REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chapter II

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The relationship between emotional intelligence and collaborative conflict management style was investigated by Malek, (2000) using the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) and the Thomas-Kilmann Management of Difference Exercises (MODE) instrument. Participants were 98 employed individuals (the majority in management or professional positions) from metropolitan areas of California. A statistically significant relationship was found between scores on the EQ-i, and scores on collaborative conflict management style.
George (2000) suggests that feelings (moods and emotions) play a central role in the leadership process. More specifically, it is proposed that emotional intelligence, the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in the self and others, contributes to effective leadership in organizations. Four major aspects of emotional intelligence, the appraisal and expression of emotion, the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision making, knowledge about emotions, and management of emotions, are described. Then, I propose how emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership by focusing on five essential elements of leader effectiveness: development of collective goals and objectives, instilling in others an appreciation of the importance of work activities, generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, cooperation, and trust encouraging flexibility in decision making and change, and establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization.

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

Humpel et al. (2001) conducted an exploratory correlational study that examined the relationships between Emotional Competency, Trait Affectivity, Stress and Experienced Emotions among 43 mental health nurses in Australian regional hospitals. A significant relationship was found between
Emotional Competency and Personal Self-doubt in male nurses only; however, no association was found between Emotional Competency and Experienced Emotions. Trait Affectivity was found to be associated with Experienced Emotions but not Stress. Gender differences were found in Trait Affectivity and Experienced Emotions. The results of the study have implications for the retention of mental health nurses in their profession.

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

Ruderman, et al. (2001) studied the connection between aspects of emotional intelligence and effective versus ineffective leadership behaviors. Benchmarks results were correlated with scores on EQ-i. Correlations were found between high emotional intelligence in certain areas and various qualities of leadership excellence, including participative management, self-awareness, straightforwardness, and composure, building and mending relationships, perseverance despite obstacles, decisiveness, and change management. Problems associated with derailment, such as difficulties with interpersonal relationships and trouble in changing or adapting, were related to low EQ-i scores in certain areas. Overall, impulse control, independence, and the ability to build and maintain interpersonal relationships were found to be the most important characteristics of excellent managers.
Stuart, and Paquet (2001) compared the Emotional intelligence scores of employees of a financial institution who displayed leadership potential (n=31) with scores of a group who displayed little leadership potential. Leadership was rated by as certaining the presence of transformational behaviour. All rated employees completed an emotional intelligence scale. Results indicated that the factors of optimism and self-actualisation were significantly higher for the leader group. The non-leader group indicated higher scores on the positive impression scale, indicating possible positive skewing of results for that group. Generally, the research data indicates a link between the fundamental postulates of transformational leadership theory and emotional intelligence.

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

Crick (2002) examined, the relationship between emotional intelligence, social competence and success was investigated in 31 male and 89 female 14 to 17-year-olds, using EQ-I: YV< and the Social Skills Rating System - Secondary Student Form (SSRS). Students were categorized as Leaders, Joiners or Non-Joiners of school clubs or organizations. Female
leaders exhibited higher Total EQ, intrapersonal, interpersonal and adaptability scores in comparison to the normative sample, while male leaders exhibited higher adaptability scores than the normative sample. Significant mean score differences existed between the emotional intelligence scores of Leaders, Joiners and Non-Joiners. Emotional intelligence was not shown to increase with age. Teacher ratings of social skills were significantly higher for Leaders than for Joiners and Non-Joiners.

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

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

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

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

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

"Emotional Intelligence" is a psychological concept, associated with the multiple intelligences school of thought, with broad application in a variety of social and organizational contexts. To verify this statements Dolan Timothy and Bradley Jennifer (2003) conducted a quasi-experimental study of the effects of instruction in a ten-week course on emotional intelligence and managerial excellence taught by Dr. Jennifer Joss Bradley, co-author of this paper, using three independent, but related measures of emotional competence and perceived levels of stress. T-test results showed significant change from pre-test scores between experimental and control groups on the ECI dimensions of Self-Management as well as the Symptoms of Stress Checklist.

Law et al. (2004), in this study, reviewed the definition of emotional intelligence (EI) and argued that EI is conceptually distinct from personality. In Study 1, the authors showed that EI was related to, yet distinct from
personally dimensions and that it has incremental predictive power on life satisfaction. The authors examined the construct validity of self-reports and others' rating of EI using two samples in Study 2. In a student sample, parents' ratings explained additional variance in the students' life satisfaction and feelings of powerlessness after controlling for the Big Five personality dimensions. In the work sample peer ratings were found to be significant predictors of job performance ratings provided by supervisors after controlling for the Big Five personality dimensions.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY

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

According to Kerry, Paula and Betty (2000) emotional Intelligence has been discussed in the popular business press over the past few years and has recently found its way into prestigious business and industrial psychology journals. However, there is no validated instrument available in the academic
literature for management consultants, trainers, and business available in the academic literature for management consultants, trainers, and business practitioners to use when surveying employees' perceptions of their emotional intelligence. The authors therefore constructed and examined a new measure, beginning with 269 items which were eventually trimmed to 30 items. All items loaded cleanly on their respective factors. In Study 1 and Study 2, reliabilities were: Emotional Intelligence measure = .86, 91; Empathetic Response dimension = .87, 92; Mood Regulation dimension = .77, 76; Interpersonal Skills dimension = .82, 82; Internal Motivation dimension = .78, 81; and Self-Awareness dimension = .69, .70, respectively. It was found that emotional intelligence was positively related to proactive personality and personal control, but negatively related to irritability/verbal hostility and emotional exhaustion. The construct's relationships with selected demographic variables were inconclusive.

Petrides & Furnham (2001) proposed two types of emotional intelligence, trait EI and ability EI. In Study 1, the factorial structure of the EQ-i was examined via confirmatory factor analysis, and the incremental validity of trait EI was examined within the Eysenckian model, by locating trait EI in Eysenckian factor space. Participants were 227 employees from a large transport company based in New Zealand. Results indicated that a single factor model provided the best approximation to the data, and that the trait EI factor exhibited incremental validity with respect to the Eysenckian dimensions. Study 2 examined the incremental validity of trait EI using a lengthened version of the EQ-i, within the Five Factor Model. Participants (N=166) were university undergraduates and postgraduates. Results indicated that trait EI may be conceptualized as a distinguishable, lower order composite construct within the Five Factor Model of personality.
Sjoberg (2001) in his Economic Psychology Section and in His Stockholm School of Economics, Sweden paper describes the construction and the construct validation of an extensive test battery for use in the selection process in business and business education. It is based on notions of social competence and emotional intelligence (EI) in broad senses of the terms. Participants were 226 persons who had applied for admittance to the undergraduate program of the Stockholm School of Economics. Many indices were constructed on the basis of their test responses. In a second-order factor analysis, four factors were identified: mental stability, emotional intelligence proper, dominance (including creativity and mental energy), and compulsiveness. These factors were related to emotional skills and to standard personality scales (Big Five, MPI, and Myers-Briggs scales), as well as to scales measuring risk-taking attitudes and variables measuring response styles. It was found that the secondary factors were less subjected to self-presentation bias than the Big Five scales, and that they were about equal to the MPI scales in this respect. These three sets of scales were rather strongly related, while the Myers-Briggs scales were only weakly related. The authors identified dimensions of emotional skills in judgments of mood, social problem episodes, music and art samples, and facial expressions. Some of these skill measures were related to the secondary factors as expected, thus further validating them. EI was found to contribute variance to the explanation of emotional knowledge not contained in standard scales of personality. Also, risk attitudes were systematically related to the secondary factors. The four secondary factors were unrelated to intellectual ability, and they were unrelated to temporary mood when habitual mood was controlled for.

From large samples of volunteers recruited and examined over the internet, lead researchers, Srivastava et al. (2003) found that certain changes do occur in middle adulthood. Conscientiousness increased throughout the
age range studied, with the biggest increases in a person's 20s; this trait is defined as being organized, planful, and disciplined, and past research has linked it to work performance and work commitments. Agreeableness increased the most during a person's 30s; this trait is defined as being warm, generous, and helpful, and has been linked to relationship and to prosocial behavior. Neuroticism declined with age for women but did not decline for men; this trait is defined in people who worry and are emotionally unstable it has been linked to depression and other mental health problems. Openness showed small declines with age for both men and women. Finally, extraversion declined for women but did not show changes in men. Both neuroticism and extraversion scores were higher for younger women than for younger men. But for both of these traits - and most strikingly for neuroticism - the apparent sex differences diminished with age. Of the 132,515 participants, 54 percent were female, all lived in the U.S. or Canada, 86% were White and 14% were Asian, Black, Latino or Middle Eastern. A subset of the sample - 42,578 - were asked about their socioeconomic status. Of these participants, 405 (1%) said they were poor, 7,614 (18%) said they were working class, 23,024 (54%) said they were middle class and 10,718 (25%) said they were upper-middle class. This study contradicts an often cited view that personality traits are genetically programmed to stop changing by early adulthood. There is considerable evidence against it, say the authors. In the study, "average levels of personality traits changed gradually but systematically throughout the lifespan, sometimes even more after age 30 than before. Increasing conscientiousness and agreeableness and decreasing neuroticism in adulthood may indicate increasing maturity - people becoming on the average better adapted as they get older, well into middle age."


JOB ATTITUDES

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

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

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

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

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

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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

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

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

Patel (1998) investigated the relationship between perceived organizational health and organizational commitment. A total of 100 employees, 50 skilled with the mean age of 35.2 years and mean work experience of 11.92 years and 50 workers (mean age 31.5 years, mean work
experience 10.76 years), working in a private scooter manufacturing organization was administered Mile's (1965) organizational health scale and Monday's (1975) organizational commitment scale. Findings indicate that perceived organizational health had a significant positive correlation with organizational commitment in the case of the skilled staff, but not in the case of workers. Further analysis revealed that the skilled staff perceived the overall health of their organization more favorably and were also more committed to the organization than the workers.

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

Gupta and Sharma (1999) studied work commitment of working mothers as related to background factors like age, education, occupation, income, number of children, age of the youngest child and type of family. A sample of 455 urban working mothers (age 26-50 years), with at least a batchlors degree, largely employed in white collar jobs, and belonging to diverse income and occupational groups, were administered, Greenberger and Goldberge (1989) scale of parenting and work commitment as well as self report questionnaire to measure demographic and family dynamic variables.
Findings revealed that income, education and occupation played a significant role in work commitment. Age, number of children and type of family were not related to the commitment level of working mothers.

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

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

Although organizational commitment has been discussed frequently in Organizational Psychology for almost four decades, few studies have involved software professionals. A study in India by Paul and Anantharaman (2004) reveals that HRM practices such as employee-friendly work
environment, career development, development oriented appraisal, and comprehensive training show a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment. The study's results emphasize the role of such HRD variables as inculcating and enhancing organizational commitment, and suggest that HRD practitioners and researchers should further develop commitment-oriented organizational policies.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Patnaik & Adhikari (1996), tried to determine the level of job satisfaction of teachers by using a job satisfaction scale based on Likert Scaling Technique. A sample of 200 teachers (50 university and 150 college teachers, aged 21-60 years), administered a job satisfaction scale consisting of
75 items. Results reveal that almost all the teachers were satisfied with their jobs to a fairly large extent; a higher level of satisfaction was derived from the professional category, which was followed, by teaching conditions, institutional conditions, service conditions and personal feelings. With respect to all other factors the level of satisfaction was moderate but equal in both groups of teachers.

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

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

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

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

Gupta (1997) studied the relationship between job satisfaction and personal values among 32 college teachers. Subjects were administered the
Personal Value Inventory (Gupta 1981) and the Teachers Job Satisfaction Scale (Gupta and Srivastava 1980). The results revealed a significant correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and their personal values. Teachers high on academic and social value experienced greater job satisfaction, whereas economic and democratic values are significantly but negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

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

Nagarathnamma (1997) explored the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction in a sample of 360 employees of public and private sector organisations. The sample comprised of 180 employees of a public sector organisation and 180 employees of a private sector organization. Job Satisfaction Scale (Kunungo, 1982) and Life Satisfaction Inventory (Ramamurti, 1969) were administered individually in the work place. Results revealed a significant relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction for both public sector and private sector employees. Public sector employee expressed greater satisfaction with both their jobs and lives in comparison to private sector employees. On the basis of the findings the paper concluded, that there was a significant difference between public sector and private sector employees.
Paranjipe (1997) identified training areas for special education teachers on the basis of their quality of working (QWL), perception and job satisfaction. A Quality of Working Life Feelings and Conditions (QWLF-C) Questionnaire (Shaskin and Lengermann, 1984) and a Job Satisfaction Schedule (Kanungo, Corn and Dauderis, 1976) were administered to 240 special education teachers from 19 schools for handicapped children in New Delhi. Factors that emerged as significant predictions of QWLF-C were interesting job, institute's policies, recognition and respect and compensation received. Three categories of job satisfaction factors were identified as potential training areas - group interaction and improvement in interpersonal relationships; growth facilitation and progress and working conditions.

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

Zafar and Rao (1997), this study proposes that the role of Job related attributes and outcomes play a major role in shaping behaviour of managers in organizations. These attitudes of work environment are evaluated by managers both positively and negatively. If the interaction between the individual-work environment are good, it leads to realization of organizational goals, needs and satisfaction. Otherwise, the outcome may lead to low
involvement, stress frustration, alienation and to intentions to quite the organization. More over the stress variable and job involvement relationship has been of great concern and interest to behavioural students.

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

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

Gandharva (1998) studied the relation between mental health and job satisfaction among employees of private organizations. A random sample of 200 employees was selected and group on the basis of age, work experience, monthly income and total number of family members. Subjects were administered the Mental Health Analysis Questionnaire (Badami and Badami 1984) and Gujarat version of Bray Field and Rothas (1951) Job Satisfaction Scale. Results show a significant correlation between job satisfaction and
mental health of employees, mental health was found to be negatively correlated with different age groups of the employees. No significant differences in mental health were found with respect to age, work experience, monthly income and total number of family members of the employee.

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

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

Saxena, Ansari and Shankar (1999) assessed the primary (within-domain) and secondary (cross-domain) relationship of work-family aspects
of content and context with work-family satisfaction considering the role of occupational status as a moderator. A sample of 300 married working women (age 25-55 yrs) engaged in diverse professions were administered survey questionnaires. Results revealed within-domain relationships, but not cross-domain relationships between work variables and family satisfaction regardless of the occupational status. However, the spill over effect from family to work was evident in the case of work satisfaction.

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

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

Shukla (2000) evaluated the relationship between job satisfaction and power motivation of industrial personnel. The sample consisted of 50 managers from different rice mills in Chhattisgarh region. Their age varied from 24 to 55 yrs, and academic qualifications from matriculation to post graduation. They were administered the Hindi adaptation of Brayfield Job
Satisfaction Scales (Sarin) and the Power Motivation Scales (Helode and Singh 1988). A significant positive relationship was observed between power motivation and job satisfaction. A significant positive relationship was observed between power motivation and job satisfaction. Managers categorized as high power motivation groups scored significantly high on job satisfaction scales than managers categorized as low power motivation group. Managers with matriculation degree had significantly had higher job satisfaction than those who were graduates and postgraduates. The effect of educational status on power motivation was non significant.

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

Mehra and Mishra (2001) explored the potential mediator effects of participation in decision-making on the job satisfaction - occupational stress relationship. A sample of 250 blue collar industrial workers (mean age 25 yrs) with job experience varying from 10 to 15 yrs were administered Psychological Participation Index (Singh & Pestonjee 1975), the Occupational Stress Index (Srivastava, and Singh 1981), and the SD Employee Inventory (Pestonjee 1981). Moderated regression analysis
revealed the moderating effect of participation in decision making on the job satisfaction-occupational stress relationships, but sub groups analyses, did not confirm this moderating effect.

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

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

Job satisfaction has been well researched for many professions, including general dentistry. The job satisfaction of orthodontists has not been adequately studied. Roth et al. (2003) conducted a study aiming to describe job satisfaction among orthodontists and to determine characteristics associated with job satisfaction in the profession. A self-administered,
anonymous survey was mailed to Canadian orthodontists. It included a modified version of the Dentist Satisfaction Survey, an overall occupational stress score, and items addressing various characteristics of the respondents. Of 654 mailed surveys, 335 were returned, for a response rate of 51.2%. Most orthodontists (79.3%) were classified as satisfied according to the overall job satisfaction scale of the Dentist Satisfaction Survey; however, some (2.5%) were classified as dissatisfied. The facets of orthodontics with the highest degree of satisfaction were patient relations (93%), delivery of care (86%) respect (84%), professional relations (80%) and staff (76%). The most dissatisfaction was associated with personal time (26%) and practice management (15%). Stepwise multiple regression analysis resulted in a model including overall occupational stress, membership in the Canadian Association of Orthodontists, total number of staff, and age to account for 27.1% of the variation in the overall job satisfaction scale. Based on accountable sources of variance, the overall job satisfaction scale seems to be more affected by other variables than the characteristics evaluated by this survey.

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

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

Patel (1999) investigated the impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment of nationalized and co-operative bank employees. A randomly selected sample of 200 bank employees with an equal number from nationalized and co-operative banks divided into 3 age groups: younger (age below 35 years), middle (age 35-45 yrs) and elder (age above 45 years) were administered Lodhal and Kejner's Job Involvement Scale (1985) and Mowday's Organizational Commitment Scale (1979). Results revealed less involvement and less organizational commitment in the younger age group in both the nationalized and co-operative banks. Significant differences in organizational commitment but not in job involvement were observed only between the middle age group employees with the nationalized bank employees being higher on organizational commitment than their counterparts in the co-operative bank.
Conte et al. (2001) presented criterion related validity evidence for time urgency as it relates to burnout, organizational commitment, and job involvement in the travel industry. The sample consisted of 393 travel agents who were employed in various agencies across the United States. Results indicated that time urgency subcomponents (eating behaviour, competitiveness, speech patterns, task-related hurry, and general hurry) were significantly associated with burnout, organizational commitment, and job involvement.

**JOB INVOLVEMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION**

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

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

Singh & Pestonjee (1995) estimated the effect of Job involvement and participation on on-the-job factors and "off-the-job-factors" of job
satisfaction in different groups. The data were collected from a sample of 145 officers and 135 clerical personnel of large banking organization. Results supported the previous research findings regarding the moderating effects of job involvement and participation on: on-the-job and off-the-job factors of job satisfaction in different groups. Significant interactions between job involvement and participation, and job level and participation were obtained.

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

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

Steel et al. (1997) Research finding showing that satisfaction scores are stable over time led Staw and Ross (1985) to suggest that job satisfaction is rooted in dispositional mechanisms. The current study tested this hypothesis by administering a questionnaire to 166 U.S. Department of Defense employees on 2 occasions. Measures of job satisfaction ($r=37, p<01$) and job involvement ($r=41, p<0.1$) evidenced significant stability over the study's 10 year interval. Multiple regression analysis showed that job characteristics explained variance in the attitudinal measures after accounting for the variance due to attitudinal stability. In addition, regression results suggested that the success of job design interventions may be conditioned by personal characteristics (e.g. attitudinal stability-instability) of the individuals in the sample. By supporting both the dispositional and situational views of job satisfaction, current findings suggest an interactionist perspective.

Gandharva (1998) compared private and public sector employees in terms of job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement. The sample consisted of 165 public sector and 121 private sector employees who were administered the Job Satisfaction Scale, The Job Involvement Scale and the Work Involvement Scale (Kanungo, 1982). A personal data sheet was used to collect information on gender, age, length of service, work experience, monthly income and educational level. Results revealed that the employee of public and private sectors differed significantly in their job satisfaction and job and work involvement. Demographic variables such as age, length of service, monthly income, and work experience in the present job affected their job satisfaction, job and work involvement. However, gender of the employees did not influence these variables.
Gandharva (1999) investigated the inter relationship between job satisfaction, job involvement and the relationship of these three variables with age, job experience, monthly income, and educational level. The sample consisted of 105 public and 121 private sector employees at various levels. Subjects were administered measures of job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement developed by Kanungo (1982). Results revealed a significant association between job satisfaction and job involvement. Employees' age, job experience and monthly income were significantly correlated with job as well as work involvement. Job satisfaction was significantly correlated only with monthly income.

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

Bhargava and Kelkar (2000) examined the relationship between organizational structure, organizational culture, and human resource development. The sample comprised of 33 managers, 22 officers and 28
supporting staff of a soap manufacturing organization, in the age group of 24-53 years. Organizational structure was evaluated by a 9 item scale (Hage and Aikel, 1967). Corporate culture was assessed by a scale developed by Panda, Mathur and Khurana (19900 consisting of subscales of different dimensions. A 10-item scale (Agrawal, 1981), a 34 item scale (Scott and Joffe, 1991) and a 7 item scale (Tuglar and Bowers, 1974) were used for assessment of job involvement, empowerment and job satisfaction respectively. A positive relationship was observed between empowerment and salary, promotion and job satisfaction. Empowerment and corporate culture were also positively related. Measures of the human resource development were capable of being predicted by corporate culture. Negative correlation of centralization with corporate culture, adaptability, and empowerment indicated the importance of decentralization as a strategy for people management.

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

JOB COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION

Sahoo, Mohanty, Kar and Bhakat (1995), assessed role related stress, job satisfaction self concept, organizational commitment and intention of leaving the organization in a group of 100 employees from administrative (N=50), and financial (N=50), organizations categorized into juniors, and
seniors, on the basis of the length of work experience. The scale developed and validated by Whitley (1990) for cross-cultural purposes was used. Results indicated that employees in administrative organizations experienced greater work-family conflict and had a greater intention to leave the organizations compared to the employees of financial organizations. Employees of financial organizations showed greater commitment than their administrative counterparts. Compared to the seniors, the juniors expressed higher intention to leave their organizations.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB ATTITUDES**

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

**PERSONALITY AND JOB ATTITUDES**

Chandriah et al. (1996) examined the incidence of occupational stress, job satisfaction and type A behaviour among 255 managers (132 junior, and 123 senior) predominantly from middle and upper management levels working in different industries in and around Kolkotta city. Subjects responded to a survey assessing occupational stress, job satisfaction and type A behaviour. Intergroup differences were observed on different sub scales of occupational stress index (OSI). Junior managers reported higher job related tensions, particularly in terms of home work interface as well as lower job
satisfaction of the job itself. Junior group managers also manifested higher type A behaviour and internal locus of control. Overall stress was associated with type of job and locus of control. Type A behavioural sources were negatively correlated with external locus of control and positively with job satisfaction.

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

Virk and Kumar (1997) carried out an investigation to study main and interactive effects of age, gender and Type A behaviour pattern on job stress and job involvement of bank employees. A2X2X2 factorial design with two levels each of Type A behaviour pattern (Type A-Type B), age (below 40 and 40 above), and gender (males and females) was used the sample consisted of 80 bank employees selected from various banks of two districts of Haryana. Separate analyses of variance were employed to test the significance of three independent sources on each of the two dependent variables - gender and Type A behaviour. Analyses yielded significant differences in the Job involvement of subjects. Two significant interactive effects (age X gender and gender X type A behaviour), for job stress were also found.
In a study Judge, Bono and Lock (2000), tested a model of the relationship between core self-evaluations, intrinsic job characteristics, and job satisfaction. Core self-evaluations were assumed to be a broad personality concept manifested in 4 specific traits. Self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and low neuroticism. The model hypothesized that both subjective (perceived) job characteristics and job complexity mediate the relationship between core self-evaluations and job satisfaction. Two studies were conducted to test the model. Results from study 1 supported the hypothesized model but also suggested that alternative models fit the data well. Results from study 2 revealed that core self-evaluations measured in childhood and in early adulthood were linked to job satisfaction measured in middle adulthood. Furthermore, in study 2 job complexity mediated part of the relationship between both assessments of core self-evaluations and job satisfaction.

Wanberg and Kammeyer (2000), in their, 3-wave longitudinal study aimed to extend current understanding of the predictors and outcomes of employee proactivity (involving information seeking, feedback seeking, relationship building, and positive framing) in the socialization process. Two personality variables, extraversion and openness to experience, were associated with higher levels of proactive socialization behavior. Of the proactive behaviors studied, feedback seeking and relationship building were highlighted in their importance because of their various relationships with the work-related outcomes assessed in this study (e.g., social integration, role clarity, job satisfaction, intention to turnover, and actual turnover). The results also highlighted the importance of 2 control variables (opportunity to interact with others on the job and skill level of the new job) in the experience of socialization into a new job.
Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter (2001), compared attitude, personality, and customer knowledge as antecedents for their predictive ability of 3 service-oriented forms of employee organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs): loyalty, service delivery, and participation. For the 1st study, 236 customer-contact employees provided data concerning their OCBs and the attitude, personality, and knowledge antecedents. The 2nd investigation relied on data provided by 144 contact employees from a network of university libraries. Using hierarchical regression in both studies, the authors found that each of the 3 types of service oriented OCBs was best predicted by different subsets of the antecedents. Job attitudes accounted for the most unique variance in loyalty OCBs, personality accounted for the most unique variance in service delivery OCBs, and customer knowledge and personality jointly were the best predictors of participation OCBs.

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

Judge and Ilies (2003), in their article investigated the extent to which traits reflecting individual differences in personality and affectivity explained or moderated genetic influences on job satisfaction. Using estimates of the
dispositional source of job satisfaction according to 2 dispositional frame works-the-five factor model and positive affectivity-negative affectivity (PA-NA)-and behavioural genetic estimates of the heritabilities of job satisfaction and the dispositional factors, the authors computed the proportions of genetic variance in job satisfaction that is explained by these trait frame works. Results indicate that the affectivity model is a stronger mediator of genetic effects on job satisfaction than the five-factor model. PA and NA mediate about 45% of the genetic influences on job satisfaction, whereas the five-factor model mediates approximately 24% of these genetic effects.

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

**JOB BEHAVIOURS**

Individual differences in the construct of managerial self-awareness (MSA)-operationalized as congruence between self and direct reports of behavioral ratings were examined in 134 high-performing (HP) and 470 average-performing (AV) managers obtained from 4 independent datasets by Church (1997). Results based on several different approaches to measuring ratings agreement indicated that HPs were significantly more managerially
self-aware compared with AVs. This relationship was consistent regardless of data source, organization, or method of assessing managerial performance. No overall relationships were found between congruence and level of item importance, gender, management level, age, or tenure. When compared with other measures for assessing self-focus, the construct of self-monitoring was found to be convergent with managerial self-awareness, whereas the construct of self-consciousness appeared to reflect primarily rating leniency effects.

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

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

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

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

Conway (1999) conducted a study to extend previous research on the contextual and task performance distinction to managerial jobs. It was hypothesized that, unlike results for non managerial work, the job dedication facet of contextual performance would contribute uniquely to overall managerial performance. The interpersonal facilitation facet of contextual performance was expected to be redundant with leadership task performance and therefore not to make a unique contribution. A multi trait-multi rater correlation matrix was developed on the basis of meta-analysis. Structural equation modeling results generally supported the hypotheses, although there was some evidence of a unique contribution by interpersonal facilitation. Results also suggested that peers paid more attention to interpersonal facilitation when making overall performance ratings, whereas supervisors paid more attention to task performance.
Dirks (1999) explored 2 questions: Does the level of trust within a group affect group performance? If so, how does this relationship operate? An experimental method was used to examine 2 roles through which interpersonal trust could affect group performance: a main effect and a moderating effect. The data do not support the main effect that has dominated the literature on interpersonal trust. The data do support the moderating role: Trust seems to influence how motivation is converted into work group processes and performance. On the basis of these findings, it is suggested that trust may be best understood as a construct that influences group performance indirectly by channeling group members' energy toward reaching alternative goals.

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

Jung & Sosik (1999) identified several group characteristics from group composition and process perspectives, and examined their relationships with group performance over time. A longitudinal laboratory experiment was conducted to evaluate influences of preference for group work and
perceptions of heterogeneity, group potency, and outcome expectation on performance of 31 student work groups performing decision making tasks. Results of Partial Least Squares analysis indicated that preference for group work and perceptions of group potency were the strongest predictors of group performance in both time 1 and time 2. These variables were also found to be stable over time. Results also indicated that group members’ perception of outcome expectation were reinforced by their groups’ initial performance.

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

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

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

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

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

Dirks (2000), empirically examined the relationship between trust, leadership, and team performance with 2 objectives. The 1st objective was to empirically examine an assumption found in several literatures - that a team's trust in its leader has a significant effect on the team's performance. The 2nd
objective was to explore a more complex and dynamic relationship between trust and team performance whereby trust in leadership mediates the relationship between past team performance and future team performance. This relationship is derived by combining theories of trust with an attributional theory of leadership. Survey and archival data from a sample of men's college basketball teams provides support for both hypotheses, indicating that trust in leadership is both a product and a determinant of team performance.

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

Scullen, Mount, and Goff (2000) in their study quantified the effects of 5 factors postulated to influence performance ratings: the ratee's general level of performance, the ratee's performance on a specific dimension, the rater's idiosyncratic rating tendencies, the rater's organizational perspective, and random measurement error. Two large data sets, consisting of managers (n=2,350 and n=2,142) who received developmental ratings on 3 performance dimensions from 7 raters (2 bosses, 2 peers, 2 subordinates, and self) were
used. Results indicated that idiosyncratic rater effects (62% and 53%) accounted for over half of the rating variance in both data sets. The combined effects of general and dimensional ratee performance (21% and 25%) were less than half the size of the idiosyncratic rater effects. Small perspective-related effects were found in boss and subordinate ratings but not in peer ratings. Average random error effects in the 2 data sets were 11% and 18%.

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

Facteau and Craig (2001) tested whether a multi source performance appraisal instrument exhibited measurement invariance across different groups of raters. Multiple-groups confirmatory factor analysis as well as item response theory (IRT) techniques were used to test for invariance of the rating instrument across self, peer, supervisor, and subordinate raters. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the rating instrument was invariant across these rater groups. The IRT analysis yielded some evidence of differential item and test functioning, but it was limited to the effects of just 3 items and was trivial in magnitude. Taken together, the results suggest that the rating instrument could be regarded as invariant across the rater groups, thus supporting the practice of directly comparing their ratings. Implications for research and practice are discussed, as well as for understanding the meaning of between source rating discrepancies.
Job and organizational changes have promoted the importance of social skill at work, yet research in this area has been limited. Hochwater Ferris and Witt (2001) investigated the interaction between social skill and general mental ability (GMA) in the explanation of job performance and salary, controlling for personality and demographic characteristics. The results indicated that the relationships between social skill and job performance were stronger among workers high than low in GMA. In a similar manner, the relationships between GMA and job performance were stronger among workers high than low in social skill. The interaction on salary indicated that increases in social skill (or GMA) for high GMA (or social skill) individuals were associated with higher salary levels. It is interesting, however, that increases in social skill (or GMA) for those low in GMA (or social skill) contributed to lower salaries.

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

Competency ratings were obtained from a hybrid selection system on 98 top-level executives in a predictive validity design by Russel (2001). Hierarchical linear modeling results indicated that "resource problem-solving-
oriented" competency ratings predicted initial performance. "People-oriented" competency ratings predicted subsequent performance trends. Utility estimates suggested that the system generated an additional $3 million in annual profit per candidate selected. Groups of executives with similar performance trends were identified who had encountered qualitatively different situational circumstances. Findings imply that a model of executive performance must contain main effects for person (competencies) and situation (economic-industrial) characteristics on both subsequent performance and performance trends.

Sosik & Jung (2002) carried out a cross-cultural longitudinal investigation to examine the effects of culture (individualism-collectivism dichotomy) on group characteristics (functional heterogeneity, preference for teamwork, group potency, outcome expectation) and performance of 83 work groups performing two decision-making tasks over a 15-week period. Results of repeated measures analysis of covariance indicated that individualists reported higher levels of functional heterogeneity and group potency and attained higher levels of group performance than collectivists. In addition, culture and time interacted to influence ratings of group potency and outcome expectation. The difference in ratings of group potency between individualists and collectivists increased over time. Outcome expectation was greater among collectivists in Time 1, while greater for individualists in Time 2.

Sosik, Potosky & Jung (2002) used Longitudinal multi-source field data to examine core aspects of Tsui and Ashford's (1994) adaptive self-regulation model in terms of linkages between self-monitoring, discrepancy in manager fit with position, five measures of leadership, and manager performance. Sixty-four superiors of focal managers rated the managers' match to their position within the organization at Time 1 and managers'
performance at Time 3. During Time 2, the 64 focal managers completed a measure of their self-monitoring, while 192 subordinates rated the managers' leadership behaviours. Results of partial least squares analysis revealed that discrepancy in manager fit with position was associated with reductions in laissez faire and passive management by-exception behaviour and increases in transformational leadership behaviour. Self-monitoring was positively associated with all five leadership behaviours. Performance related positively to transformational leadership behaviour and negatively to passive management-by-exception and contingent reward behaviour.

Jung, Sosik and Baik (2002), tested a longitudinal work group performance model developed by Jung and Sosik (1999) that focuses on the effects of perceptions of functional heterogeneity, preference for group work, group potency, and outcome expectations on group performance. The main objective was to replicate and extend their findings by conducting a comparable study in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures to test cross-cultural applicability of the model. Accordingly, authors tested the model with 43 student work groups in the United States and 40 student work groups in Korea performing two decision-making tasks over a 15-week semester. Results of partial least squares analysis indicated that potency had a consistently positive relation to performance in the U.S. sample, as it did in the 1999 study. This generalized to the Korean sample at Time 2 (but not at Time 1). Performance at Time 1 had a positive relation to subsequent perceived homogeneity and outcome expectations in the U.S. sample, as in the 1999 study, and this also held true for the Korean sample. Several new and interesting patterns emerged in the current study. For example, preference for group work had no relation to group performance at Time 1 in either sample, then at Time 2 was negatively related to performance in the Korean sample, and positively in the U.S. sample.
Chockalingam, Schmidt and Ones (2002) used a meta-analysis to cumulate the correlations between supervisors and peer ratings for different dimensions of job performance. The general pattern in the data suggested that raters from the same organizational level disagree as much as raters from different levels. Methods were used to separate the effects at rating difficulty and lack of construct-level convergence on the correlation between supervisor and peer ratings. The authors found complete construct-level convergence for ratings of overall job performance, productivity, effort job knowledge, quality, and leadership but not for ratings of administrative competence interpersonal competence, and compliance or acceptance of authority. Higher rating difficulty was more strongly associated with lower mean observed peer-supervisor correlations than were construct-level disagreements between peers and supervisors.

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

Roth, Huffcutt and Bobko (2003), conducted a new meta-analysis of ethnic group differences in job performance. Given a substantially increased
set of data as compared with earlier analyses, the authors were able to conduct analyses of Black-White differences within more homogeneous categories of job performance and to reexamine findings on objective versus subjective measurement. Contrary to one perspective sometimes adopted in the field, objective measures are associated with very similar, if not somewhat larger, standardized ethnic group differences (ds) than subjective measures across a variety of indicators. This trend was consistent across quality, quantity, and absenteeism measures. Further, work samples and job knowledge tests are associated with larger ds than performance ratings or measures of absenteeism. Analysis of Hispanic-White standardized differences shows that they are generally lower than Black-White differences in several categories.

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

Hassan and Davies (2004) collected data on job performance for 1,053 male (N=461) and female (N=592) rubber tappers from nine different estates in Malaysia, and analysed for age, sex and tenure differences job performance data were based on output measures derived from production records over a 12-month period. Since the type of terrain varied considerably across plantations, terrain was classified as either 'hilly' or 'undulating' and the
effects of terrain type on performance were also examined. The relationship between age and total output took the form of an inverted U. Partial correlation analyses indicated that tenure, rather than age, were the main determinant of job performance. More experienced rubber tappers were found to perform better than less experienced rubber tappers. Women had significantly higher output levels than did men. Tappers working on estates with predominantly hilly terrains produced significantly higher levels of output than did tappers working on estates with predominantly undulating terrains. Neither sex nor tenure interacted significantly with terrain. These results are discussed in relation to previous research concerned with group differences in job performance.

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

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB BEHAVIOURS

Jae (1997) assessed the success in the Banking sector by examining the relationship between EQ, IQ and success in 100 bank employees. Data was
collected by administering the Bar-On EQ-i, the Raven Progressive Matrices, a performance review and analysis report. The correlation between Total EQ and job performance was 0.52, with job performance accounting for 27% of the variance. The Intrapersonal-Interpersonal adaptability, Stress Management, and General Mood composite scales had correlations of 0.48, 0.38, 0.49, 0.52, and 0.39 with job performance. The relationship between cognitive ability and job performance was weak, with $r=0.07$. No relationship was found between emotional intelligence and cognitive ability. This study found EQ to be a stronger predictor of on-the-job success than IQ.

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

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

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

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

This study by Slaski & Cartwright (2002) builds on earlier work, examining the role of Emotional Intelligence (EI) as a moderator in the stress process. A sample of UK managers (n=60) were given training in emotional intelligence. Pre and Post measures were taken relating to EI, stress and health and management performance. The study also incorporated a matched control group. It was found that training resulted in increased EI and improved health and well-being.
Contemporary theories place emotions and self-regulation at the centre of a dynamic process of stress. Emotional Intelligence (EQ) is the ability to perceive, understand and reflectively manage one's own emotions and those of others. This study by Slaski and Cartwright (2002) which was conducted within the management population (n=224) of a large retail organization, investigates the relationship between a measure of EQ, subjective stress, distress, general health, morale, quality of working life and management performance. Significant correlations in the expected direction were found, indicating that managers who scored higher in EQ suffered less subjective stress, experienced better health and well-being, and demonstrated better management performance.

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

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

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

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

Sitarenios (1998) correlated the EQ-i composite scales and sub-scales with 4 objective measures of success in 13 financial employees of the Global Private Banking and Trust division of the CIBC. Measures of success were "booked sales," "pipeline sales," total 1 (the sum of the booked and pipeline sales), and total 2 (1/2 of the pipeline total + booked sales). The results suggest that emotional skills are highly related to overall success as evaluated by booked, pipeline, and combined values. The results indicate that the most important aspects of Emotional Intelligence are Self-Actualization, Interpersonal relationship skill, and to a lesser extent, Empathy, Flexibility, Stress Tolerance, Reality Testing, and Independence.
Cavallo and Brienza (2006), conducted a study on three hundred and fifty-eight Managers across the Johnson & Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group (JJC & PC Group) globally to assess if there are specific leadership competencies that distinguish high performers from average performers. Participants were randomly selected, then coded for performance rating, potential code, gender, functional group and regional area. More than fourteen hundred employees took part in a one hundred and eighty three question multi-rater survey that measured a variety of competencies associated with leadership performance including those commonly referred to as Emotional Intelligence. Results showed that the highest performing managers have significantly more "emotional competence" than other managers. There was strong inter-rater agreement among Supervisors, Peers, and Subordinates that the competencies of self-Confidence, Achievement Orientation, Initiative, Leadership, Influence and Change Catalyst differentiate superior performers. The high potential managers received higher scores in the emotional competencies by Peers and Supervisors, but not by Subordinates. Some gender difference was found, with Supervisors rating Females higher in Adaptability and Service Orientation, while Peers rated Females higher on Emotional Self-Awareness, Conscientiousness, Developing Others, Service Orientation, and Communication. Direct reports scored Males higher in Change Catalyst.

PERSONALITY AND JOB BEHAVIOURS

Using the five factor model with an emphasis on extraversion and conscientiousness Barry, Bruce, Stewart and Greg (1997) investigated how personality is related to small group processes and outcomes. Graduate students (N=288) assigned to 4- and 5- person teams in 61 groups engaged in a series of creative problem solving tasks over a period of several weeks. Extraversion was associated with group processes and outcomes at both
individual and group levels of analysis. At the individual level, extraverts were perceived by others as having greater effect than introverts on group outcomes. Covariances structure modeling suggested that extraverts induce these perceptions through the provision of both socio emotional and task-related inputs. At the group level, the proportion of relatively extraverted members was related curvilinearly to task focus and group performance. Contrary to expectations, conscientiousness was unrelated to processes and outcomes at either the individual or group level.

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

Interest in the role of personality in organizational behaviour has increased over recent years. To a large extent this is due to the emergence of the "Big Five" as a valid and reasonably generalizable taxonomy for personality structure. As far as individual work performance is concerned, several meta-analytic studies have explored the criterion-related validity of personality and shown that personality variables are associated with overall job proficiency. Robertson & Callinan (1998) evaluated these developments in the light of a broader theoretical framework and recent empirical results. Overall job proficiency is divided into two components: task performance and
contextual performance. Studies on individual and group performance, and leader effectiveness, are presented to show that personality factors are more closely related to contextual performance. Research linking personality with job and work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) is also reviewed. The achievements and limitations of research so far are highlighted and suggestions for a new research agenda.

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

Dirks (1999) in his study explored 2 questions. Does the level of trust within a group affect group performance? If so, how does this relationship operate? An experimental method was used to examine 2 roles through which interpersonal trust could affect group performance, a main effect and a moderating effect. The data do not support the main effect that has dominated the literature on interpersonal trust. The data do support the moderating role. Trust seems to influence how motivation is converted into work group processes and performance. On the basis of these findings, it is suggested that trust may be best understood as a construct that influences group performance indirectly by channeling group members' energy toward reaching alternative goals.
The general proposition that performance is a multiplicative function of ability and motivation has a long-standing history. Three recent studies have reported results that suggest that shifting from an additive model to a multiplicative model may improve efforts to predict performance. Sackett Gruys and Ellingsm (1998) represent an extensive examination of this multiplicative proposition when motivation is conceptualized in terms of personality characteristics. The Project A database, the Management Continuity Study database, and 2 additional data sets were brought together to facilitate a systematic investigation concerning whether ability and personality interact when predicting performance. Contrary to expectations, the results indicate that ability personality interactions are not defected at above chance levels.

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

Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) evaluated the linkage between leader-member exchange (LMX), transformational and transactional leadership, and physical distance in predicting performance of 317 followers over a 1-year period. Results from a partial least squares analysis revealed
that LMX was related positively to transformational and contingent reward leadership and negatively to management-by-exception. LMX and active management-by exception positively predicted follower performance and physical distance moderated leadership-performance relationships. Transformational leadership produced significantly higher follower performance in close versus distant situations, whereas LMX produced high follower performance irrespective of physical distance between leaders and followers.

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

In a study on the basis of job analysis results, the validity of using measures of general cognitive ability, job-specific skills, and personality traits jointly at both the individual level and the group level to predict the performance of 79 four person human resource work teams was evaluated by Nenman and Wright (1999). Team member trait and job skill scores were aggregated with a conjunctive model of task performance. At the individual
level of analysis, measures of personality (i.e., Agreeableness and Conscientiousness) predicted peer ratings of team member performance beyond measures of job specific skills and general cognitive ability. Similarly, at the group level of analysis, both agreeableness and conscientiousness predicted supervisor ratings of work team performance, objective measures of work team accuracy, and work completed. At both the individual and group levels, the trait of agreeableness predicted interpersonal skills.

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

Frayne and Geringer (2001) in a control group field experiment using a reversal design, 30 insurance sales people were randomly assigned to an experimental group that received self-management training. A multivariate analysis of variance and subsequent repeated-measures analyses of variance revealed that compared with a control condition (n=30), training in self-management skills significantly improved job performance as assessed
through both objective and subjective measures. Performance improvement continued with time, and increases were sustained across a 12-month period post training. Subsequent training of the control group produced similar increases in self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, and job performance. Potential mediating effects of self-efficacy and outcome expectancies on the self-management performance relationship were explored and partially supported.

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

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

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

Judge and Ilies (2002) in this article provide a meta-analysis of the relationship between the 5 factor model of personality and 3 central theories of performance motivation (goal setting, expectancy, and self-efficacy motivation). The quantitative review includes 150 correlations from 65 studies. Traits were organized according to the 5-factor model of personality. Results indicated that Neuroticism (average validity = -.31) and Conscientiousness (average validity = .24) were the strongest and most consistent correlates of performance motivation across the 3 theoretical perspectives. Results further indicated that the validity of 3 of the Big Five traits - Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Conscientiousness - generalized across studies. As a set, the Big 5 traits had an average multiple correlation of 40 with the motivational criteria, suggesting that the Big 5 traits are an important source of performance motivation.
The question of how to develop effective leaders is one of major importance to military organizations. Snook and Tremble (2002) examined a large cohort of U.S. Military Academy cadets over time, tests the influence of cognitive and personality variables on military leadership performance over a 4-year period. Hierarchical multiple regression procedures are used to identify factors at entry into the Academy that successfully predict military development grades as upper classmen, 3 to 4 years later. A moderately stable cross-validated model reveals cognitive factors (college entrance scores, social judgement skills, and logical reasoning) and personality factors (agreeableness and conscientiousness) that contribute to later leader performance. A main effect for gender on leader performance was also identified, with women performing better than men. The amount of variance in leader performance scores accounted for by variables examined here, although modest, is notable considering the time interval involved.

Witt et al. (2002) hypothesized that the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance would be stronger for person high in agreeableness than for those low in agreeableness. Results of hierarchical moderated regression analysis for 7 independent samples of employees across diverse occupations provided support for the hypothesis in 5 of the samples. In samples supporting the hypothesis, among the highly conscientious workers, those low in agreeableness were found to receive lower ratings of job performance than workers high in agreeableness. One explanation for lack of an interaction between conscientiousness and agreeableness in the other 2 samples is that those jobs were not characterized by frequent, cooperative interactions with others. Overall, the results show that highly conscientious workers who lack interpersonal sensitivity may be ineffective, particularly in jobs requiring cooperative interchange with others.
Hogan and Holland (2003) used socio analytic theory to understand individual differences in people's performance at work. Specifically, if predictors and criteria are aligned by using theory, then the meta-analytic validity of personality measures exceeds that of a theoretical approach. As performance assessment moved from general to specific job criteria, all Big Five personality dimensions more precisely predicted relevant criterion variables, with estimated true validities of .43 (Emotional stability), .35 (Extraversion-Ambition), .34 (Agreeableness), .36 (Conscientiousness), and .34 (Intellect-Openness to Experience).

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

Robertson et al. (2004) in their recent research has provided clear evidence that personality factors are associated with job performance. The construct of conscientiousness has been shown to be a particularly promising predictor of overall job performance. Some authors have proposed that conscientiousness might be the 'g' of personality and predict performance in most occupational areas. The nature of the construct of conscientiousness is reviewed and consideration given to the likely behaviour associated with high conscientiousness. It is hypothesized that given the requirements of managerial work, the criterion related validity of conscientiousness may not
extend to all managerial jobs. Conscientiousness scores are derived from a sample of managers (N=437), with the aid of personality questionnaire data. In a concurrent validity design these scores are correlated with indicators of current job performance, promotability and specific job performance factors. The correlation of conscientiousness with current performance is close to zero and the correlation with promotability is -.20. The pattern of relationships between conscientiousness and the job performance factors is used to interpret the finding that conscientiousness is not influential in determining managerial performance. The results suggest that there may be limits to the range of occupational areas in which conscientiousness is closely linked with job performance.

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

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

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

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

Keller (1997) in a study of 532 scientists and engineers from 4 industrial research and development organizations showed that as hypothesized, the scientist-engineer distinction had a moderating effect on the
relationships between job involvement and 1-year-later job-performance ratings and on counts of patents and publications. Scientists had stronger relationships between job involvement and each of the performance measures taken 1 year later than did the engineers. No moderating effect was found for the scientist-engineer distinction on the relationships between organizational commitment and the performance measures. Moreover, non-moderating effect was shown for an interaction term of job involvement and organizational commitment on the performance measures. Implications are discussed for theory building of the construct of job involvement and for the differential management of scientists versus engineers.

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

O'Neill and Mone (1998) in this his study integrated measures of equity sensitivity and self efficacy in an effort to better understand how these variables may affect job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent
to leave. Equity sensitivity denotes how sensitive people are to over reward and under reward situations and has recently enhanced the accuracy of equity theory in predicting job satisfaction in social exchange situations. Self-efficacy, or task-specific self-confidence, is a central component of Bandura's social cognitive theory, and its influence on individual's goals, efforts, and task persistence is well documented. Results from a field study of 242 employees in a health care firm support the moderating role of equity sensitivity in relations between self-efficacy and job satisfaction and between self-efficacy and intent to leave, but not between self-efficacy and organizational commitment.

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

Barkat and Shawkat (1999) conducted a study to find out the interrelationship among skills & job involvement and work performance of hundred weavers lived in different carpet manufacturing enterprises. Subjects were administered the shorter version of Hadabt and Kaijner's, job involvement scale. There performance and skills appraisals were assessed by
a scale developed by the authors. The correlational analysis revealed positive but insignificant correlation among different levels of skills, job involvement, and work performances. The only correlation was between high skill and low work performance which were inversely but not significantly related.

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

Musharraf and Tarique (1999) investigated the Quality of Work Life (QWL), job satisfaction, and performance of 63 nurses working in government hospitals in Bangladesh. The Bengali version of Sinha and Sayeed's (1980) QWL Inventory and Brayfield-Roth (1951), Job satisfaction Scale were administered significant positive correlation was found between job satisfaction and performance. Also, Higher QWL and job satisfaction were expressed by respondents from small as opposed to large organizations and by nurses working in day shifts rather than in night shifts.
Nandi (1999) examined the role of job satisfaction in the self rated performance of school teachers. The sample consisted of 315 teachers employed in Bengali-medium secondary schools. The job satisfaction scales (Srilatha, 1991), and the self-rated performance scale (Srilatha, 1991) were administered individually to all the respondents. Findings indicated that job satisfaction had no characteristic influence on the self-rated performance of school teachers. There were no gender differences with regard to self rated performance as well as job satisfaction. However, there were differences in the nature of job satisfaction among teachers.

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

The purpose of this study conducted by Sosik (2001) was to examine whether self-awareness of managers (defined as agreement between self and other leadership ratings) would influence work attitudes (i.e., trust and organizational commitment) of managers and their subordinates, and relationships between charismatic leadership behaviour and managerial
performance. Longitudinal multi source data were collected from 83 managers (who responded about their trust, organizational commitment, charismatic leadership and socially desirable responding), 249 subordinates (who rated their manager's charismatic leadership and responded about their trust and organizational commitment), and 83 superiors of focal managers (who rated managerial performance). Results indicated that levels of work attitudes and correlations between work attitudes, charismatic leadership, and performance varied as a function of self-awareness of managers.

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

Thilak (2001) in an empirical study tried to find out the relationship between teaching effectiveness and job satisfaction and motivation to work in a sample of hundred secondary school teachers from both rural, and urban areas. The subjects were administered the Teacher Effectiveness Scale (Kumar & Muths, 1974), the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Kumar & Muths, 1978) and the Work Motivation Scale (Aggrawal, 1988). It was
reported that motivation to work significantly affected teaching effectiveness. The effect of job satisfaction as well as the interactive effect of motivation to work and job satisfaction were non significant. Teachers with high motivation to work were significantly better than those with low motivations to work with regard to teaching effectiveness.

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

This meta-analysis by Wright and Bone (2002) investigated the correlation between attitudinal commitment and job performance for 3,630 employees obtained from 27 independent studies across various levels of employee tenure. Controlling for employee age and other nuisance variables, the authors found that tenure had a very strong nonlinear moderating effect on the commitment-performance correlation, with correlations tending to decrease exponentially with increasing tenure. These findings do not appear to be the result of differences across studies in terms of the type of performance measure (supervisory vs. self), type of tenure (job vs. organizational), or commitment measure (Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (L.W. Porter, R.M. Steers, R.T. Mowday, & P.V. Boulian,
1974) vs. others). The implications and future research directions of these results are discussed.

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

Thorsteinson (2003) conducted a meta-analysis (k=38, N=51, 231) to examine the size of the difference between full- and part-time employees on job attitudes. Results indicated that there was little difference between full-time (FT) and part-time (PT) employees on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to leave and facets of job satisfaction. Full-time employees were found to be more involved with their jobs than PT employees (d = 0.39). Moderating variables were examined (type of job, sex of the sample and sampling strategy used), but these variables explained little of the variability in effect sizes across the studies. An additional analysis of voluntary vs. involuntary employment status was conducted on job satisfaction, but only small differences were found.
Cropanzano, Rupp and Byrne (2003) investigated the negative consequences of emotional exhaustion for individual employees and their employers. On the basis of social exchange theory, the authors proposed that emotional exhaustion would predict job performance, 2 classes of organizational citizenship behaviour, and turnover intentions. In addition, the authors posited that the relationship between emotional exhaustion and effective work behaviours would be mediated by organizational commitment. With only a few exceptions, the results of 2 field studies supported the authors' expectations. In addition, emotional exhaustion exerted an independent effect on these criterion variables beyond the impact of age, gender, and ethnicity.

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

Yehunda et al. (2004) in this study examined the relationship between job performance and prosocial behaviour at work using several variables that to date have received little or no attention in the literature. It focuses on employees' need for control, need for achievement, and the more commonly studied variable of organizational commitment as direct predictors of prosocial behaviour, and ultimately as indirect antecedents of job
performance. However, no relationship was found between need for control and job performance. Moreover, when both personality variables were controlled for, the effect of prosocial behaviour and commitment on job performance disappeared. This finding suggests that further work on the mediating effects of prosocial behaviour and commitment on job performance is needed.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, PERSONALITY, JOB ATTITUDES AND JOB BEHAVIOURS

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

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

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

Lennart and Patriek (2003), studied salespersons in a telecommunications company for perceived risk, emotional intelligence (EI), a number of additional dimensions of work motivation personality, and performance. It was found that EI was related as expected to other variables, most notably to life/work balance (positively), to positive affective tone (positively), and to materialistic values and money obsession (negatively). EI was most clearly related to citizenship behaviour and less to core task performance, as expected. Core task performance was strongly related to conscientiousness and positive affect, and also to willingness to work and work interest. Job satisfaction had a weaker relationship to performance, in agreement with much earlier work. EI emerged as a dimension possible to measure and with expected properties.
Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2004) in this paper critically review conceptualisations and empirical evidence in support of emotional intelligence (EI) and its claimed role in the occupational environment. Consideration is given to the purported status of EI in occupational and career assessment (with particular emphasis on personnel selection and placement), job performance, and satisfaction. Overall, this review demonstrates that recent research has made important strides towards understanding the usefulness of EI in the workplace. However, the ratio of hyperbole to hard evidence is high, with over-reliance in the literature on expert opinion, anecdote, case studies, and unpublished proprietary surveys.

Psychological acceptance (acceptance) and emotional intelligence (EI) are two relatively new individual characteristics that are hypothesised to affect well-being and performance at work. Donaldso-Feilder and Bond (2004) compared both of them, in terms of their ability to predict various well-being outcomes (i.e. general mental health, physical well-being, and job satisfaction). In making this comparison, the effects of job control are accounted for, this is a work organisation variable that is consistently associated with occupational health and performance. Results from 290 United Kingdom workers showed that EI did not significantly predict any of the well-being outcomes, after accounting for acceptance and job control. Acceptance predicted general mental health and physical well-being but not job satisfaction, and job control was associated with job satisfaction only. Discussion focuses on the theoretical and applied implications of these findings. These include support for the suggestion that not controlling one's thoughts and feelings (as advocated by acceptance) may have greater benefits for mental well-being than attempting consciously to regulate them (as EI suggests).
In this study Law, Wong, Song, Law (2004) reviewed the definition of emotional intelligence (EI) and argued that EI is conceptually distinct from personality. In Study I, the authors showed that EI was related to yet distinct from personality dimensions and that it had incremental predictive power on life satisfaction. The authors examined the construct validity of self-reports and others' ratings of EI using two samples in Study 2. In a student sample, parents' ratings explained additional variance in the students' life satisfaction and feelings of powerlessness after controlling for the Big Five personality dimensions. In the work sample, peer ratings were found to be significant predictors of job performance ratings provided by supervisors after controlling for the Big Five personality dimensions.