Chapter-II

REVIEW OF

LITERATURE
Emotional Intelligence

The constructs of emotional intelligence, organizational commitment and behavior pattern bear a cardinal significance in the recent empirical studies of organizational behavior. In the current era of cut throat competition, numerous human resource policies and programmes are developed and implemented to enhance these variables in relation to another vital end variable, i.e. job performance.

In pursuance with the aim of the study, all these variables were reviewed separately as well as in relation to other organizational variable through various sources, viz., American Psychological Abstracts (APAs), Indian Psychological Abstracts, Management Digest, Journal of Industrial Relations etc. The search was done through National Informatics Centre, New Delhi by taking the key variables, i.e., emotional intelligence, TABP, organizational commitment and job performance. Approximately 200 studies were obtained in this context.

A recent based theory that is emotional intelligence theory explains that individuals who have sufficient interpersonal and intrapersonal competencies can properly manage their emotions and other employees' emotions (i.e., empathy and social skills) to cope with environmental challenges (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1998, 2003; Salovey & Mayer, 1990, 1997). In a review of the managerial and leadership challenges for the new century, the significance of understanding and managing the impact of emotions and related behaviors is emphasized in terms of organizational success (Higgs, 2001). Vakola et al. (2004) found that during the last decade organizational research has focused on the way EQ can predict work-related behaviors such as leadership potential, career development and team-effectiveness. Higgs (2001) conducted a study and found there to be a relationship between personality and EQ, although not a particularly comprehensive one. His study showed strong positive relationships between EQ and the mental function of Intuition (N), and negative relationships between EQ and the mental function of sensing (S). Positive relationships were also found between EQ and the attitude of extraversion (E). Pugh (2002) researched the impact of gender on EQ. The research indicated that males and females do not differ in terms of emotional experience.
According to Bar-On (1997) and Fatt and Howe (2003), both men and women generally have the same level of EQ but there are shared, gender specific strong and weak points. Research suggests that while frequency and intensity of emotions may decrease (Diener, Sandvick & Larsen, 1985), emotion regulation and control increases with age (Lawton, Kleban, Rajagopal & Dean, 1992). Emotional intelligence has also showed significant correlations with several indicators of quality social interaction (Lopes et al. 2003). It is suggested that emotionally intelligent individuals can perceive, understand and regulate the emotions of others, thus making EQ a significant factor in the success of interpersonal interaction in a work context (Mayer et al. in Dulewicz et al. 2003).

Jordan and Troth in Frye et al. (2006) found that teams with higher average levels of EQ performed better on problem-solving tasks, and adopted collaboration as their preferred style of conflict resolution.

Ciarrochi, Chan and Bajgar, in Bastian et al. (2005) positively correlated EQ with social network size and quality positive relations with others, perceived parental support and fewer negative interactions with close friends. Salovey and Mayer, in Bastian et al. (2005), suggest that more emotionally intelligent individuals should be more successful at meeting the demands of stressful situations because they are better able to perceive, appraise, and therefore, regulate their emotions. Several research studies have also examined life satisfaction in relation to various EQ measures, with all reporting low-to-moderate positive correlations (Martinez-Pons, 1997; Ciarrochi et al. 2000; Gannon & Ranzijn, 2005; Mayer et al. in Bastian et al. 2005).

The workforce diversity has not only offered emotional stability to the executives but has also come in the way of leadership behavior and effectiveness (Punia, 2004). Scholars have also focused on relating emotional intelligence to leadership (George, 2000) or showing how components of emotional intelligence such as empathy are important traits that contribute to leadership (Wolff et al. 2002).

Goleman, 2001 posits that leaders high in emotional intelligence are key to organizational success; leaders must have the capacity to sense employees' feelings about their work environments, to intervene when problems arise, to manage their own
emotions in order to gain the trust of the employees, and to understand the political and social conventions within an organization. Palmer, Donaldson, and Stongh (2002) found that higher emotional intelligence was a predictor of life satisfaction and people higher in emotional intelligence were also more likely to use an adaptive defense style and thus exhibited healthier psychological adaptation. Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) found that higher emotional intelligence correlated significantly with higher parental warmth and attachment style, while others found that those scoring high in emotional intelligence also reported increased positive interpersonal relationships among children, adolescents and adults (Rice, 1999; Rubin, 1999).

A study by Boyatiz (1999) found that when partners in a multinational consulting firm were assessed on emotional intelligence competencies, partners who scored above the median on nine or more competencies delivered $102 million more profit than did other partners.

Emotional intelligence has recently been suggested to be a factor of paramount importance in adjustment to life in general, and to work in particular (Goleman, 1995, 1998). High emotional intelligence people cope more successfully with the conflicts arising from modern work and family life (Heiliger and Hingstman, 2000). Change can be perceived as a challenge or an opportunity and triggers emotions such as excitement, enthusiasm and creativity (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mc Kee, 2002). Jordan and his colleagues (Jordan et al. 2002) argue that emotionally intelligent individuals cope better with job insecurity that may or may not be the result of organizational change.

Ashkanasy et al. (2004) describe the advantages of emotionally intelligent individuals in coping with stress in the workplace and identify one of the possible causes of stress to be organizational change. Huy's (1999) theoretical model suggests that emotional intelligence assists individuals to adapt to and facilitate changes in receptivity, mobilization and learning during change.

The recent explosion of research on the emotional aspects of learning and behaving has indicated that emotional abilities may be just as important, and indeed many
claim more important than cognitive abilities when developing effective team working skills (Druskat and Wolff, 2001; Goleman, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

Emotional intelligence (EI) or emotional competencies are indeed significant predictors of team work effectiveness (Wong and Law, 2002; Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Tucker et al. (2000) explain that an apparently brilliant student who has acquired all the technical and educational skills for success in the workplace can fail to achieve in an organizational setting due to lack of emotional intelligence and the inter and intra personal skills associated with it. Bachman (1988; in Cherniss 2000) found that within the US Navy, the most effective leaders were more sociable, outgoing and emotionally expressive. Yost and Tucker (2000) examined the emotional intelligence of teams and found that high emotional intelligence predicted how successful the team would be.

Scholars have also focused on relating emotional intelligence to leadership (George, 2000) or showing how components of emotional intelligence such as empathy are important traits that contribute to leadership (Kellett et al. 2002; Wolft et al. 2002).

The multi dimensionality of emotional intelligence has also been established by combining psychological and sociological approaches to develop a new model for assessing emotion management in organizations.

**Emotional Intelligence and Performance**

According to Daniel Goleman, learned capability based on emotional intelligence results in outstanding performance at work. According to his theory, the concept of EI boils down to the four crucial factors viz. self-awareness, social awareness, self management and relationship management.

At a financial services company emotional self-awareness proved crucial in financial planners job performance (Goleman, 1998b). Among several hundred managers from twelve different organizations. Accurate self-assessment was the hallmark of superior performance (Boyatzis, 1982).
Among supervisors, managers and executives, a high degree of self-confidence distinguishes the best from the average performances (Boyatzis, 1982). The level of self-confidence was in fact a stronger predictor of performance than the level of skill or previous training. In a sixty-year study of more than one thousand high-IQ men and women tracked from early childhood to retirement, those who possessed self-confidence during their early years were most successful in their careers (Holahour, 1995).

Among small business owners and employees, those with a stronger sense of control over not only themselves but the events in their lives are less likely to become angry or depressed when faced with job stress or to quit. Among counselors and psychotherapists, superior performers tend to respond calmly to angry attacks by a patient, as do outstanding flight attendants dealing with disgruntled passengers (Boyatzis, 1995; Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Among managers and executives, top performers are able to balance their drive and ambition with emotional self-control, harnessing their personal needs in the service of the organization's goals (Boyatzis, 1982). The sensitivity to others is critical for superior job performance whenever the focus is on interactions with people. For instance, physicians who are better at recognizing emotions in patients are more successful than their less sensitive colleagues at treating them (Friedman & Di Matteo, 1982). Social awareness also plays a key role in the service competence, the ability to identify a client's or customer's often unstated needs and concerns and then match them to products or services; this empathic strategy distinguishes star sales performers from average ones (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Team members tend to share moods, both good and bad – with better moods improving performance (Totterdell (1999); Kellett, Teuchmann, 1998). Finally, positive emotions and harmony on a top-management team predict its effectiveness (Barsade, 2002 & Gibson, 1998). In McClelland's analysis (1998) of the competencies that distinguish star performers from average ones, he found a tipping point effect when people exhibited excellence in six or more competencies.

A recent meta-analysis of 69 independent studies explored the predictive validity of emotional intelligence with diverse job performance outcomes (Van Rooy &
Results suggest diverse measures of EI correlated .23 with job performance (k = 19, N = 4158) and .22 with general mental ability. These correlations suggest that EI can be considered as a moderate predictor of job performance and success, relative to other types of personnel selection techniques including interviews, personnel inventories and assessment centers.

Kets de Vries and Miller (1984) illustrate that organizational success and failure can be determined by the emotional tone set by the executive or presumed leader of an enterprise. In a study that examined workers in a cigarette factory in China, EI was found to predict employee performance (Law, Wong & Song, 2004). Another study found that partners in a multinational consulting firm who scored higher than the median on an EI measure produced $1.2 billion more in business than the other partners did (Cherniss).

Greenstein (2001) conducted a study that looked at the successes and failures of eleven American presidents. The results showed that emotional intelligence was the key quality that distinguished the successful (e.g. Roosevelt) from the unsuccessful (e.g., Carter). In a study by Elfenbein and Ambady (2002) the ability to perceive emotions in others facial expressions and pick up subtle signals about people's emotions predicted peer ratings of how valuable these people were to their organization. In some workplaces, certain emotions are required in employees. Typical examples are enthusiasm in sales persons, perseverance in bill collectors, and empathy in social workers (e.g., Hochschild, 1983).

It is commonly noted that sales people vary strongly in performance. There could be many reasons for this fact. The performance of sales people is related to their ability to manage various kinds of social problems and to deal with the motivational and emotional problems arising because of negative feedback and failures (Badovick, Hadaway, & Kamski, 1992; Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1997). Researches in this field have showed that sales performance was better among personnel with a high ability to transfer emotions, whereas performance was worse among sales persons with less of this ability although they showed an equal sensitivity to the customers emotions.
Several studies have reported the economic value of hiring staff based on emotional intelligence. In a report to congress, the Government Accounting Office (1998) outlined the amount saved when the United States Air Force used Bar On's Emotional Quotient Inventory to select program recruiters.

By selecting those individuals who scored higher in emotional intelligence as recruiters, they increased their ability to select successful recruiters by three fold and saved $3 million annually.

Miner (2006) argued that emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence interact to influence performance.

However, some studies have suggested that there is a direct relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance whereas some researches depict that there is no relation or an inconsistent relation between the two variables. These studies have found that emotional intelligence of groups was unrelated to job performance (Rapisarda, 2002). Inconsistent relation between emotional intelligence and performance on particular tasks has been found by Day and Caroll, 2004).

The review reveals a puzzling set of results that may arise from an emphasis on a potential linear effect of emotional intelligence on job performance. Researchers have built the case for emotional intelligence, in part, by arguing that it explains variance in job performance that is not explained by extent constructs such as cognitive intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Mayer Salovey, and Caruso, 2000). This argument proposes that emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence make independent and complementary linear contributions to job performance.

**Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment**

Several studies have established a positive relationship between EI and organizational commitment. For instance, Humphreys, Burnsen, and Davis (2005) conducted a study on direct health care workers and observed a positive correlation between EI and organizational commitment. In another research conducted on public sector employees, Adeyemo (2007) found that EI is positively and significantly
associated with organizational commitment. Additionally, Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Hartel (2002) contend that individuals with high levels of EI use that capability to maintain their affective commitment to the organization.

Emotionally intelligent individuals are optimistic, a trait that enables them to focus on the resolution, rather than the reasoning. The work in any given organization imposes difficulties that may result in feelings of frustration. Emotionally intelligent individuals would know not to hold the organization responsible for every feeling of frustration (Abraham, 1999), as they are adept at placing themselves in positive affective states, and able to experience negative affect states that have insufficient destructive consequences (Salovey and Mayer, 1989-1990).

Emotionally intelligent individuals would know how to avoid dysfunctional emotions and use them in adaptive ways to alleviate feelings of frustration. Thus, emotional intelligence is expected to augment a higher level of affective commitment to the organization. Cherniss (2001) reported that emotionally intelligent people display cooperation, commitment and creativity which are important for organizational effectiveness.

Thus, it is expected that workers with high emotional intelligence will also be highly committed to their organizations.

**Type - A, Type - B**

At the organizational level, Mudrack (1999) found that Type A employees desire a sense of purpose at work. Hard driving individuals might constantly seek ways to compete more effectively and organization structure can help them achieve their goals easier and faster. Rayburn and Rayburn (1996) noted that type A individuals set increasingly more difficult goals and their ambitions are posted higher, always beyond their reach. However, Choo (1986) found that Type A auditors experienced more job related stress compared to type B auditors and that an inverted U-shaped relationship existed between stress and performance.
Riordan and Street (1999) explained this apparent contradiction with the notion that although type A employees set higher performance standards for themselves, they draw negative reviews because negative aspects, such as impotence and impulsiveness, interfered with personal relationships at work. Fisher (2001) examined auditors Type A personality and their job performance and found that type A auditors outperformed type B auditors in tasks requiring endurance.

A more recent study by Alarcon et al (2009) confirmed that employees with type A personality experienced more frequent burnout compared to others.

At the college level, extensive research has investigated type A behavior among students. Type A college students have been found to earn more academic honours and higher grades (Waldron et al. 1980) compared to type B students; students with type A view grades as more important than type B students, and the former take more credit hours and participate in more extracurricular activities.

Watson et al. (2006) noted that type A students had higher levels of depression, lower levels of social desirability and communal relationships, and had more negative team orientation and team commitment as compared to type B students.

Research regarding the between type A personality and ethics is limited and inconclusive. Rayburn and Rayburn (1996) found that type A students were more ethically oriented than those with type B personality.

On the other hand, Sankaran and Bui (2003) reached the opposite conclusion and found that students with type A personality were more likely to cheat on exams compared to others.

Type As are more likely than type Bs to blame themselves rather than the situation when they fail (McDougall,1984). Type As seem irrational in over burdening themselves. Nonetheless, with their high achievement striving, they tend to be quite successful by society's standards. For example, research has shown that type As are more successful in school (Waldron et al. 1980) they also reach higher job status (Waldron, 1978) and greater scientific distinctions (Helmsreich,1980) than type Bs.
Hinkle (1961) found that the managers in a company, who were least prepared for
the demands and expectations of industrial management, were at greater risk to develop
TA than age matched managers.

Terreberg (1968) found that occupationally mobile persons seem to experience
greater type A behavior and this leads to company heart disease. Scales (1969), French
(1973) researched on TABR people experiencing overload and found that type A people
experience more overload at work than type B.

The history of type A/B behaviour as a risk factor for ischemic heart disease has
flowed a common historical trajectory; a trickle then a flow of positive findings, a trickle
then a flow of negative findings, and now intense controversy (Review Panel on coronary

Although many type A persons often reach goals that can be viewed as highly
successful from an objective standpoint, many are dissatisfied with their
accomplishments, which then leads to feelings of unhappiness and a sense of
disappointment (Helmrich, Lucker, 1980). Motivation to exercise would for the Type A
individual be of an extrinsic nature.

Such as fatigue, which if attended to, would interfere with good performance
(Mathews and Brunson, 1979; Weidner and Mathews, 1978). Moreover, when threatened
by salient failure (Glass, 1977). Another research by Frei, Bernadette and Racicot (1999),
stated behaviour that minimizes interruptions on the type A behaviour was significantly
and positively correlated with monochromatic behaviours – in other words, type As were
more likely to use behavioral strategies that reduced polychromatic thought. Type A and
monochromatic behaviors were also significantly correlated with job induced stress and
member of publications.

The type A behaviour pattern has also been hypothesized to be maladaptive self
control behaviour (Glass, 1977) and was reported to relate to a wide variety of physical
and psychosomatic symptoms. Howard (1976) reported that type A managers had more
cardiovascular, gastrointestinal, and diabetic problems than type B subjects who showed
a relative absence of type A attributes. Stout (1982) administered a survey about upper respiratory symptoms in college students and found that type A subjects reported more cold symptoms than type B ones.

Significant positive correlations have been found between Jenkins Activity Survey Scores and physical symptoms of sleep disorders, respiratory symptoms, chest pains and gastrointestinal problems.

On seeing the impact of TABP on job performance it was found that type A tend to be more productive than their type B co-workers. As significantly positive correlations were yielded with 7666 students grade point averages, the quantity and quality of university professors and sales perfromance of 222 LIC brokers. The significant predictors of mental stress are generally quite different for type A and Type B workers. Social support from managemnet acts as as cause of mental stress for certain groups of type A workers. Even support from management can be stressful for type A workers who had heavy workloads (Hagihara ,1997).

Similarly, Kirmeyer (1988) found that type A workers generate a greater workload by initiating tasks and also by simultaneously attending to multiple tasks. Job satisfaction and TABP also enjoy a relationship as cited by Mudgil, Muhar & Bhatia (1992). They found that subjects low in job satisfaction reported higher TABP which makes a person highly susceptible to CHD.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been defined and measured in several different ways and it has been related with many job related variables. When employees are sure that they will grow and learn with their current employees, their level of commitment to stay with that particular organization is higher (Opkara, 2004). In order to make employees satisfied and committed to their jobs, there is a need for strong and effective motivational strategies at various levels of the organization.

Guest (1999) concluded that high organizational commitment is associated with lower labour turnover and absence and high rate of performance. The bottom line is that
organizations need committed and productive organizational members to compete in today’s dynamic environment. Employee commitment is seen as the key factor in achieving competitive performance (Sahnawaz and Juyal, 2006). Arthur (1994: 672) concluded that by using commitment strategies, organizations had significantly higher performance compared to those using control strategies.

Steven, Beyer and Trice (1978) studied the impact of work overload on job commitment among public sector managers. The findings reveal that for organizations, work overload has been shown to have a significant negative impact on job commitment among public sector managers.

Luthans and Baack (1987) in their study revealed that locus of control has a direct relationship with organizational commitment, though the nature of relationship has not been discussed.

Colarelli (1990) took some personal (e.g. Age, locus of control) and situational (e.g. having a mentor, inter-role conflict) correlates of organizational commitment and found that these variables are positively related to organizational commitment.

Cheng (1994) concluded that those with a belief in internal locus of control have a more positive job attitude in terms of organizational commitment, intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and social satisfaction.

Brett et al. (1995), in their study found a strong relationship between organizational commitment and performance for those with low financial needs.

Patel (1999) found that younger subjects of both nationalized and cooperative banks exhibited less job involvement and organizational commitment than did middle aged and older subjects.

Ahmad (2000) revealed that organizational commitment is exhibited at a higher degree by white collar subjects as compared to blue collar ones.

Ayeni and Phopoola (2007) has found a strong relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. According to them job satisfaction mostly
determines how well the organization meets employees' expectations. The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is very crucial now-a-days because people now often do not prefer to stay with the same organization for long. Employees normally expect that people with higher levels of organizational commitment have higher levels of job satisfaction as a motivator. The reason why satisfaction will lead to the commitment is that a higher level of job satisfaction may lead to good work life and reduction in stress (Cofe and Heslin, 2003).

Committed and satisfied employees are normally high performers that contribute towards organizational productivity (Samad, 2007).

Steven (1978) studied the impact of work overload on job commitment among public sector managers. Findings reveal that for organizations, work overload has been shown to have a significant negative impact on commitment among public sector managers. Verma (1986) investigated the relationship among organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction of 100 non–executive employees of a steel plant and it was found that all the three variables are interrelated Allen and Mayer (1990) studied the measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and nominative commitment to the organization. The results suggested that the effective and continuance components of organizational commitment are empirically distinguishable constructs with different correlates. The affective and normative components appear to be somewhat related. Randall et al (1990) indicated that the three dimensions of organizational commitment relate differently to the behavioral sets. Surrête et al. (1992) researched on organizational commitment and the evidence supported that internals were satisfied with and committed to their decision than were externals. A significant relationship was also found between subject's level of satisfaction and commitment with choice.

Mayer et al. (1993), Hackette et al (1994), Ahmed and Ansari (1998) found that job satisfaction linked more strongly with affective commitment than other loci of commitment. Social support has also been found to be related to organizational commitment of supervisors. Vashishtha et al. (1999), in their study revealed a positive and significant relationship between social support and organizational commitment of
An analysis of psychological correlates of organizational commitment by Kaur and Singh (2000) revealed that organizational commitment was positively related with self-actualization, self-regard and aggression and negatively associated with time competence and inner directedness. Boswell and Boudreau (2000) reported that feedback influences how employees can improve in the organization, which results in a higher level of commitment to the organizations. Khan and Mishra (2002) found that the overall job-need satisfaction of drivers was positively related with affective commitment, also organizational commitment was positively related to age, length of service in present cadre and self-efficacy, it was negatively related to psychological barriers to technological change. Organizational climate is another variable that contributes to organizational commitment and organizational climate was found to have an important role in determining organizational commitment.

Some researchers found that organizational commitment is a function of several variables such as job satisfaction, motivation, participative decision making, organizational support, financial reward, communication, promotional prospects, and leadership styles (Brown, 2003; Salami and Omole, 2005). Mowday et al. (1979) suggested that employees who exhibit high organizational commitment are happier at work, spend less time away from their jobs and are less likely to leave the organization.

Organizationally committed employees will usually have good attendance records, demonstrate a willing adherence to company policies and have lower turnover rates. Through commitment there is a fusion of individual and organizational goals and the relationship is personalized. This involvement causes the individual to perceive individual and organizational success as highly compatible (Cole, 2000). Individuals committed to the organizations 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).

Demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, education level and work experience have been found to be significantly related to organizational commitment (Dodd Mc Cue and Wright, 1996; Mannheim et al. 1997; Morrow, 1993; Wiedmer,
Santos and Not Land (2006) found significant relationship between job tenure and organizational commitment. However, Wiedmer (2006) found that education level and age were not significant predictors of job satisfaction and organizational involvement. He further proposed that women would become more committed to an organizational because they had to overcome more barriers than men to gain membership. Bruning and Synder (1983) reported that older individuals with seniority in their positions tended to evince higher organizational commitment. Further, Meyer and Allen (1984) studied the relationship between age and organizational commitment and suggested that older workers become more attitudinally committed to an organization for a variety of reasons, including greatest satisfaction with their jobs, having received better positions and having 'cognitive justifies' their remaining in an organization.

Work role salience is the importance attached to building a career and the time and effort an individual is willing to invest in it. Van der Velde et al. (2003) found significant correlation between career salience and organizational commitment. Employee retention, productivity, quality and corporate financial success are characterized as high performance, high performance, high commitment strategies. The assumption is that integrated sets of management strategies focusing on commitment produce high levels of affective commitment and subsequent organizational performance (Tsui et al. 1995).

Such strategies will empower the employees to take greater responsibility and participate in decision making. Here employers seek to treat employees as valued assets who can be a source of competitive advantage through their commitment, trust, adaptability and high quality skills and knowledge.

Steers (1977) suggested that organizational commitment and involvement are enhanced both by personal factors such as age and years of tenure in the organization and by organizational characteristics such as degree of participation allowed in decision making and the level of security employees feel.

Modern society values acquisition. Compensation offers an opportunity for security, autonomy, recognition and an improved self worth (Hoyt & Gerdloff, 1999).
These increased feelings of self worth and importance should lead to affective commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990: 179) indicated a low positive correlation between salary and commitment ($rt = 0.182$) Salary was found to be positively related to organizational commitment and negatively related to turnover. Perceptions of fairness in compensation have been shown to be positively linked to affective organizational commitment (Schaubreck et al. 1994). Glynn (1996), high technology professionals, e.g. engineers, appeared to be more involved, more satisfied with their jobs, and more committed to the organization than non-technical employees did.

Job characteristics such as variety and autonomy, are well established determinants of organizational commitment (Mottaz, 1988), and are known to be particularly important to management information systems’ employees (Zawki, 1980). The degree of freedom and independence enjoyed by employees and their participation in planning and organizing their work has an influence on organizational commitment (Lynch, 1983). According to Marsh and Mannari (1977) the higher level of autonomy that an individual possesses, correlates negatively with turnover. Mathieu and Zajac (1990, 179) found a medium positive correlation ($r_t = 0.207$) between skill variety and organizational commitment skill variety relates to feelings of belonging and sense of attachment to the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Training, if put to use on the job, should increase affective organizational commitment through its link to increased job scope. This response can be a function of closer psychological attachment to the organization and its goals. Pari and Colleagues (2001: 24) found training to be positively related to affective commitment ($r = 0.384$). Kochanski (2001) argued that employees value the feedback from their co-workers and supervisors. Providing sufficient performance feedback to employees helps bolster positive attitudes toward the organization, and helps prevent early intentions to leave the organization. According to Eisenberger and Associates (1990) affective commitment may be enhanced under conditions of high feedback. As individuals are provided with praise and feedback, stronger feelings of loyalty to the organization may develop.
Pari and Colleagues (2001: 24) indicated that recognition from the supervisor was found to be related to affective commitment ($r = 0.424$) but not to continuance commitment ($r = 0.030$).

An organization might be able to improve the retention of personnel by matching career opportunities to employees' career orientation or career anchors. It was found that employees whose career orientations were compatible with their job settings reported high job satisfaction, high career satisfaction and strong commitment to their organizations and low intention to leave the organization. Gaertner (1989) reported that psychological commitment is higher among employees who believe they are being treated as resources to be developed rather than commodities to buy and sell.

Grover and Crooker (1995) empirically tested the effects of work and family benefits on organizational commitment. Employees who had access to work / life policies showed significantly greater organizational commitment and expressed significantly lower intention to quit their jobs.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990: 175) have examined perceived competence and affective commitment have the strongest link. Employees who have strong confidence in their abilities and achievements have higher affective commitment. According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001: 308). Most models of commitment acknowledge that individuals can become committed to a course of action because of the perceived cost of failing to do so.

Karia and Ahmad (2000) examined the effect of teamwork on organizational commitment and found significant relationship between these two variables. Similar results were shown in an earlier study by Karia (1999) on the link between training and development and organizational commitment.

Numerous antecedents of organizational commitment such as, organizational culture, leadership have been suggested in the earlier studies (Chen and Francesco, 2000; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Williams and Hazer, 1986). Leadership was shown to have significant impact on organizational commitment (Williams and Hazer, 1986, Lok and
Crawford, 1999, 2001). A positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been reported by studies involving qualified professionals.

Ling and Cooper (1998) studied the role of locus of control and organizational commitment. The study investigated the direct and moderating effects of locus of control and organizational commitment on the relationship of sources of stress with psychological distress, job satisfaction and quitting intention of employees working in Hong Kong firms. Results suggest that locus of control and organizational commitment had strong direct effects (externals were dissatisfied with the job itself and thought of quitting the job quite often; employees who had a high commitment had higher job satisfaction) and moderating effects (the stressor strain relationships were significant in externals and commitment buffered most of the examined that internal locus of control was associated with affective commitment and external locus of control was associated with continuance commitment.

Wiley (1999) studied the impact of locus of control and empowerment on organizational commitment and the results showed significant relationship among locus of control, psychological empowerment and organizational empowerment with the criterion variable, organizational commitment.

More recent research has investigated organizational commitment as an important attitudinal predictor of employee behavior and intentions (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). Wiener and Vardi (1980) suggested that organizational attitudes should be more strongly associated with organization-oriented outcomes, such as turnover intentions, while the most likely behavior to be affected by job attitudes would be task oriented outcomes such as work effort or performance.

Managers and management researchers have long believed that organizational goals are unattainable without the enduring commitment of members of the organizations. Motivation is a human psychological characteristic that contributes to a person's degree of commitment. It includes the factors that cause, channel and sustain human behavior in a particular commitment direction. Studies on commitment have
provided strong evidence that affective and normative commitment are positively related and continuance commitment is negatively connected with organizational outcomes such as performance and citizenship behavior (Hackett, Bycio, and Handsdoff, 1994; Shore and Wayne, 1993).

Dornstein and Matalon (1998) describe eight variables that are relevant to organizational commitment. These are interesting work, coworker's attitudes towards the organization, organizational dependency, age, education, employment alternatives, attitude of family and friends.

Ellemer, Gilder, and Heuvel (1998) found that background variables as gender, level of education, or team size were not clearly related to three forms of commitment. They reported a positive correlation between education and organizational commitment. Irving, et al. (1997) found that men in their sample had higher level of commitment than women. Research on commitment outcomes examiners whether the different components of commitment have certain consequences. Employee retention, attendance, organizational citizenship, and job performance are commitment outcomes that are widely studied. Various research studies have been done examining the outcomes of employee commitment.

Employee attendance is the most positively related outcome of affective commitment. Steers (1997) found that employee commitment was highly related to the attendance of workers. Gellatly (1995) found that continuance commitment was related with that how often an employee was absent. Somers (1995) found that nurses with lower levels of commitment had higher levels of absences.

Retention of employees appears to be one of the most studied outcomes of organizational commitment. Porter et al. (1974) found that employees with lower levels of commitment were more likely to leave than their counterparts.

Meyer et al. (1993) found a positive relationship between commitment and extra role behavior, while Van Dyne and Ang (1998) found no significant relationship between
these variables. Other studies have found that there was a negative relationship between commitment and citizenship behavior (Shore and Wayne, 1993).

Griffin (1982b, 1991) studied the effects of work redesign on employee perception, attitudes and behaviors and found positive and desired association between work redesign and attitudes (job satisfaction and commitment), and increased productivity.

Costa (2003) notes that team trust and cooperation are positively related to attitudinal commitment. Perceptions of social support or coworker solidarity in the workplace have also been shown to be positively associated with organizational commitment (Cohn & Bailey, 1997; Cordery, et al. 1991; Parris, 2003). Further, the relationship between employee participation and commitment has been studied by various researchers. The research literature strongly supports the notion that employees in work organizations seek more participation in decision making, generally like the experience of playing such a role, and report a wide range of positive outcomes from the experience, including greater commitment to the work organization that provides the participatory opportunity (Applebaum, Bailey, Berz & Kalleberg, 2000; Elden, 1981; Freeman & Rogers, 1999; Greenberg, 1986; Greenberg & Greenberg, 1994; Levine, 1995).

It has also been widely argued that organizational culture exerts a considerable influence on organizational behavior, particularly in areas such as performance and commitment (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

**Organizational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence**

If one looks at almost any factor that influences organizational effectiveness, emotional intelligence plays a key role. Cherniss (2001) reported that emotionally intelligent people display cooperation, commitment and creativity which are important for organizational effectiveness. Also some researchers found that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with organizational commitment of some workers (Carmeli, 2003; Nikolaou and Tsaousis, 2002; Rozell et al. 2004).
Humphreys and Davis (2005) conducted a study on direct health care workers and observed a positive correlation between EI and organizational commitment. In another research conducted on public sector employees, Adeyemo (2007) found that EI is positively and significantly associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Additionally, Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002) contend that individuals with high levels of EI use that capability to maintain their affective commitment to the organization.

Research in the field of EI is at the infancy stage and as such, there is a need for further empirical research which assesses the predictive ability of EI on organizational success.

**Organizational Commitment & Performance**

Brudney and Coundry (1993) in their study pay for performance describe various variables that could affect performance of which organizational commitment stands important. Balfour and Wechsler (1996) pointed out that overall organizational commitment is an appropriate and significant aspect to focus for organizational productivity and performance.

Performance pay may be part of a human resource innovation associated with high performance workplaces. Such workplaces may create greater feelings of belonging, esteem, satisfaction and commitment (Green & Heywood, 2007). Committed and satisfied employees are normally high performers that contribute towards organizational productivity (Samad).

Reflecting on organizational commitment and managerial efficiency of the managers, reports of some researchers (Akintayo, 2006; George, 2000, Tsui et al. 1992) revealed that organizational commitment has significant influence on managerial efficiency of the managers. The researchers submitted that, organizational commitment is expected to moderate the relationship between work-family, role conflict, working environment and job satisfaction and the relationship between work-family, role conflict and job performance.
Meyer et al. (1993) and Baugh (1994) both found that committed employees had high expectations of their performance and therefore performed better. Research has also found that those employees who are committed to their profession also have higher levels of commitment to the organization.

In general, writers have cited various reasons why an organization would want to increase the level of commitment among its members. It has been argued that having a committed workforce is seen as the key factor in achieving competitive performance.

Research has found that 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. In role job performance it has been reported to be higher for employees with strong affective commitment. The underlying assumption is that they will work harder at their jobs and perform them better than those with weaker commitment.

Research undertaken by DeCotis & Summers, 1987 displayed no correlation between performance dimensions and manager's affective commitment. Thus it can be postulated that the association between performance and affective commitment is neither very strong nor is the effect on performance very large.

Employees with strong organizational commitment tend to work harder, more productive, and high performance. Organizational commitment is positively linked to morale, hours devoted to the work role, absenteeism, intent to quit and job satisfaction. And in relationship between organizational commitment and job performance evaluation literature, it has been indicated that organizational commitment had a direct effect on job performance (Fernando J. et al. 2005; V. et al. 2004; James W.B. et al. 2000).

Performance

Over the last 25 years there has been considerable theoretical and empirical work conducted on organizational performance. An emerging area within this work is the role
attributed to leadership in facilitating organizational performance enhancement. During the past four decades. The impact of leadership types on organizational performance has been a topic of interest among academicians and practitioners working the area of leadership (Cannella and Rowe, 1995), Giambatista, 2004; Rowe et al; 2005)

The style of leadership adopted is considered by some researchers (eg. Conger, 1994; Dubinsky et al; 1995; Yammarino et al. 1993) to be particularly important in achieving organizational goals, and in evoking performance among subordinates (Berson et al 2001; Zacharatos et al; 2000)

It is widely believed that leadership creates vital link between organizational effectiveness and people's performance at an organizational level (Avolio, 1999; Bass 1998; Judge et al., 2002 a, 2002c, Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Keller, 2006; McGrath, 2000). Scholars have criticized bass's (1985) theory of transformational leadership, finding that there is no one best way of thinking about leadership, rather that different kinds of leadership reflect social and historical roots, depending on the context (Avery 2004; Bryman, 1992; Drath, 2001; Shamir and Howell; 1999, Yukl, 1999). This implies that different 1998), leadership paradigms could affect performance differently, depending on the context.

Effective leadership is seen as a potent source of management development and sustained competitive advantage for organizational performance improvement (Avolio, 1999; Rowe, 2001). Transactional leadership helps organizations achieve their current objectives more efficiently by linking job performance to valued rewards and by ensuring that employees have the resources needed to get their job done (Zhu et al. 2005) visionary leaders create a strategic vision of some future state, communicate that vision through framing and using metaphor, model the vision by acting consistently resulting in high levels of concern, commitment, trust, motivation and hence performance in the new organizational set up.

According to Mehra et al. (2006), when some organizations seek efficient ways to enable them to outperform others, a longstanding approach is to focus on the effects of leadership.
As far as individual work performance is concerned, several studies exploring the role of personality have shown that certain personality variables like extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience are associated with job performance. Callinan (1998). Andrew et al (1998) and Lagrange and Roodt (2001) found that certain personality dimensions (like conscientiousness) significantly predict job performance.

Job related attributes also play a major role in shaping work behaviours of managers in organizations. Many researchers agree that job attitude has a positive impact on performance (i.e. Wright et al 199; Mishra and Gupta, 1994; Gable and Dangello, 1994; Hossain, 2000; Manikandan, 2002). Patterson et al. (1990) and Shawhat Ahmed and Asma (1999) have shown positive relationship between job involvement and performance; and job involvement maybe a potential predicator of performance and related behaviours.

Flexible human capital practices (where adopted as a whole in a congruent cultural context) contribute to a work force that is more skilled, stable, and enthusiastic and fire of distractions.

Flexible culture also leads to increase in performance. First Tennessee National Corporation has had an intensely employee centered culture for a decade, with the principle of flexibility at its core. In 2001, FTNC was the most profitable banking company in the U.S. for the fourth consecutive year, with an 18 percent five year average return on capital, according to forber. It ranked fourth among the top 50 bank holding companies, with an annual revenue per share growth rate of 12.5% over the past seven year period (Case study on FTNC in leveraging the New Human Capital, 2004). Work motivation is another salient factor in all discussions of job performance. (Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985).

Research has also been conducted that investigates the relationship that job performance has with job satisfaction. While some literature suggests that job satisfaction and job performance are related (Petty & Cavender, 1984) other analyses of the job satisfaction shows a negligible relationship with job performance (Iaffaldano and
Muchinsky, 1985, Locke, 1976). However, attending to understand the nature of job satisfaction and its effects on work performance is not easy. Researchers have put a considerable amount of effort into attempts to demonstrate that the two are positively related in a particular fashion; a happier worker is a good worker.

In a review of the personality occupational performance Hogan, Hogan and Roberts (1996) concluded that well constructed measures of normal personality are valid predictors of a wide range of occupational performance, they generally do not result in adverse impact for minority groups, and they can be linked to performance defined in terms of productivity.

**Performance and Emotional Intelligence**

Research suggests that emotional intelligence abilities lead to superior performance even the most intellectual careers. In a study that began in the 1950s at the University of California at Berkley, eighty Ph. D. students in science completed a series of IQ tests, personality tests, and extensive interviews with psychologists who assessed them on such qualities as emotional balance and maturity, integrity, and interpersonal effectiveness (Goleman, 1998). Forty years later, a follow up study was conducted using the same former students. Each person's career success was evaluated by resumes, evaluations by experts in their respective field, and sources such as American men and women of science "The result: emotional intelligence abilities were four times more important than IQ in determining professional success and prestige - even for these scientists (Goleman, 1998, p. 45)

Sy, Tram and O’ Hara (2006) reported managers’ emotional intelligence has a stronger positive correlation with job performance. Lyons and Schneider (2005) found that high emotional intelligence levels promote challenge appraisal and lead to better performance. It has been suggested in one of the studies that a link between the emotional intelligence and work place measure of effectiveness would had to be enhanced system success (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005).
Emotional intelligence scores are found to be significantly associated with measures of performance, in a correlation study conducted among college principal (Sala, 2000). In 2001, Nel has demonstrated a significant relationship between emotional competencies and performance. The emphasis is that EI predicts better performance, Sitarenios (1998). Sergio (2001) has found that mental ability and emotional intelligence were associated with job performance rating Cavallro and Brienza (2002), Staski and Cart Wright (2002) and Zieder et al. (2004) have also demonstrated higher EI as having better management performance.

Petrides et al (2004) examined the role of trait emotional intelligence on academic performance in individuals with low IQ relative to individuals with high IQ. Results suggested that trait EI was related to academic performance, but only in individuals with low IQ scores. Woitaszewski and Aalsma (2004) observed similar finding. When assessing emotional intelligence and academic success in gifted adolescents. However, more research is needed before the influence of emotional intelligence on academic performance can be fully assessed. When explored in a sales context, emotions via facial cues during a conversation were monitored in a study by Verbene (1997). Results showed that sales performance was better among personnel with a high ability to transfer emotions whereas performance was worse among sales persons with less of this ability, although they showed an equal sensitivity to the customer's emotions.

The American Society for Training and Development has published a volume describing guidelines for helping people in organizations cultivate emotional intelligence competences which distinguish outstanding performers from average ones (Cherniss and Adler, 2000). Cherniss and Goleman (1998) estimated that by not following training guidelines established to increase emotional intelligence in the workplace, industry in the United States is losing between $5.6 and $16.8 billion a year.

However, there are mixed results of studies on influence of emotional intelligence and job performance. Some of the studies have also suggested that there is no relation or an inconsistent relation between emotional intelligence and job performance. These studies found no relation or inconsistent relation between the two variables on a
particular task (Austin, 2004; Day and Caroll, 2004), academic performance (Afolabi et al. 2009) and supervisory ratings (Janovics and Christiansen, 2001).

Above studies based on investigated variables show the following trends of studies:

**Trends:**

- There is positive and significant relationship between appraisal of positive emotions and performance (Lane, 2009, Hingstman, 2007).

- There is positive but non-significant relationship between inter personal conflicts and difficulties and performance (Boyatzis, 2009, Elizabeth, 2005).

- There is positive relationship between quality positive relations with others (inter personal skills and flexibility) and job performance (Ciarrochi, Chan and Bajgar, 2005).

- There is positive and significant relationship between emotional facilitation and goal orientedness and job performance. Job performance has been found better among personnel with a high ability to transfer emotions (Engelberg and Sjoberg, 2004; Sy, 2006).

- There is a positive and significant relationship between Type A personality and performance (Alarcon, 2009).

- There is a positive and significant relationship between various dimensions of TABP (Speed and impatience, job involvement and hard driving and competitiveness) and job performance (Rayburn and Rayburn, 2006; Kunnanatt, 2003; Bryant & Yarnold, 1991; Roskies, 1987).

- There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and job performance. Those who are attached with their job, perform as per the expectations attached with the job (Lee, 2002; Clarke, 2006).
• There is a positive and significant relationship between continuance and normative commitment and performance (Suliman and Lles, 2002; Muhammad et al., 2010).

Notable gaps

Despite theoretical-rational thrust for possible relationship between emotional intelligence, TABP, organizational commitment and performance, the empirical evidence in regard of some of the dimensions of the variables is dearth in nature. The studies based on the relationship between negative emotions and performance; inter-personal conflicts and difficulties and performance and of inter-personal skills and flexibility and performance. The construct of TABP also holds prime importance in the study of job performance. On analysis of the results, dimensions like Type A behavior pattern, speed and impatience and hard driving and competitiveness have been found to bear a positive and significant relationship with performance. But studies showing such relationship between the above mentioned variables are also meager.

As is known to almost everyone in the organizational culture, the construct of organizational commitment carries an equal weightage in an organizational set-up in relation to performance of the employees. Even the empirical evidence in this context are also sparse. In addition, the empirical studies related to the research variables taken are very meager in context of banking sector.

After identifying the trends and notable gaps, the present problem was framed studying emotional intelligence, TABP and organizational commitment in relation to performance of private bank managers.

Following hypothesis were formulated and tested in the present research:

• There would be a positive relationship between emotional intelligence (Appraisal of negative emotions, appraisal of positive emotions, inter-personal conflicts and difficulties, inter-personal skills and flexibility and emotional facilitation) and performance.
• There would be a positive relationship between TABP (Type A, speed and impatience, job involvement and hard driving and competitiveness) and performance of private bank managers.

• There would be a positive relationship between organizational commitment (affective, normative and continuance) and performance.

• There would be differential relationship between various variables and job performance.