least efficient Most efficient </div>
4. _____	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">1</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">2</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">3</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">4</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">5</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">6</div> <div>7</div> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; width: 100%; margin-top: 5px;"> Least efficient Most efficient </div>
5. _____	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">1</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">2</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">3</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">4</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">5</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">6</div> <div>7</div> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; width: 100%; margin-top: 5px;"> Least efficient Most efficient </div>
6. _____	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">1</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">2</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">3</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">4</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">5</div> <div style="margin-right: 20px;">6</div> <div>7</div> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; width: 100%; margin-top: 5px;"> Least efficient Most efficient </div>

