Chapter-I

INTRODUCTION
Emotional Intelligence

Intelligence comes as a result of two causes viz; cognition and emotion. We, by and large, have been exposed to one dimension of personal intelligence, i.e., the cognition or traditional intelligence, and little has been explored with regard to the role of emotions towards the intelligence of a person. The conventional wisdom among the cognitive scientists held the view that intelligence is a mere processing of fact, and emotions have no role to play in intelligence. But with the changing times, and progressing research in the field of psychology, the theory of conventional wisdom propounded by the cognitive scientists has been found to be a lopsided vision. The researchers have begun recognizing and realizing the significance of feeling while thinking. Thus, emerged the domain of emotional intelligence.

Before unveiling various aspects of emotional intelligence the meaning of the word emotion needs to be understood. The word 'emotion' connotes various meanings to various people. Going by the Oxford English Dictionary, emotion is defined as "any agitation or disturbance of mind, feeling, passion, any vehement or excited mental state."

Emotions vary in accordance with the blends, variations and mutations of the mental state. In such emotional repertoire, each emotion plays a unique role as prompted by their biological tendencies. These various biological propensities are shaped further by our experience in life and culture.

Emotional intelligence has been defined as the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions, to assist through, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and to reflectively regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). In short, it is a group of psychological abilities acknowledging and regulating the emotions that result in better performance of a person. Daniel Goleman, the father of emotional intelligence defines emotional intelligence as 'a potential for mastering the skills of self awareness, self management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Emotional intelligence is something that gives a person a competitive edge. Even in certain renowned business establishments, the most valued and productive managers are
those who possess strong traits of emotional intelligence and are not necessarily those with the highest IQ. The lack of emotional intelligence explains why people who, despite having a high IQ, have been such utter failures and disastrous in their personal and professional lives. It is often said that a high IQ may assure you a top position, but it may not make you a top person.

The influence of emotional intelligence on popular culture and the academic community has been rapid and widespread. While this has stimulated a surprising number of research initiatives across a wide range of domains within psychology, the swiftness with which the concept of emotional intelligence has caught on perhaps inevitably created a gap between what we know and what we need to know. Understandably, this has led to a great deal of controversy and debate among researchers and practitioners eager to understand and apply the principles associated with emotional intelligence.

Ever since the publication of Daniel Goleman first book on the topic in 1995, emotional intelligence has become one of the latest buzzwords in corporate America. Even though the term has been misused and abused by many popularizers, emotional intelligence represents a way in which I/O psychology can make particularly significant contributions to their clients in future.

Goleman (1998) reported that a survey of American employers revealed that more than half of the people who worked for them lacked the motivation to continue learning and improving on the job. Today, the world has thousands of well-trained, promising men and women, who have reached their plateau or worse, have failed because of crucial gaps in their emotional competencies.

Initially, when psychologists began to write and think about intelligence, they focused on cognitive aspects, such as memory and problem, solving. However, there were researchers who recognized early on that the non-cognitive aspects were also important. David Wechsler defined intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal affectively with his environment (Wechsler, 1958)."
By early 1990, there was a long tradition of research on the role of non cognitive factors in helping people to succeed in both life and the workplace. In the late 1980s, two American psychologists, Peter Salovey of Yale and John Mayer of the University of New Hampshire (1997), summed up human qualities such as sympathy, self awareness and emotional control. For a while, the phase they coined - 'emotional intelligence' languished in academic obscurity.

When Salovey and Mayer coined the term emotional intelligence in 1990 (Salovey and Mayer, 1990), they were aware of the previous work on non cognitive aspects of intelligence. They described emotional intelligence as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action. (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Salovey and Mayer also initiated a research program intended to develop valid measures of emotional intelligence and to emphasize its significance. In the early 1990s, Daniel Goleman became aware of Salovey and Mayer's work and this eventually led to his book, Emotional Intelligence.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) originally defined emotional intelligence as the ability of an individual to monitor one's own and others emotions; to discriminate among the positive and negative effects of emotion; and to use emotional information to guide one's thinking and actions. Revising their digital framework, Mayer and Salovey (1997) contented that emotional intelligence is differentiated from other intelligence (e.g. Gardner's 1983) constructs of interpersonal or intrapersonal intelligence) as it deals with the management of emotions and, therefore, specifically describes the complex process that links emotion and cognition.

Cross cultural studies have identified various quite distinct and universally felt emotions like joy, anger, fear, love and so on. Emotions originate from exposure to specific situations. The nature and the intensity of the emotions are usually related to cognitive activity in the form of the perception of the situation. Emotions are human beings warning systems that are created by the combination of our thoughts, feelings and actions. Unlike feeling, 'emotion' is an 'umbrella term' which includes the situation, the interpretation / perception of the situation and the response or feeling related to the
perception of the situation. However, the scientific debate on how to classify emotions continues.

The concept of emotional intelligence, as we find being popularized, for the last one decade or so has been a part of the Hindu Psyche, imbibed from the Sankhya Yoga of Shrimad Bhagwat Gita. The sermon starts with the definition and the elucidation of the concept of Sthilaprajna - a person of steady wisdom, a person whose vivek (intelligence) is always in complete command of his sense organs, a person who has the capacity to stand apart and be impendent of feelings or emotions.

To enable learning, recognition, differentiation and choice, emotional intelligence may be further defined both intrapersonal and interpersonally. At the intrapersonal level, it is the ability to form an accurate, honest model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life. At the interpersonal level, it is the ability to understand and work with their people Gardner, 1993; Salovey and Mayer, 1990.

There are four areas of emotional intelligence:

- Identifying emotions
- Using emotions
- Understanding emotions
- Managing emotions

The EI model is emerging as an inferential framework in the field of psychology. The span of psychological fields that are now supported by the emotional intelligence models range from neuroscience to health psychology. The areas which have strongest association with emotional intelligence are developmental psychology, educational psychology, clinical psychology, counseling psychology, social psychology, organizational psychology and so on. The field of psychology has assumed a paradigm shift after the introduction of emotional intelligence.

People are often surprised to find that with the emotional intelligence paradigm. There exists not one, but several theories (eg. Bar-on, 2000; Goleman, 1995: 1998;
Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Each theory has been put forward in an attempt to better understand and explain the skills, traits and abilities associated with social and emotional intelligence.

But the existence of several theoretical viewpoints with the emotional intelligence paradigm does not indicate a weakness, but rather the robustness of the field. This kind of alternative theorizing, of course, is not unique to the study of emotional intelligence and should not be viewed as undermining the validity and utility of this emerging field. In describing the current status of the overall field of intelligence, Sternberg, Lautrey, and Lubart (2002) commented, "few fields seem to have lenses with so many colours. Yet the field of traditional intelligence has not seriously been threatened or discredited for having multiple theories.

While still in its infancy, the field of emotional intelligence would seem to be following a trajectory. While several theories associated with the emotional intelligence paradigm currently exist, the three that have generated the most interest in terms of research and application are the theories of Mayer and Salovey (1997), Bar On (1988) and Goleman (1998b; 2002). While each theory represents a unique set of contents that represents the theoretical orientation and context in which each of these authors have decided to frame their theory, all share a common desire to understand and measure the abilities and traits related to recognizing and regulating emotions in ourselves and others (Goleman, 2001).

All theories within emotional intelligence paradigm seek to understand how individuals perceive, understand, utilize and manage emotions in an effect to predict and foster personal effectiveness. The first of the three major theories to emerge was that of Bar on (1988).

In his doctoral dissertation he coined the emotional audient (EQ), an analogue to intelligence Quotient (IQ).

Bar-On (2000 a) currently defines his model in terms of an array of traits and abilities related to emotional and social knowledge that influence our overall ability to
effectively cope with environmental demands, as such it can be viewed as a model of psychological well being and adaptation. This model includes:

1. The ability to be aware to understand, and to express oneself.
2. The ability to be aware of, to understand and relate to others.
3. The ability to deal with strong emotions and control one's impulses; and
4. The ability to adapt to change and to solve problems of a personal or social nature.

The four main domains in this model are interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and general mood (Bar on 1997 b).

Emotional intelligence as formulated in the theory of Mayer and Salovey (1997) has been framed within a model of intelligence. The use of this frame is significant, as it defines emotional intelligence more specifically as the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). This focus on objective, performance based assessment is similar in spirit to the methods used to measure traditional intelligence (IQ). Performance based measures of emotional intelligence take a similar approach.

The most recent addition to theory within the emotional intelligence paradigm is the framework of emotional intelligence put forward by Goleman (1998b) in his book "working with emotional intelligence", and clarified in a later article (Goleman, 2001). This theory represents a framework of emotional intelligence that reflects how an individual's potential for mastering the skills of self awareness, self management, social awareness, and relationship management translates into success in the work place (Goleman, 2001). Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, then, offers these four major domains.

These four domains are shared by all the main variations of EI theory, though the terms used to refer to them differ. The domains of self awareness and self management, for example, fall within what Gardner (1983) calls intrapersonal intelligence, and social
awareness and relationship management fit within his definite of interpersonal intelligence. Some make a distinction between emotional intelligence and social intelligence, seeing EI as personal self management capabilities like impulse control and social intelligence as relationship skills.

The EI theory of performance points that each the four domains of EI derive from distinct neurological mechanisms that distinguish each domain from the others and all four from purely cognitive domains of ability. From the perspective of affective neuroscience, the defining boundary in brain activity between emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence is the distinction between capacities that are purely neocortical and those that integrate neocortical and limbic circuitry.

**Why and What of EI**

Emotional intelligence has recently been suggested to be a factor of paramount importance in adjustment to life in general, and to work and work performance in particular (Goleman, 1995, 1998). The ability to manage feelings and handle stress is another aspect of emotional intelligence that has been found to be important for success. Emotional intelligence has much to do with knowing when and how to express emotions.

Empathy is a particularly important aspect of emotional intelligence, and researchers have known for years that it contributes to occupational success. Rosenthal and his colleagues at Harvard discovered over two decades ago that people who were best at identifying others emotions were more successful in their work as well as in their social lives (Rosenthal, 1977).

Although emotions research in organizational settings was ignored for a significant period of time, research into the impact of emotions on organizational behavior is increasing (Ashkanasy, Hartel and Zerbe 2000). Over recent years, the construct of emotional intelligence has been advanced as providing greater insights into organizational behavior.

David Mc Clelland (1975) was perhaps the first to propose the concept of competence as a basis for identifying what differentiates outstanding from average performance at work. Mc Clelland (1998) reviewed data from more than thirty different
organizations and for executive positions in many professions, from banking and managing to mining geology, sales, and healthcare. He showed that a wide range of EI competencies distinguished top performances from average ones.

Those that distinguished most powerfully were achievement drive, developing others, adaptability, influence self confidence, and leadership.

Emotional competence is a learned capability that results in outstanding performance at work. The emotional competency dimension of emotional intelligence constitutes the capacity to respond to emotional stimuli elicited by various situations and to have high self esteem and optimism among others. Emotional competencies are clustered into groups, each based on a common underlying emotional intelligence ability. Emotional competencies seem to operate most powerfully in synergistic groupings, with the evidence suggesting that mastery of a 'critical mass' of competencies is necessary for supervisor performance. Organizations and individuals interface in ways that require a multitude of emotional intelligence abilities, each most effective when used in conjunction with others.

In the corporate world, there are some highly priced skills of managers which are linked to their EI. An effective group leader, a successful negotiator, an excellent team member and a high flier go getter have one thing common among them. They have higher EI than their pieces.

Besides this, emotional intelligence has contributed in plenty to other areas of human development. Recent studies of the emotional brain have opened new doors to the understanding of human behavior, character development, relationships, happiness and well being.

**Emotional Intelligence & Spiritual Development**

While genes are pivotal in establishing some aspects of emotionality, an experience plays a central role in turning genes on and off . The question is that to what significant degree nurture influences the expression of nature. A recent interdisciplinary scientific report called Hardwired to connect claims that the human being is biologically
primed in its basic structure and system to connect to the spiritual reality and also to others.

There is much to be studied on the moderating impact of spirituality and human emotions, especially, in relation to challenging life events, mastery of self, curbing harmful appetites, being worthy of trust, and lasting happiness.

Spiritual education, therefore, implies the existence of an emotional relationship with the divine or personal object of one's worship and devotions. The processes of personal devotions help create new neural pathways responsible for emotional modulation and mastery.

Recent studies of the human brain have brought into focus the importance of the emotional brain. Spiritual education, therefore, implies the existence of an emotional relationship with the divine or personal object of one's worship and devotions called God, Allah, Unknowable Essence, Heaven, and Tao etc. Self regulation, which is seen as fundamentally emotion regulation, is the essence of spiritual developments. An early habit of prayer and prayerful meditation accelerates the person's ability for emotional regulations.

Another factor contributing to the popularity of theories of emotional intelligence is the assumption that, unlike IQ, emotional intelligence can be developed. Bar-On (2000) has found that EI may be learned through life experience. Thus developing emotional intelligence could go a long way in helping companies be more productive and more profitable. Developing emotional intelligence in the workplace means acknowledging that emotions are always present and doing something intelligent with them.

Emotional development is closely related to child development. The healthy emotional development of children is vital to both their ability to learn when young and to their success and happiness as adults. In many advanced countries, rational education is increasingly tilted towards cognitive achievement, and as a result, children may have to face a great deal of emotional pressure and frustration. And irrespective of one's current
level of EQ, it can be developed. Increasing EQ offers quick dividends and affects many areas of life.

Emotional intelligence enables an individual to manage his or her own feelings under tense situations. Today's business enterprises are operating in an environment that is dynamic and highly competitive. Such a setting brings tremendous pressure on the organizational numbers to perform. An emotionally intelligent work place is one where all employees are responsible for their own behavior and how they relate to others. Any new workplace requires emotional intelligence and there are three main ways to raise corporate emotional quotient:

1. To raise consciousness about emotional intelligence
2. To increase emotional competence
3. To create an emotional intelligence culture.

The role of emotions in organizations has been widely articulated in the literature, reflecting both the social constructions stand point (Hochschild 1983), and the psychodynamic exploration of emotion at work.

Both these approaches seem to challenge the ways in which emotions in organizations have been 'narrowly perceived'.

Any organization wishing to thrive through change must make the choice to promote, and allow employee expressions of emotional intelligence. It has also been found that emotionally intelligent employees can be a model for others and this result into developing shared mental models that are critical when individuals need to respond quickly to external organizational threats.

**EI in the workplace**

Organizations dispose off a variety of mechanisms to neutralize emotions at the workplace. These mechanisms aim to either prevent emotions from arising in the first place or to "safety" control those emotions that arise, work groups with higher EI appear to have the necessary criteria to be productive from the outset (Goleman, 1995).
Therefore, it appears that it is in the organizations best interest to ensure that positive levels of EI are displayed in both individual and team work settings.

According to Goleman's research on EI vis-à-vis leadership style of executives, close to 90% of their leadership success was attributable to emotional intelligence managers who use emotional intelligence can ameliorate stress related to job insecurity and also helps to reference the situation so that it positively impacts employee performance. Maintaining healthy and productive relationships between employees and the organization can be a high leverage influence. When managers seek to continue a spirit of shared goals with employees, they are became quite convincing that it is in the best interest of the employee to remain a part of the team.

Emotional quotient also helps one to cope with stressful organizational solutions. Stress management, therefore, largely depends upon striking an emotional balance between a potential stress conditions and the person's reaction to it only professionals with a higher degree of emotional quotient can develop such an effective support system.

Given the value of the personal and organizational effectiveness of EI based capacities, organizations need to hire for emotional intelligence alongwith whatever other technical skills or business expertise they are seeking. Some of the ways in which emotional intelligence assists us in are work based upon the four branch theory of emotional intelligence-

(a) Identifying Emotions

- One needs to be aware of his/her own feelings and emotions so that he/she is not blinded by his/her emotions.
- Being aware of other's emotions is a key to working with people.

(b) Using Emotions

- Creative ideas can come from one's ability to generate a mood or an emotion.
- feeling for other people, having empathy may be based in part upon your ability to generate a feeling that other people feel.
(c) **Understanding Emotions**

- know what motivates people
- understand other people's points of view
- understand and handle team interactions

(d) **Managing Emotions**

- stay aware of your emotions, which have valuable information, and use them to solve problems.
- take a feeling of sadness, find out why you have been disappointed, and solve the problem.
- take a feeling of anger, find out why you are frustrated, and solve the problems.
- take a feeling of anxiety, find out why you are worried, and solve the problem.
- take a feeling of job, find out why you are happy, and do it again.

Emotional intelligence forcefully impacts one's work life in many ways:

- EQ in sales, administration, customer service and management stimulates motivation, reduces stress, improves communication and enhances decision making.
- EQ positively impacts one's ability to sustain both physical and mental health.
- EQ is a primary factor in healthy ageing, permitting long life and wellness.
- EQ helps in the identification and expression of one's feelings.
- EQ allows one to address fears using reasons, rather than avoiding them or allowing them to paralyze him.
- Because of high EQ one can empathize with others' feelings, acknowledge them, and seek to help soothe them.
Research has identified the potential of emotional intelligence to predict a range of interpersonal qualities in the workplace that may contribute to successful organizational change.

**Measuring EQ**

There are various EQ tests which can measure the 'emotional climate' i.e., test pleasure- displeasure, arousal-non arousal or dominance- submission. Other tests measure 'emotional empathy' i.e., feeling what others feel. Another scale is the 'affective tendency scale' which can measure skills like friendliness, sociability, helpfulness, and skills in dealing with people. Yet another scale is one which can measure many different facts of maladjustment or low emotional intelligence e.g., depression, anxiety, hostility, violence, panic loneliness, shyness. This scale also measures facts of adjustment and high emotional intelligence (e.g. affectiveness, achievement, arousal or stimulus-seeking, extraversion, optimism, empathy, nurturance, sensuousness).

It would be beneficial to measure employees' coping strategies in terms of specific workplace change scenarios and examine how these strategies link to emotional intelligence. This may also provide an indication of the ability of those employees to engage in organizational learning. By linking emotional intelligence to learning organization principles and other interpersonal skills needed by management and employees in the workplace during organizational change, a deeper insight into the topic can be gained.

**Type A – Type B**

A few decades ago, some physicians and medical researchers were frustrated by their inability to identify which patients were likely to suffer from cardiovascular problems. Although, they knew high blood pressure, smoking, obesity and inactivity all contributed to the risk of heart disease, combinations of these factors were still unable to predict new cases with much accuracy (Jenkins, 1971). But these medical professionals also noticed that their heart attack patients seemed to act differently than other patients
(Friedman, Rosenman, 1974). Heart attack victims were more active, mere energetic, and more driving than those without cardiovascular problems. Such people seemed to have different personalities.

This personality dimension was identified as the coronary-prone- behavior pattern as it seemed to consist of a combination of behaviors associated with coronary disease. However, today this dimension is more commonly referred to as Type A -Type B or just Type A.

The type A and type B personality theory is a personality type theory that describes a pattern of behaviors that were once considered to be a risk of coronary heart disease. Since its inception in the 1950s, the theory has been widely criticized for its scientific shortcomings. It nonetheless persists in the form of pop psychology with the general population. Strictly differentiating, the name, Type A - Type B is an inappropriate one because it is not a true typology. Instead of identifying two types of people, A and B, a trait continuum should be taken up with extreme Type A people at one extreme and Type B people at the other.

In recent years, considerable attention has been given to the Type A Behavior pattern (TABP). It has been defined as an action – emotion complex that can be observed in any person who is aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons (Friedman & Rosenman, 1974). Thus, TABP refers to a competitive, multi-phasic, achievement-oriented person who possesses a sense of time urgency and impatience and who is both easily aroused and hostile or angry.

Typical Type A people are strongly motivated to overcome obstacles and are driven to achieve. They can be described as impatient, time-conscious, controlling, concerned about their status, ambitious, business-like, aggressive, having difficulty relaxing; and are sometimes disliked by individuals with Type B personalities for the way they are always rushing. They are often attracted to recognition and are high-achieving, work alcoholics who multi-task, drive themselves with deadlines, and are unhappy about delays. Because of this, they do things in a vigorous and efficient manner. Type A people
often find more easy going people a source of frustration. Because of these characteristics, Type A individuals are often described as "Stress-junkies".

Wright (1998) refers to the three key factors which seem best viewed as predisposing in nature in the development of TABP-

(a) a high possibly insatiable need to achieve (meaning competitive success).
(b) early success and therefore, reinforcement for striving efforts.
(c) exposure to timed activities that provide a personal blueprint for achieving more and more by efficient use of time and by chronic activation.

Thus, there are three statistically independent factors which could be identified from Type A behavior pattern:

**Speed and Impatience**: This factor deals with the time urgency revealed in the Type A behavior style. It makes such persons impatient with the conversation of others, hurry other people along, have strong tempers and become irritated easily.

**Job Involvement**: This factor makes the person dedicated to the occupational activities. They typically have a challenging high pressure job. They work overtime and confront important deadlines. They prefer promotions to a pay rise.

**Hard Driving and Competitiveness**: This factor involves perceptions of oneself as being hard-driving, conscientious, responsible, serious, competitive and putting forth more efforts than other people.

On the other hand, typical Type B people are relaxed and unhurried. They are described as patient, easy-going, generally lacking an overriding sense of urgency. They may work hard on occasion, but rarely in the driven, compulsive manner of Type A people. These people are less likely than Type A's to seek competition or to be aroused to anger or action. Because of these characteristics, Type B individuals are often described as apathetic and disengaged by the Type A's.

**Symptoms of Type A Behavior**: -

1. Time urgency and impatience, which causes irritation and exasperation.
2. Free floating hostility, which can be triggered by even minor incidents.

3. Competitive, this makes them oriented towards achievement which causes them to become stressed due to wanting to be the best at whatever it may be i.e. sports or in work.

4. Type A's are over achievers, they usually get themselves involved in many different unrelated activities and perform well in them all.

5. Type A’s biggest problem is stress, they are usually overwhelmed by the amount of tasks they have to do. These tasks are usually a huge list that they planned for themselves.

6. Type A has a high challenging spirit.

**Type B Personality:**

1. Type B personality is almost the opposite of Type A. This type of person is relaxed by nature and has no sense of time urgency.

2. Type B's have got no problems relaxing or sitting without doing anything.

3. Type B's may delay the work they have to the last moment and they usually don't get stressed that easily.

4. Type B could be an achiever too but his lack of sense of time urgency helps him much in not feeling stressed while doing his tasks.

Empirical evidence has also found that Type A students volunteer for experiments earlier in the term than do Type B's, and show up earlier to participate (Gastorf, 1980). Also, Type A's are more likely to respond to frustrating situations with anger and hostility. Type A participants in one study were more likely to give what they thought were electric shocks to another participant, but only when the other person had irritated them (Glass, 1977).

In subsequent research, Type A and Type B people were compared on a variety of behaviors, including driving habits, study habits, reaction to failure and reactions to persuasive messages. Out of this work, one interesting hypothesis came out that explains differences in Type A and Type B behavior in terms of a motivation for control (Glass, 1977). It means that characteristics like achievement striving, time urgency and hostility
reflect the Type A person's desire to exercise effective contain over the people and situations he or she encounters.

Consistent with this notion, several other researchers have found that Type A's are more likely than Type B's to dominate a group discussion. Type A's are less likely to give up control over a task even if someone else might do a better job.

Type A's are also more likely than Type B's to want something after being told they cannot have it.

Some other studies have focused upon how do the Type A and Type B people respond to challenges. In one investigation blood pressure of the participants was measured while they worked on easy, moderately difficult, and extremely difficult tasks. It was found that arousal levels generally went up as people worked on more difficult tasks. Similar results were found when heart rate was measured. Type A's get pumped up when faced with some challenge.

Also, Type A people seem less aware of stress. In one study participants were asked to exert themselves on a treadmill test. Results showed that Type A participants pushed themselves more on the test than did the Type B's, but reported less fatigue. The reason behind people A's refusal to acknowledge fatigue and other difficulties may be that they learn to work through such problems on their way to higher levels of achievement. It also may be that Type A people particularly dislike to admit that they are losing control over a challenging task.

**Type A and Achievement:** Type A people, as are driven and hardworking, are thought to achieve more. They are stimulated by challenges and competition, and hate to admit when they are getting tired. Type A people tend to work harder on achievement tasks than Type B's but not always. Type A's work hard when challenged, but often let their motivation wane when given an easy task.

Their blood pressure and heart rate go up when simply being told they are competing against another person. Not only do Type A's respond to competition, they seem to be attracted to it.
Life in a complex organization can be a great source of challenges for managers. Stress at work leads to extreme physiological symptoms in managers. Further, Type A managers draw higher salaries than their Type B counterparts. Type A is also a significant predictor of how rapidly professionals rise in their fields (Mettlin, 1976). Thus, Type A people typically put in more effort and achieve more than Type B people.

The Type A Behavior Pattern has strong relationship with Factor HDC, i.e. Hard Driving and Competitiveness, Factor (S), i.e. Speed and Impatience Factor (J), i.e., job involvement. Factor (H) involves the perceptions of oneself as being hard-driving, conscientious, responsible, serious, competitive and putting more effort than other people. Factor (S) deals with time urgency in Type A person's behavior. Factor (J) expresses degree of dedication to occupational activity. Moreover, Type A individuals perceive more 'Role Overload' than Type B's (Jones, 1975).

Friedman and Rosenman (1974) while treating middle-aged, younger, cardiac patients found that as compared with noncardiac patients, these persons possessed a constellation of behavioral characteristics (impatience, aggression, achievement-orientation, competitiveness, time urgency, hostility etc.) which was subsequently called as Type A behavior pattern.

Since the Type A persons, with their typical life styles and personal characteristics, have a propensity for creating stressful environments for themselves, one can expect such behavior pattern to put a stress on family and marital life. Studies provided evidence that both Type A men and their spouses have more taxing marital relationships (Burke & Weir, 1980). However, subjects generally reported more marital tension and low marital adjustment if their husbands were perceived as Type A (also Burke et al., 1979). In another study by Houston and Kelly (1987), Type A housewives showed lower marital adjustment and more marital disharmony than Type B housewives.

Most of the research on the relation between Type A behavior and major psychosocial variables such as job stress and marital stress has been done on men. Little research relevant to these issues for women have been published.
Studies have also investigated the effect of Type A behavior on physical and psychological well-being. Although Type A behavior pattern is regarded as an independent risk factor for coronary heart disease (Friedman & Booth-Kewley, 1988; Matthews, 1988; Rosenman et al., 1975; Suls & Sanders, 1989).

Type A behavior is also found to be a maladaptive coping strategy under stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Studies (Haynes et al., 1978) indicates greater daily stress and tension across genders by Type As than by Type Bs. Type A persons are highly involved in their work to the extent of neglecting other life pursuits (Jenkins, 1978). Research with men indicates that Type As report their jobs to be more taxing and feeling their skills less utilized than the Type Bs (Burke & Weir, 1980). In a study by Dearborn & Hastings (1987) on employed women, results indicated that Type As worked longer hours, complained of more physical and psychological symptoms, nervousness, and dysforia at work than the Type Bs.

Ram and Sobhana (1986) studied the JAS scores in 150 Indian urban female professionals, non-professionals and home makers. Type A behavior and job involvement were significantly higher in professional group than in other groups. Education was found to be a significant variable in the Type A behavior pattern.

**Type A and Health:** Early studies found Type A was a good predictor of heart disease. Type A was a better predictor of heart attacks than cholesterol level or cigarette smoking. However, Type A and health is more complex than the original research suggested. Several investigations find that scores on anger and hostility measured do a good job of predicting coronary artery disease. Identifying the toxic component in the Type A behavior has led to a considerable amount of research examining the relation between anger and hostility and health.

Relatively few studies have been done on the comparison of well-being in Type A and Type B women. Kelly and Houston (1985) studied the Type A behavior in employed women. Type A employed women significantly reported poorer physical health despite their marital status (married, widow-divorced, single). As compared with Type B employed women, Type A employed women tended to be younger in age, had higher
educational attainments, work more overtime, report more quantitative work overload, role conflict, and job tension.

Houston and Kelly (1987) conducted a study to assess Type A behavior in housewives. Findings indicate Type A housewives to have more health problems and report more daily stress and tension than Type B housewives. Type A housewives turned out to be overcommitted and felt their skills less well utilized and less rewarded for their contributions at home. Thus, Type A women showed more stressful work experiences than their Type B counterparts. Type A housewives scored more on Test Anxiety Questionnaire and reported significantly poorer covert self-esteem.

Type A behaviour is also found to exhibit more episodic emotional reactions, chronic feelings of anxiety and upset than Type B behavior (Glass, 1977).

Bryne and Rosenman (1986) found a positive relation between Type A and chronic affective distress.

Study by Rhodewalt and Agustsdottir (1984) reveals that events perceived as moderately controllable or uncontrollable, regardless of their desirability, were associated with increased distress for Type A persons.

Suls and Wan (1989) found that Type A persons reported higher level of emotional disturbance although not of pathological range.

Spicer et al. (1991) studied 86 females (30-62 years) found the Type A correlated positively with hopelessness and anger expression. In a study on 227 women and 243 men, Greenglass et al. (1991) found that Type As were significantly higher on Internal Control while Type Bs were significantly higher on Preventive and Existential Coping. In Type As when coping was low, depression and anxiety increased with increasing work stress. With an increase in coping particularly internal control and preventive coping, psychosomatic responses decreased although work stress was high. Rhodewalt et al. (1991) studied 336 male school principals and found that Type As reported more job stress that led to greater physical and psychological impairment than Type As under low stress or Type Bs.
However, Type A is necessarily bad for one's health. Even those who don't let minor setbacks and little frustrations upset them, it may be possible to be productive and healthy.

Type A- Type B is exhibited by a person only in the presence of certain environmental factors, i.e., organizational stress, competition, ego-threat, job related problems etc.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment is another popular attitudinal variable in the work domain. It is considered to be one of the foremost important and crucial outcomes of human resources strategies. It is strongly related to job satisfaction, but it is distinctly different (Tett and Meyer, 1993). Commitment concerns people's attachment to their jobs and is important because it relates to behavior at work. For example, commitment is a precursor to employee turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Organizational commitment is defined as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organization (Blau, 1987).

There have been several somewhat different definitions of commitment, but all involve the attachment of the individual to the organization. Salanick (1977) proposed two approaches – prospective and retrospective. In prospective view; commitment is conceived as an individual’s psychological bond to the organization / social system, as reflected in this involvement with, loyalty for and belief in the values of the organization. In retrospective view, commitment results as individual becomes bound to the behavioural acts that are chosen voluntarily (Raju and Srivastava, 1986).

The most often studied conception is based on the work of Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), which considers organizational commitment to be comprised of three components:-

1. An acceptance of the organization's goals.
2. A willingness to work hard for the organization.

3. The desire to stay with the organization.

**Typology of Commitment**

**Behavioural Commitment:** In the behavioural paradigm, commitment behavior is distinguished from other behavior by its extraordinary level, that is, behavior that is beyond normative organizational expectations of the individual. Hence the behavioural perspective focuses on the “… overt manifestations of commitment (Mowday et al., 1979).

**Attitudinal Commitment:** Mowday et al. (1979) defined commitment “… as a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals”. Both Buchanan and Mowday et al. (1979) define commitment, its distinguishing characteristics as the individual’s internalization of the organization’s goals and values.

Though both the approaches propose different view, but imply four common characteristics of an organizationally committed individuals:

1. Internalization of goals and values of the organization.

2. Involvement in an organizational role in the context of these goals and values.

3. Desire to remain in the organization over an extended period of time in order to serve its goals and values.

4. Willingness to exert effort in the interest of the organization’s goals and values apart from the instrumentality of this effort for the attainment of the individual’s goals.

More recently, a three component conception of commitment has been developed (Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993). The three types commitment are:-

- Affective
- Continuance
• Normative

Affective Commitment occurs when the employee wishes to remain with the organization because of an emotional attachment. One of the earliest and most popular conceptualizations of affective commitment, set forth by Porter and Smith (1970), characterizes a highly committed individual as one who has: 1) a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organization; 2) a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization and 3) a definite belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization.

Continuance commitment exists when a person must remain with the organization because he or she needs the benefits and salary or cannot find another job. The continuance / calculative component / behavioural component refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization. A view applicable to continuance commitment unfolds itself as follows: People take stock of their track record as well as their current worth in the open market.

Normative commitment comes from the values of the employee. The person believes that he or she owes it to the organization to remain out of a sense that this is the right thing to do. Individuals committed to the organization on a normative basis engage in activities on the basis of a sense of duty. They behave in accordance with organizational goals because “they believe it is the ‘right’ and moral thing to do” (Weiner; 1982). Those employees who have been led to believe, via various organizational practices, socialization efforts, or their own personal history, that the organization deserves their loyalty will be likely to have a strong normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1987). A view that might apply to normative commitment suggests that commitment is in some way influenced by the person’s nature rather than what happens at work and that some people are naturally committed whereas others are not (Bateman and Strassor, 1984).

Meyer et al. (1993) discussed the nature and origins of the three components of commitment. The following figure shows the major influences on each:-

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This way, there are different factors involved in each component. Affective commitment arises from job conditions and met expectations, that is, did the job provide the rewards that the employee expected? Continuance commitment is produced by the benefits accrued from working for the organization and by the lack of available alternative jobs. Normative commitment comes from the employee's personal values and from the obligations that the person feels toward the employer. These obligations come from favors that the organization has done, such as paying the person's school expenses.

In the occupational context, commitment is a global phenomenon in which the person, his occupation, his job and the organization are interwoven.
The concept of commitment is also used by sociologists for expressing the 'consistent lines of activity' (Nelson and Foote, 1957) in the context of occupational careers.

Commitment is the key ingredient in the area of human resource management and can be defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization.

Commitment, of any sort holds prime importance as it signifies the stability in terms of behavior one is committed to. Commitment develops as a by-product of the interaction between people and culture.

Organizational commitment, a broader concept, could be defined as an employee's strong belief in and acceptance of an organization's goals and values. In the other words, organizational commitment points to the attitudes of employees concerning commitment towards the organizations they work for (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995:64-65; Northcraft and Neale, 1990:465). Kanter (1968) views organizational commitment as the willingness of workers to devote energy and loyalty to an organization. According to Porter et al. (1974) organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Most scholars define commitment as being a bond between an individual (the employee) and the organization (the employer) (Buchanan, 1974).

Over the years, two basic approaches have been used to study organizational commitment: commitment related attitudes and commitment related behaviors. Each approach offers a slightly different definition. The commitment related attitude approach defines organizational commitment as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth. Porter, Crampton and Smith (1976) define it as the willingness of an employee to exert a high level of effort on behalf of the organization, a strong desire on behalf of the organization, and an acceptance of its major goals and values.

The inducements – contributions model suggests a reciprocal relationship between the individual and the organization. It is apparent that individuals who are
committed to organizational goals are more likely to have a higher performers and more likely to be higher level of satisfaction. Commitment strengthens the ties between the individual and the organization and contributes greatly to performance, success and satisfaction.

The commitment related behavior approach focuses on a behavioral pattern guided by internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests (Wiener, 1982). The pattern of behavior resulting from commitment should possess the following characteristics:-

1. It should reflect personal sacrifices made for the sake of the organization.
2. It should show persistence, that is, the behaviors should not depend primarily on environmental controls such as reinforcement or punishment.
3. Willingness to make personal sacrifice, perform beyond normal expectations and to endure difficult times with an organization, low propensity to "bail-out" in difficult times.
4. Acceptance of organization's values and goals- the internalization factor.

Recent research findings provide a strong case for the continued study of the organizational commitment construct. For example, organizational commitment has been shown in factor analytic studies to be distinguishable from job satisfaction, job involvement, career salience, occupational commitment, turnover intention, work group attachment, and the Protestant work ethic (Cohen, 1993b; Mathieu & Farr, 1991; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). Moreover, organizational commitment has been found to relate differently from these other attitude and commitment constructs to variables presumed to be their antecedents (Mathieu and Farr, 1991; Meyer et al. 1993). Finally, and perhaps the most important, commitment to the organization has been shown to contribute uniquely to the prediction of important outcome variables (eg. Blau & Boal, 1989; Meyer et al. 1993; Tett & Meyer, 1993). In the light of these and related findings, Morrow (1993) concluded in her recent review of the literature that although organizational commitment is itself a multi-dimensional construct, it is clearly distinguishable from other forms of workplace commitment and therefore worthy of study for its own sake.
Commitment can be considered multidimensional in both its form and focus. Indeed, one can envision a two-dimensional matrix with the different forms of commitment listed along one axis and the different foci along the other.

Three compliable theoretical streams apply to the organizational commitment construct. First, common to all Social Exchange theories is the notion that individuals seek favorable outcomes relative to their inputs. Consistent with Social Exchange theory, perceived organizational support (POS) addresses the organization's commitment to its employees. Specifically, POS refers to the extent employees perceive that employers value employee contributions and care about their well-being (Eisenberger et al; 1986). Finally, psychological contract theory refers to the implicit, reciprocal rights and obligations that individuals perceive within exchange relations and can also be used to understand commitment. Each perspective suggests that commitment is contingent on perceived exchanges. More favorable exchanges should strengthen employee attraction to the employment relationship and increased commitment. In addition, all three theories allow for exchange of either instrumental or affective outcomes.

Finally, implicit or explicit within each theory is the notion that employees hold expectations of what employers should provide (e.g., comparison level (CL) standards or expectations of support, psychological contract expectations).

Penley and Gould (1988) also examined the implications of calculative, moral and alienative forms of involvement on the basis of Etzionis (1961) theoretical framework. They found the three specified forms of commitment to be moderately inter-correlated, but not so high correlated so as to suggest that the forms are tapping the same underlying dimension.

THEORIES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

More specifically, three theories can be formulated under the three important heads:-

1. **Sociological Theory**:- Two related concepts of social sanction and social control constitute the social theories of commitment. As per the concept of 'Social Sanction', people act consistently because activity of some particular kind is considered right in
their society or social group and if deviation is made, they are punished. This way, people act consistently to avoid moral / ethical wrongs.

'Social Control’ is a phenomenon that explains people obeying social rules even when no sanctions would follow an interaction. However, this explanation is generally accepted by Sociologists but is generally criticized because of its limitation of not giving any reasonable explanation of how people choose one from among the many audiences they can mentally survive on to observe any given act.

2. **Psychological Theory:**

   Psychoanalysts attribute consistency of behavior to a stable structure of personal needs.

   Maslow (1954) proposed that employees’ needs emerge in a hierarchal fashion and the organization should satisfy their needs. If the organization fails to do so, employees may exhibit non-commitment resulting in loss of productivity and effectiveness of organization.

   But the explanation of behavior with reference to needs that are not observable directly, lead to the problem of implementation of this viewpoint.

3. **Side bet theory:** Two states of mind lead a person to manifest a consistent course of action:

   1. **Made a commitment:** Means a person envisioned as having acted in such a way.

   2. **Being committed:** Being in such a state that he will follow a consistent course. In general, commitment has been described as a disposition to engage in 'consistent lines of activity' as a result of accumulation of 'side bets' that would be lost if the activity were discontinued. When used to explain commitment to the organization, the consistent lines of activity refers to maintaining membership in the organization, where 'consistent line of activity' refers to maintaining membership in the organization.

   The term ‘side bet' is used to refer anything of value the individual has invested like time, effort, money etc. that would be lost or deemed worthless at some perceived cost to the individual if he/she were to leave the organization.
Research has found that the more committed the employee is to the organization, the greater the effort exerted by the employee in performing tasks. Highly committed employees wish to remain associated with the organization and advance organizational goals, and are theory less likely to leave (employee retention is seen to be highest with all forms of commitment). This highlights a positive relationship between the level of organizational commitment and job tenure, which ensures a return on the investment in careful selection, training and development. Committed workers can be expected to exercise responsible autonomy or self-control, removing the need for supervisory staff and producing efficiency gains. Therefore, commitment in the workforce moves away from the traditional psychological contract of a "fair days work for a fair day's pay" and instead to a contract, which implies that employees will go that extra mile for the company. To stay committed, employees should feel valued and recognized by management. A current survey highlighted that the majority of employees in Britain's biggest organizations feel undervalued and uninvolved. The key findings showed that only 9% strongly agree that their views and participation are valued by their organization and only 27% are strongly committed to help their organization succeed. It also shows that low levels of commitment are portrayed across all levels of staff managers and only slightly more committed than non-managers to organizational goals, and show no more understanding of goals than their staff. These are startling results because if managers lack commitment, they possibly cannot be expected to motivate and manage others.

Assessment of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is measured with self-report scales. The items from the most popular scale developed by Mowday et al. (1979) tap the three aspects of commitment - acceptance of goals, willingness of work hard, and intention to stay with the organization. All three components relate strongly to one another and combined they indicate commitment.

The three components in the Meyer et al. (1993) conception of commitment can be assessed with a scale they developed. As opposed to the Mowday et al. (1979) scale, the components in the Meyer et al. (1993) produces separate scores. Research with the scale has found support for the idea that the three types of commitment are separate
variables (Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994). Mowday et al. (1979) scale assesses mainly affective commitment. It correlates strongly with the affective commitment subscale, but not with the continuance or normative subscales. The explanation of another Organizational Commitment Scale is given below:

**Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).** The OCQ was developed by Mowday et al. (1979). It is widely used and supported by extensive psychometric data (Mowday et al., 1979). Respondents indicate on a 7-point scale, the extent to which they agree or disagree with a series of 9 statements (the short version of OCQ) relating to organizational commitment. Sample items are, e.g., I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization, and for me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

Scale developed has been supported by acceptable levels of reliability and validity (Meyer & Allen, 1984; McGee and Ford, 1987). Hung, Chonno and Wilcox (1984) developed a 4 items measure of organizational commitment. It is a 4 items scale inserted in marketing literature. Later Shaub (1991) made a psychometric comparison of two organizational commitment scales Mowday’s organizational commitment scale and Hunt’s organizational commitment scale. Though OCQ developed by Mowday et al. (1979) measure global commitment, there have been various other questionnaires to measure the affective, calculative and normative commitment individually which are as follows:


2. Eight item continuance commitment Scale (CCS) to measure the construct of continuance commitment.

3. Eight item normative Commitment Scale (NSC) by Meyer and Allen (1987) to measure the construct of normative commitment.
Dhar et al. (2002) has developed organizational commitment scale. Commitment is a state of being which individual are bound by actions, through which one may sustain activities and his own involvement. It represents a set of feelings more closely connected to the individual’s desire to stay, attached to a particular work situation. The scale to measure organizational commitment comprises only of 8 well-constructed statements each having 5 response alternatives.

**Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment:-**

1. **Job Satisfaction:-**

   Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted a series of meta-analyses between organizational commitment and variety of variables, including job satisfaction. An average correlation was found between organizational commitment and overall job satisfaction.

   Job satisfaction is said to have the largest effect on commitment. Therefore, this factor should be increased to improve an employee's commitment to an organization. This can be done by providing performance appraisals, reward systems or benefits, which are perceived as fair and satisfactory.

2. **Motivation:-**

   According to Mowday et al. (1979) highly committed employees are thought to be motivated to exert high levels of energy on behalf of the organization.

   According to motivational approach of Kanungo (1982a), an individual can show personal involvement in two different contexts:-

   (a) involvement in particular job.

   (b) Involvement in work in general.

   The motivational approach to the study of involvement embodies a new ways of thinking. Firstly, in contrast with widespread assumption that satisfaction of intrinsic needs is necessary condition for job involvement, the motivational approach views as a function of degree of satisfaction with one’s salient needs, be they intrinsic or extrinsic.
Secondly, the motivational formulation contests the commonly accepted notion that the work values embedded with the Protestant Ethics along promote were involvement.

This way, the motivational formulation approach to satisfaction and involvement is closely associated with the characteristics of organizational commitment and can serve to be an assisting factor in understanding the phenomenon of organizational commitment.

3. **Job involvement:** It refers to the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his/her world (Morrow, 1983). Job involvement correlates highly with attitudinal commitment as compared to CC, as employees may become committed to an organization and maintain membership because it offers numerous side bets, even though they may not be psychologically attached to their jobs.

4. **Stress:** Apparently stress seems to have a negative relationship with employee-attachment with an organization. Alternatively, greater stress is experienced by highly committed employees.

   This way, commitment has been studied in relation to many organizational and person variables. A meta-analysis summarized the results of over 200 studies that reported correlations of commitment with dozens of different variables (Matheiu & Zajac, 1990; Cohen, 1992). There are many parallels between commitment and job satisfaction. This should not be surprising because there is a strong correlation ($r=.49$) between organizational commitment and global job satisfaction.

**Occupational Commitment:** Previous research examining commitment to occupations tended to take a uni-dimensional perspective (Aranya et al., 1981; Blau, 1987; Morrow and Wirih, 1989). Like the earlier work on organizational commitment to occupations has been typically conceptualized as an affective attachment to the occupation.

   Morrow (1983) discussed organizational commitment in terms of an employee’s commitment to his or her occupation, profession, or career, occupational commitment focuses one’s attachment to a particular occupational group or profession.

   The nature of person’s involvement in some occupation might be quite different depending upon which form of commitment is predominant. Affective common
commitment is expected to develop when involvement in the occupation proved to be a satisfying experience (e.g. provided the opportunity to do satisfying work or afforded the opportunity to develop valued skills). Continuance commitment would likely to develop as the individual made investments (side bets) that would be lost or reduced in value if he or she is to change the occupations, e.g., such investments are the status associated with membership in an occupation, time and effort put into acquiring occupation – specific skills.

Normative commitment is expected to develop as a result of the internalization of normative pressures to pursue a course of action, and the receipt of benefits that created a sense of obligation to reciprocate e.g. being a member of family with a history of involvement in a particular occupation.

**Union commitment:** Similar to occupational commitment, it is expected that the relationship between organizational commitment and union commitment is moderated by the other factors such as management union relations. The existence to higher degree of dual commitment has been found where there was more cooperative congenial climate. This suggests that the correlation between union and organizational commitment is likely to be moderated by situational and individual characteristics.

Organizational commitment relates to several work environment variables, including job scope, role ambiguity, and role conflict. It also relates to absence and turnover, with about the same magnitude of correlation as does job satisfaction.

The idea of commitment has been extended from the organization to other work-related domains. Meyer et al. (1993) developed an Occupational Commitment Scale. Occupational commitment concerns the occupation rather than a particular organization. People might be very committed to their occupation, such as accounting or law, and uncommitted to their current employer. Commitment may prove to be an important variable in explaining people's behavior in a variety of settings beyond the immediate organization.
Job Performance

Performance is an individual’s successful criteria at work. It is usually used to calculate an employee's output rate. (eg. sales or production) or evaluate the success rate compared to expectations of the organization. Human performance is defined as a result of the actions set to achieve that goal which is based on a specific standard. That may include actions or behavior of all non observable mental processing, lego, problem solving, decision-making, program planning, reasoning.

Performance Component

Job performance can be classified into two groups - The first group is of those who, for a particular job or profession has been developed. Second is of those who are suitable for all jobs and professions. The first group classifications for the specific jobs are very less, but the second type classifications with expansion capabilities are beneficial. However, research shows that there is positive correlation between these two types of classification and confirmed general factor is job performance.

Functional performance versus conceptual performance

Researches for the performance present researches over the years, with different patterns. One of the most common patterns is the pattern that distinguishes between functional performance and conceptual performance.

Functional performance also includes two sections - First section is related to activity that directly relates to the material production of goods and services that are into organizational output such as purchase, and teaching in one school.

The second is related to performance of any duty, including the core technical activities through the maintaining of raw materials, coordination, supervision, distribution of final products.

When this type of task performance is done well, it facilities the effectiveness.
Second type of performance is the conceptual performance. It relates to the activities that an organization takes up to support the social environment of the organization.

Conceptual performance includes those behaviors that have effect on organizations through the fields of psychological, social and organizational work.

Job performance is a commonly used, yet poorly defined concept in industrial and organizational psychology. It most commonly refers to whether a person performs his/her job well. Among the most commonly accepted theories of job performance comes the work of John P Campbell and Colleagues. Coming from a psychological perspective, Campbell describes job performance as an individual level variable. This differentiates it from more encompassing contrast such as organizational performance which are higher level variables.

**Features of Job Performance**

First, Campbell defines performance as behavior. It is something done by the employee. This concept differentiates performance from outcomes. Outcomes one the result of an individual's performance, but they are also the result of others’ influences. In other words, there are more factors that determine outcomes than just employee's behaviors and actions. Performance is not directly in terms of observable actions of an individual, it can consist of mental productions such as answers or decisions.

Another closely related construct is productivity that can be thought of as a compassion of the amount of effectiveness that results from a certain level of cost associated with that effectiveness.

Utility is another related construct which in defined as the value of a particular level of performance, effectiveness, or productivity. Utilities of performance, effectiveness and productivity are value judgments.

**Organizational Goal Relevance**

Another main feature of job performance is that it has to be goal relevant. Performance must be directed toward organizational goals that are relevant to the job and
role. Therefore, performance does not include activities where effects are extended towards achievement related goals. For example, the effort put towards the goal of getting to work in the shortest amount of time is not performed.

**Multidimensionality of Job Performance**

Job performance is not a single unified construct. There are vastly many jobs, each with different performance standards. Therefore, job performance is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct consisting of more than one kind of behavior. Campbell (1990) proposed an eight factor model of performance based on factor analytic research that attempts to capture dimensions of job performance existent across all jobs:

1. Task specific behaviors which include those behaviors that an individual undertakes as part of a job.
2. Non-task specific behaviors including those behaviors which do not pertain only to a particular job.
3. Written and oral communication tasks refer to activities where the incumbent is evaluated, not on the content of a message, but on the adeptness with which they deliver communication.
4. An individual's performance can also be assessed in terms of effort which reflects the degree to which people commit themselves to job tasks.
5. The performance domain might also include aspects of personal disciplines.
6. Many jobs also have a supervisory or leadership component.
7. Managerial and administrative performance entails those aspects of a job which serve the group or organization but do not involve direct supervision.

Another taxonomy of job performance was proposed and developed for the US Navy and breaks performance into four dimensions:

1. Task oriented behavior that are similar to task specific behaviors in Campbell's model. It includes major tasks relevant to someone's job.
2. Interpersonally oriented behaviors are represented by any interaction the focal employee has with other employees. These can be task related or non task related.

3. Down time behaviours are that employee engage in during their free time either at work or off site. The off site down time behaviours are considered job performance only when they subsequently affect job performance.

4. Destructive/ hazardous behaviors.

**Determinants of Performance**

Campbell (1990) also suggested determinants of performance:

A) Declarative knowledge - knowledge about facts, principles, objects, etc it presents the knowledge of a given task's requirements.

B) Procedural knowledge, knowledge how to do. Eg. It includes cognitive skill, perceptual skill, interpersonal skill etc.

C) Motivation: Refers to combined effect of choice behaviors choice to expend effort, choice of level of effort to expend, and choice to spend in the expenditure of that level of effort. It reflects the direction, intensity and persistence of relational behaviors.

Campbell (1990) also mentioned several performance parameters that may have important implications for the job performance setting like the distinction between speed and accuracy. This distinction is similar to the one between quality and quantity.

The second distinction is between typical and maximum performance. Sackelt, Zedeck, and Fogli, in their study on supermarket cashiers found that there was a substantial difference between scores reflecting their typical performance and those reflecting their maximum performance.

(A) **The Big Five and Performance**

Many psychologists today believe that human personality can be described by five dimensions, called the big five, which include extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience (Barrick & Mount, 1991).
Two meta analyses have summarized relations between each of the five dimensions and job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett; Jackson & Rothstein, 1991). The type of performance measure and the type of job are also important factors in how well a particular trait relates to performance.

(B) **Locus of Control and Performance**

Locus of control concerns people's beliefs about the ability to control reinforcements in their environment. Blau (1993a) studied how locus of control related to two different job performance aspects of bank tellers. Blau's study suggests that relations between personality and job performance can depend on the particular dimension of performance.

(C) **Age and Performance**

McEvoy and Cascio (1989) conducted a meta analysis relating age to job performance. Rather than performance declining with age, their study suggests that there is no relation. The performance of older workers is no different from that of their younger counterparts.

**Environmental Conditions and Job Performance**

The job environment can affect job performance in many ways. The environment can have a positive or negative influence on employee motivation, leading to an increase or decrease in employee efforts. Likewise, the environment can be structured to facilitate performance by making it easier for individuals to accomplish their jobs, or it can contain constructs that interfere with performance.

A) **Job Characteristics and Performance**

People can be motivated by the intrinsic nature of job tasks. When work is entreatying and enjoyable, people will like their jobs, be highly motivated, and perform psychological states. Skill variety, task identity, and task significance lead to experienced meaning fullness of work.
B) Incentive Systems and Performance

A possible way of enhancing job performance is incentive systems that employee gets for each unit of work performed. In order for an incentive system to be effective, three elements must be in place. First, the employees must have the ability to increase productivity. Secondly, employees must want the incentives. Finally, an incentive system will not work if there are physical or psychological constraints on performance.

C) Design of Technology

The Hawthorne studies showed that social factors can be more important than physical environmental in job performance. The field of expressing psychology is concerned with the interface between people and the physical environment, including tools, equipment, and technology. Human factor psychologists are involved in designing the physical environment to make jobs safer and easier to accomplish.

Thus, in order an organization to achieve its purposes, individual employees must perform their jobs at some reasonable level of proficiency. Good performance enhances organizational productivity, which directly enhances the national economy.

Personal Characteristics and Performance

Several employee characteristics are relevant to job performance and may affect ability to do the job. Others affect employee motivation to work hard. Cognitive ability has been found to predict job performance over a wide variety of jobs.

Theoretical Perspective, Aims and Objectives

After describing all the study related variables, here a theoretical perspective based upon the inter-relationship of these variables has been discussed:

- Emotional intelligence, TABP, organizational commitment of middle level managers of the organization
- Job performance of the managers
On the basis of the all above theoretical framework, the aim of the study was to find out the relationship of emotional intelligence, TABP and organizational commitment with the job performance of private bank managers. The objectives of the present study were:

- To study the relationship between emotional intelligence, behavior pattern (TABP and TBBP), organizational commitment and job performance amongst private bank managers.

- To examine the relative contribution of each of the above cited independent variables (emotional intelligence, behavior pattern (TABP and TBBP), organizational commitment and job performance (end variable).