INTRODUCTION

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

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


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

Hersey and Blanchard (1996) reported the findings of Mac Millan and Schuler that companies have gained an edge by either capturing or developing greater shares of critically needed human resource skills or by leveraging existing human resources to gain a competitive advantage. This cannot be done in isolation. There must be very close coordination between human resources planning and the other performance factors. They argued that
companies can gain a competitive advantage through their human resources by making sure that the employees have both the appropriate skill and are similarly motivated. They further opined that managing people to perform can make a significant difference.

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

The benefits of studying emotion in workplace settings derive from the evidence that organizational members seldom carry out their work in an objective fashion based on cold, cognitive calculation. Instead, as Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argued, workplace experiences comprise a succession of work events that can be pleasing and invigorating, or stressful and frustrating. These events affect the way we feel and behave at work. For instance, some jobs require a display of positive emotion that may be quite different from what is actually felt (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Evidence is also emerging that emotional trait constructs such as negative affectivity (Watson & Clark, 1984) and emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) affect behaviour and decision making in the workplace context.
Attention is directed to different problems when powerful emotions are experienced. People may be redirected to give attention to problems with immediate importance. Rather than interrupt ongoing cognitive activities, emotion can assist people in reprioritising the internal and external demands on their attention, and allocating resources accordingly (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Moods may be used to motivate persistence at challenging tasks. People may use good moods to boost their self-efficacy, thus increasing performance at difficult tasks (Salovey & Birnbaum, 1989). People with positive attitudes create interpersonal experiences that lead to positive outcomes for themselves and others around them (Epstein & Feist, 1988). Teams can use emotional intelligence to remain focused on the task at hand while keeping a positive rapport with team members.

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

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

Emotional Intelligence

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

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

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

**Personal Competence includes:**

a) *Self-awareness:* is the ability to know one’s internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions. This would include, an emotional awareness recognising our emotions and their effects, accurate self-assessment knowing our strengths and limits, self-confidence, and a strong sense of one’s own self-worth and capabilities.

b) *Self-regulations:* is the ability to manage one’s internal states, impulses and resources. This would include self-control, keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check, trustworthiness, maintaining standards of honesty and integrity, conscientiousness,
taking responsibility for personal performance, adaptability, flexibility in handling change, innovation of and being comfortable with new ideas, novel approaches and new information.

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

Social Competence includes:

a) Empathy:- is an awareness of others’ feelings, needs and concerns. This would include understanding others, sensing the feelings and perspectives of others and taking an active interest in their concerns, developing others, sensing the development needs of others and bolstering their abilities, service orientation, anticipating, recognising and meeting customer needs, leveraging diversity, cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people, political awareness, and reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships.

b) Social Skill:- is the adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others. This would include the ability to influence employing effective tactics for persuasion, communicate - listening openly and sending convincing messages, manage conflict- negotiating, resolving and sending convincing messages, manage conflict negotiating and resolving disagreements, leadership- inspiring and guiding individuals and groups, be a catalyst for change- initiating or managing change, build bonds- nurturing instrumental relationships, collaboration and cooperation working with others towards shared goals, and work in a team creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.
Most of the authors on the topic noted that in order to be a well-adjusted fully functioning member of society (or family member, spouse, employee, etc), one must possess both traditional intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional intelligence involves being aware of emotions and how they can affect and interact with traditional intelligence (e.g., impair or enhance judgement, etc). This view fits well with the commonly held notion that it takes more than just brains to succeed in life - one must also be able to develop and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships. Taken from this perspective emotional intelligence is nothing new. Goleman (1995) takes a somewhat broader position in describing emotional intelligence. In his writings, emotional intelligence consists of five factors. Knowing one's emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others, and handling relationships. Over the past several years, the term Emotional Intelligence has received much attention as a factor that is potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance at work (Kierstead, 1999). It is essential that the roots of the emotional intelligence movement and the issues surrounding its application to human resource management is properly understood.

**Emotional Intelligence at Work**

In 1998, in *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman set out a framework of emotional intelligence (EI) that reflects how an individual's potential for mastering the skills of Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management translates into on-the-job success. This model is based on EI competencies that have been identified in internal research at hundreds of corporations and organizations as distinguishing outstanding performers. As Goleman (1998) defined it, an emotional competence is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work (Goleman, 1998b). To be adept at an
emotional competence like customer service or conflict management requires an underlying ability in EI fundamentals, specifically, social awareness and relationship management. However, emotional competencies which are learned abilities having social awareness or skill at managing relationship does not guarantee one has mastered the additional learning required to handle a customer adeptly or to resolve a conflict-it just means that we have the potential to become skilled at these competencies.

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

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

The relationship between personality and job performance has been a frequently studied research topic in industrial and organizational psychology. Diamentopoulou (2001) conducted a study with a sample of bank employees in Greece to determine whether a relationship exists between personality (type
A and B) and emotional intelligence. It was found that people with a mixture of both Type A and B were higher in emotional intelligence; further more, it was found that Type B was positively correlated with social skills competencies. Because emotional intelligence involves achievement orientation, initiative, influence and leadership, it may be those who are rated high in these competencies similarly have tendencies towards type B personalities. It may be that achieving a balance between Type A and B behaviours—rather than simply having tendencies towards one another—is associated with emotional intelligence. Although Type A is always characterised as negative personality domain and Type B is seen as more positive it may be that in the work place, Type A behaviours (e.g. feeling very responsible, careful about detail, competitive) may serve individuals well when balanced with Type B characteristics (e.g., patient, listen well and rarely angry). Hesketh (2000) acknowledged that some personalities are more likely to be satisfied regardless of their failure with their work. For example, people who consistently express purposes and preferences that are people-oriented or social are more likely to express satisfaction with any work situation than are people whose purposes and preferences are things-oriented or mechanical realistic.

PERSONALITY

According to Mayer (1998) many of the characteristics of individuals that EI researchers are interested in have more to do with human personality, generally speaking, than with EI specifically. For example, Daniel Goleman's (1995) popularization of emotional intelligence certainly represented the original theory that Mayer developed with Peter Salovey, but it also added in many other aspects—zeal, persistence, character, and the like—which are more generally legitimate parts of personality. In a sense Goleman's model represents an anticipation of the renewed importance now attributed to
personality characteristics by the field of psychology. Certainly, looking at important personality traits such as zeal, persistence, and motivation plainly predicts something important. The Systems Framework for Personality Psychology can greatly enrich the field of EI by providing a framework, for the study of many variables of interest-including emotional intelligence proper, but also zeal, persistence, and social skills (Mayer, 1998).

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

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

In today's organisations, workers are asked to make more decisions on their own, to work as members of teams, and to organize around the work process (Ryan, 1995). This shift in the economy has placed an increased importance on the worker's ability to effectively use cognitive and interpersonal skills even for low paying and entry-level positions (Wilson, 1997). This increased the requirement for cognitive and interpersonal skills
by employers in their employees. Hershenson (1996a) suggests work adjustment consists of an interaction between the work environment and the three individual domains of work personality, work competencies, and work goals.

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

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

Organizational managers always look for some way to improve success rates in decisions-selection, training assignment, etc. Cognitive ability (g) is the best individual difference predictor of job performance. But this chiefly relates to the traditional concept of job performance-task performance (units produced, etc). The employee can do (maximal performance), but not necessarily what she will do (typical performance). These days personnel psychologists recognize that job performance is multi-dimensional, including several extra role behaviours (helping others, volunteering), called contextual
performance, a well-known dimension of which is OCB's. It is this piece of performance that personality is thought to impact, whereas g is probably unrelated to it. Thus personality captures more variance in the performance domain than just cognitive ability testing. Bottom line from an organization's point of view is that the inclusion of personality variables in a selection system often has the advantage of less adverse impact on protected groups and higher validity for predicting job performance.

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

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

(i) Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is important to researchers and organizations because of the desire to retain a strong workforce. Researchers and practitioners are keenly interested in understanding the factors that influence an individual's decision to stay or leave an organization. While turnover is related to all three types of commitment, there may be unique relationships between the three types of commitment and other work-related outcomes (e.g. absenteeism organizational citizenship behaviours, performance etc). Affective commitment tends to be most highly related to the outcomes. A review of the research by Meyer et al. (2002) suggests that researchers have typically focused on organizational outcomes and correlates of commitment. However, more recently, researchers are beginning to examine more individual-level correlates of affective commitment like stress, well-being, and work-family conflict. This shift in focus is relevant to the current work as work-life importance is often instituted to positively affect these individual-level constructs. Murphy & Sauter (2003).
Muchinsky (1983) reported the definition given by Steers of organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. He reported the findings of Steers et al. and Steers on the characteristics of organisational commitment. Organisational commitment is characterised by: (1) strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) willingness to exert effort for the organization; and (3) desire to maintain membership in the organization. Organizational commitment has both antecedent causes and consequence. Steers proposed three sets of antecedent's personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences. Personal characteristics include age and education. Job characteristics involve challenge, opportunities for social interaction and the amount of feedback provided on the job. Finally work experiences include such factors as attitude towards the organization, organization dependability, and the realization of expectations within the organization. For instance, organizational commitment is often measured to ascertain the degree to which workers feel emotionally committed to their organization, stuck with their job, and or compelled by social norms (e.g. pressures from family and friends) to stay in their current position.

(ii) Job involvement

Job involvement is the extent that individuals are ego involved in their work, though there appears to be more than ego involvement (Muchinsky, 1983), he talked of the definition of job involvement by Ladah and Kejner, as the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image. They also said that involvement is internalizing values about the goodness of work or importance of work in the worth of the person. However, there is some confusion reported by Rabinowitz & Hall, over whether job involvement is a product of
person-environment interaction or simply an individual personality variable. Job involvement was found to be related to three sets of variables, demographic, situational, and work outcomes. Job involvement is consistently related to various types of job satisfaction, particularly satisfaction with work itself. Job involvement is negatively related to absenteeism. Muchinsky (1983) reported the findings of Saal that there is no relationship between job involvement and productivity. While it is quite certain of the relationship between job involvement and several other variables, most of the variables in job involvement remain unexplained. People certainly do differ in how involved they are, but why such differences exist is unexplained.

(iii) Job Satisfaction:

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

Theories of job satisfaction present a more complicated picture. They suggest that in most circumstances people tend to over look or underestimate the physical environment in making judgement about their jobs. According to
Maslow and Herzberg's theories in Sundstrom (1986), the workplace only becomes salient for job satisfaction, when it becomes inadequate. In satisfactory environments, people are thought to emphasize other factors in judgement of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is more of result of the psychological comfort a person derives from the job rather than the material ones - it might be the social support system (perceived), perceived justice and prestige all these are very much influenced by the personality and emotional competencies of the individual (Sundstrom 1986).

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

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

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

PERFORMANCE

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

Contextual performance measures aspects of performance unrelated to specific tasks volunteering, putting in extra efforts, cooperating, following rules, and procedures and endorsing the goals of the organisation that are equally important for job performance. Their researches show that task
performance and contextual performance contributes independently to overall job performance. Further more, job experience predicted task performances better than it predicted contextual performance. In contrast, personality predicted contextual performance better than it predicted task performance. Contextual performance can be further separated into two factors—job dedication such as working hard, volunteering and committing to the organisation—and interpersonal facilitation such as co-operating, and helping others. Personality affects the two facets differently—conscientiousness predicts job dedication, while extraversion and agreeableness predict interpersonal facilitation. Interestingly, job dedication appears to affect both task performance and interpersonal facilitation. But the model also indicates the importance of extraversion, agreeableness and interpersonal skills.

Organizational Performance

One of the major concerns of all the industrial houses is the performance, productivity or the output. Organizational performance is product of many factors. The Satellite Model of organizational performance identified several of the most important factors including organizational structure, knowledge, non human resources, strategic positioning and human processes. All these strategies and variables are interrelated. The integration is not only essential to meet current business and social needs but it is essential to the change process necessary to meet future business and social needs of the organization. While all these factors are important and certainly worthy of studying, the primary emphasis is on human resources. The emphasis is justified because increasing attention is being directed toward human resources, not only in their traditional role, but also in their influence on other key performance factors. Using superior human resources as a competitive weapon in improving organizational performance is certainly a new dimension in the management of organizational behaviour.
The whole area of non-cognitive factors as related to performance at work (e.g., personality, emotional intelligence, creativity, etc.) certainly presents an opportunity for ongoing researches. It is broadly recognized that non-cognitive factors are important determinants of work behaviour, especially in a rapidly changing work environment. What remains is to determine which constructs and assessment methods offer value, contribute to merit based staffing, and increase understanding of job performance in the public sector context.

RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

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

The world of business has changed from what it was a couple of decades ago; as a result of globalization, the changes are inevitable and impending for all organizations. To complement the role of the globalization the development of information technology has brought in along the need for acquiring new skills for the employees. To day as a result of all these developments there is a major shift in focus of the organizations, from the other resources to the development and optimum utilization of human resources. In the strategic human resource management the major focus of an organization is the development and maintenance of an effective human resource team for high performance.
From the individual's point of view, in the present scenario of growing occupational stress, the need to suit and redesign the policies and work conditions of the employees is a must. The management should be well aware of the emotional needs and the need to develop emotional competencies for the workers and for themselves.

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

1. In view of the rapid changes in the work values and work demands the study may help the employees individually to identify strategies to cope.
2. To improve creativity and motivation at work place.
3. To improve the job related attitudes of the employees
4. May help the managements to devise strategies to adapt to changes and improve performance.
5. To enhance teamwork.
6. In the recruitment of the right people for the right job.
7. To decide on promotion criteria and leadership positions.
8. May help the management in exploring the market and improving the customer relationships.
9. To improve the interpersonal relationships in the organization and to enhance the overall health of the organization.
10. To resolve the organizational conflicts.
As a minimum, the emotional intelligence concept is useful for individuals interested in learning about the role of emotions in work and everyday life and how interpersonal relationships affect work and organizational performance, and should prove useful for personal development and insight.

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

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

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

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

This study is an effort to find out the effect of the construct of emotional intelligence and personality on some organizationally relevant variables. The variables considered are job satisfaction, job involvement,
organizational commitment (job attitudes), performance, turnover and absenteeism (job behaviours).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

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

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

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

DEFINITIONS OF KEY WORDS

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

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

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

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

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

b) Job Involvement: Refers to the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with her/his work and the importance of the work to
one's self-image. Brown (1996) asserted that people may be stimulated by and drawn deeply into their work or they may be alienated from it mentally and emotionally. According to Brown a state of involvement implies a positive, relatively complete state of engagement of core aspects of self in the job, whereas a state of alienation implies a loss of individuality and separation of the self from the work environment.

c) **Job satisfaction**: Refers to the degree of pleasure an employee derives from her/his job. People develop overall feelings about their jobs (global job satisfaction) as well as about selected dimensions or facets of their jobs (Job facets satisfaction) such as their supervisors, co-workers, promotions opportunities, pay and so on.

iv) **JOB BEHAVIOURS**: In the present study job behaviours are limited to the study of performance. Performance is the overall qualitative and quantitative output of the employee both in the specific tasks as well as for the overall health of the organization.

v) **MIDDLE MANAGERS**: There are three levels of managements; top-level managers who are concerned with planning, middle level managers who are concerned with the supervision and management of the labour force in the organization, and the lower level managers who are technically oriented people who deal with the machines. The middle managers are the managers who are in the middle of the hierarchy of the management and their main job is team building and co-ordination of the work force as part of the daily functioning of the organisation.

vi) **MODERATORS**: Moderator is an independent variable which intervenes in the relationship between two variables and changes the nature of the relationship between those two variables. In the present
study emotional intelligence and personality are the two moderator variables on the relationship between job attitudes and performance.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To identify the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Performance of Middle level Managers.

2. To study the nature and extent of relationship among the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Performance.

3. To identify those variables which predict Job Attitudes.

4. To identify those variables (Emotional intelligence, Personality and Job attitudes) which predict Job Performance.

5. To explore the relationship of job-related demographics variables with Personality and Emotional Intelligence on Job attitudes and Job Performance.

6. To find out the moderating effect of Emotional Intelligence and Personality on Job Attitude and Job Performance.

HYPOTHESES

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

1. There will be significant relationship among the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Job Performance.

2. Variables of Emotional Intelligence and Personality shall be used to predict the Job Attitudes.
3. Variables of Emotional Intelligence, Personality and Job Attitudes shall be used to predict Job Performance.

4. There will be significant difference between Type A and Type B personalities on different dimensions of Emotional Intelligence and overall Emotional Intelligence.

5. There will be significant interaction between the classificatory factors – Job related/demographic variables (Age, Experience, Salary, Training), Emotional Intelligence (High – Low) and Personality (Type A and Type B) on Job Attitudes and Job Performance.

6. There will be significant difference between accident and non accident groups on Emotional Intelligence, Personality, Job Attitudes and Performance.

7. There will be significant interaction between the classificatory factors Emotional Intelligence (low, high) Personality (Type A, Type B) and Job Attitudes (low, high) on Performance.

8. Emotional Intelligence and Personality shall be used to moderate Job Attitude and Job Performance.