CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present chapter furnishes the studies which will bring an awareness over the importance of organizational behavior, as in today’s changing world it is noticed that human behavior is both complex and dynamic. It is important for us to examine the intricacies in human nature. Hence we can determine various factors associated with it especially the work performance. Humans are a competitive race and excellence is their ultimate goal. Naturally there is a need for an individual and the organization to perform well. The work performance is associated and influenced by various factors like self efficacy, goal setting, job satisfaction, fatigue, burnout, communication, emotional aspects etc. The studies will evidently provide sufficient information pertaining to these factors. Every individual performs better when he gets enough feedback regarding his performance, for which performance appraisals are done. The importance of this performance appraisal relates to many factors which will promote good performance of the employees. The performance of the employees depends largely over their general health, emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence. The studies highlight the association as well as the importance of these three factors on work performance.

Thus the following chapter can be postulated under the following headings:

2.1 Role of Organizational Behavior in Work Performance

2.2 Work Performance

2.3 Performance Appraisal

2.4 Factors influencing Work Performance and Performance Appraisal
2.1 ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR IN WORK PERFORMANCE

A well known fact is that human beings are complex animals and human relations are consequently complex as well as dynamic in nature. Such beings, in an organization where the primary goal is to excel, relate in various manners. Whatever way in which they relate and behave that has an obvious effect on the ultimate goal of the organization, which is work performance, as it leads to overall success. This behavior of the employees in the organization is influenced by various aspects of the organization. It could be the organizational culture, commitment, goals, work stress, work roles, teams, strategies, staff and their perception, changing environment, communication, performance appraisals used, creativity and innovation present etc. but most importantly the work performance. The following studies will throw light in all these factors which comprise organizational behavior of the employees.

The behavior of the employees is by and large associated with their performance. The performance of the employees depends on their personality, satisfaction levels, commitment,
effort, turnover etc. The following studies will indicate the influence of work performance on organizational behavior of the employees.

Sharp (2008) examined job satisfaction using Herzberg et al two factor theory on a sample of 161 psychiatric nurses. The relationship between ability utilization, compensation, co-workers, achievement and job satisfaction were measured using Weiss et al.'s Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short form. The results supported Herzberg’s theory by showing that there were moderate correlations among nurses' ability utilization, achievement and job satisfaction. It was seen that there was greatest satisfaction with ability utilization (86%) and achievement (83%); 67% were satisfied with co-worker and 52% with compensation and least satisfied with compensation, with 14% indicating that they were very dissatisfied. This accordingly affected their level of performance.

Van Dam, Oreg, and Schyns (2008) analysed how characteristics of the daily work context related to employees’ resistance to change through aspects of the change process. The study focused on the relationships of leader–member exchange and perceived development climate with employees’ resistance to a merger were fully mediated by three change process characteristics which are information, participation, and trust in management. It also reflected that there were two individual-level characteristics which showed significant relationships with resistance to change which are openness to job changes, and organizational tenure and also the employees’ role breadth self-efficacy was not related to resistance. It was also found that there were a number of ways in which organizations can increase the effectiveness of their change efforts.
Elving (2005) emphasized on how to study communication during organizational change and how communication could prevent resistance to change, thereby creating a lucrative environment for performance in the organization. The study was reflected on six propositions in which aspects of communication, such as information, feelings of belonging to a community, and feelings of uncertainty, have an influence on resistance to change, which will affect the effectiveness of the change effort. It showed a distinction made between the informative function of communication and communication as a means to create a community.

Vancouver and Day (2005) reviewed self-regulation constructs and interventions in work contexts. The study emphasized that a few constructs such as self-efficacy and goal commitment, have received substantial psychometric attention and it seems important targets for interventions. Interventions based on self-regulatory principles have been developed, and rigorous tests of these interventions have been conducted. These interventions were found to influence a range of organizationally relevant outcomes such as increasing performance and reducing absenteeism.

Kauser and Shaw (2004) assessed the impact of both behavioral and organizational characteristics on the success of international strategic alliances. The study found that behavioral characteristics played a more significant role than organizational characteristics. It was seen that high levels of commitment, trust, coordination, interdependence and communication were found to be good predictors of international strategic alliance success. There was a conflict hampering in good performance. There were also certain organizational characteristics like structure and control did not have strong influence the success of international strategic alliances.

Michie and West (2004) reviewed the relationship between organizational influences and staff performance, health and well-being. The study focused on the integrated management and
psychological approaches, with the aim of assisting future explanation, prediction and organizational change. It found a relationship among context, people management and psychological consequences for employees, employee behavior and organizational performance.

Cotton and Hart (2003) determined studies related to employee wellbeing and organizational performance. The study discussed the determinants of employee wellbeing, discretionary performance and withdrawal behavior intentions, including the submission of stress-related workers compensation claims and the use of uncertified sick leave. It also emphasized on the relationship between employee wellbeing and performance-related outcomes. The consistent findings suggested that organizational health paves the way towards employee wellbeing and the prevention of occupational stress.

Dulewicz, Higgs, and Slaski (2003) summarized two measures of Emotional Intelligence, the Dulewicz and Higgs EIQ and the Bar-on EQ-i. The study focused on middle managers with the Emotional Intelligence instruments to measure the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and morale and stress at work. It was found that the correlations between various measures of morale and stress at work and EIQ demonstrated construct validity. Significant relationship was found between EIQ and current job performance.

Martin and Terblanche (2003) discussed the determinants of organizational culture which influence creativity and innovation. The study brought out the relationship between creativity, innovation and culture and the determinants were strategy, structure and support mechanisms, behavior that encourages innovation, and open communication. The study discussed each determinant’s influence on creativity and innovation. It also postulated that the values, norms
and beliefs that play a role in creativity and innovation can either support or inhibit creativity and innovation depending on how they influence individual and group behavior.

Nikolaou (2003) explored personality dispositions and personality process on 227 employees completing self-report measures of personality and job satisfaction. The study assessed their citizenship behaviors, generic work competencies and overall job performance. It was found that there was a relationship between personality and job satisfaction but not between personality and the performance-related variables, although agreeableness and openness to experience were related to performance for occupations involving interpersonal interaction.

Rashid, Sambasivam, and Johari (2003) examined the influence of corporate culture and organizational commitment. The study was based on a questionnaire and had itself administered on 202 managers in companies. It was found that there was a significant correlation between corporate culture and commitment. Both corporate culture type and organizational commitment have an influence on the financial performance of the companies.

Wright, Gardner, and Moynihan (2003) examined the impact of human resource practices and organizational commitment on the operating performance and profitability of business units. The study was conducted on 50 autonomous business units, using a predictive design with a sample of 50 autonomous business units within the same corporation. It was found that both organizational commitment and human resource practices are significantly related to operational measures of performance and also operating expenses and pre-tax profits.
Guest (2002) concerned for organizational relationship between HRM and performance, worker reactions are neglected. The study included worker attitudes and behavior in the study of the HRM-performance relationship and on the other, by paying serious attention to the association between HRM and worker-related outcomes. It was found that worker attitudes and behavior mediated the HRM-performance relationship and that certain HR practices are associated with higher work and life satisfaction. The study also noticed that these practices include job design direct participation and information provision that are associated with higher performance; but work satisfaction is also associated with equal opportunities, family-friendly and anti-harassment practices.

Wall, Cordery, and Clegg (2002) argued that beyond the assumption that empowerment enhances work performance; the actual effectiveness of empowerment practices depends on the degree of uncertainty of operation. The study supported this by analyzing organizational theory, work design, total quality management, human factors and human resource management.

Castka, Bamber, Sharp, and Belohoubek (2001) emphasized that teams are capable of outstanding performance and are the primary unit of performance for increasing numbers of organizations. Since, high performance teams are rare the study analyzed the factors affecting the successful implementation of high performance teams. It also developed a model for the successful implementation of high performance teams based on literature and case study available on it.

Helms and Stern (2001) examined the cultural perceptions of employees to see whether their perceptions vary by demographic characteristics and across organizational units. The study was
conducted in a major company in the long-term health-care industry. Out of the ten dimensions used, it was found that significant differences in perceptions by the organizational unit, the age of the employee, the employee’s gender, and their ethnicity. It also found a tenuous relationship between work experiences and cultural beliefs.

Andriopoulos and Lowe (2000) contributed the grounded theory of perpetual challenging as a process for enhancing organizational creativity. Perpetual challenging is basically a process which enables their employees to face the challenges with a perception that it is a creative challenge which demands them to come up with innovative solutions. It has four sub-core variables, namely adventuring, overt confronting, port folioing and opportunising. The study focused through grounded theory approach to conceptualize the behavior of employees under investigation. This concept explains how organizations can creatively combat challenges thereby improving the intellect which consecutively raises the performance levels.

Knippenberg (2000) analyzed work motivation and performance from the perspective of social identity theory and self-categorization theory. The study focused on the relation of organizational identification with the motivation to exert effort on behalf of the collective. It was found that there was a relationship of organizational identification with motivation and performance. This leads to the conclusion that identification is positively related to work motivation, task performance, and contextual performance and high performance is perceived to be in the group’s or organization’s interest.
McDonald and Makin (2000) examined employees of a large holiday sector organization based on Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni’s suggestion that temporary staff do not stay as committed to the organization as the permanent staff as the former has a transactional contract and the latter has a relational contract. The results showed that the levels of relational and transactional contracts of permanent and temporary staff did not differ significantly. It was found that there was a higher level of job satisfaction and commitment to the organization.

Liu (1999) evaluated two attributes of project performance. They were the individual's expected performance which is manifested as assigned goals; and the individual's perceived actual performance. The study postulated that there was a positive monotonic relationship between goal difficulty and performance, by project complexity. It was also found that difficult goals lead to higher performance, when the project participant is moderated and the factors responsible for improving the performance depended on goal commitment and project complexity.

Hayes and Allinson (1998) reviewed adjacent fields of individual and organizational learning and identified some implications for theory and practice. The focus of attention is the extent to which the individual level construct cognitive style can be meaningfully applied to aid the understanding of learning at the level of the organization as well as at the level of the individual. The study emphasized on the ways in which consideration of cognitive style can improve the effectiveness of interventions which designed to improve individual and organizational performance.

Fletcher and Williams (1996) examined the extent to which the main elements of performance management systems are associated with positive employee attitudes. The study measured
through questionnaires about performance management and employee attitudes from 860 staff in nine organizations. It was found that most elements of performance management did contribute to positive employee attitudes. They accounted for a substantial proportion of the variance in measures of organizational commitment and job satisfaction thereby influencing job performance.

Bycio, Hackett, and Alvares (1990) performed a meta-analysis of data from 45 studies and identified the relationship between job performance and employee turnover. The study found that employees who left were below average performers, but the relationship was especially weak and variable when voluntary turnover was involved. Similar findings were obtained with non-rating performance indices.

Hrebinik and Roteman (1973) examined the relationship between need satisfaction and absenteeism for a sample of 40 managers in a state organization. The study found that the data indicated a positive relationship between dissatisfaction and absenteeism which reflected on the work performance. It proved that larger the need deficiencies the greater the rate of absenteeism. The relationship between dissatisfaction and absenteeism were seen when controlling for the effects of hierarchical level.

Therefore, it is understood from the above studies the dynamic nature of an organization and the behavior employees in such a setting elicit. This reflects the true essence of the work force and their ways of interaction. The organizational culture promotes the organization behavior of the employees which reflect their work performance. The above studies reflected the role of organizational behavior in the work performance of the employees. It is also understood from the above studies that an organization is multidimensional and organizational behavior is dynamic.
The role of work performance takes the central position and reflects a vast horizon to study. Hence the studies in the following pages will depict it in accordance.

2.2 WORK PERFORMANCE

From the above studies, it is obvious that the work performance relates to and is associated with almost all factors present in an organizational setting. Hence it is important to analyze the studies pertaining to work performance. The following studies will throw light on the kind of performances, factors affecting it, the results of good and poor performance and the importance and relevance of work performance.

Kuvaas (2006) conducted on two business units with pay plans combining individual and collective performance and behaviors as the foundations for individual bonuses in order to examine the relationship between employee attitudes and behaviors; and pay administration and pay levels. The study had controlled factors like organizational tenure, education, gender, perceived unit support, perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, and type of pay plan. It was proved that, base pay level was positively related to both self-reported work performance and affective unit commitment and also found that these relationships were partly mediated by intrinsic motivation.

Collins, et al. (2005) conducted on workers at five locations on work impairment and absenteeism based on self-reported primary chronic health conditions using the Stanford Presenteeism Scale. The survey data were merged with employee demographics, medical and
pharmaceutical claims, smoking status, biometric health risk factors, payroll records, and job type. It was found that 65% of respondents reported having one or more of the surveyed chronic conditions. The associated absenteeism by chronic condition ranged from 0.9 to 5.9 hours in a 4-week period, and on-the-job work impairment ranged from a 17.8% to 36.4% decrement in ability to function at work. The study concluded that the cost related with performance based work loss or presentees greatly exceeded the combined costs of absenteeism and medical treatment combined and therefore influenced the work performance greatly.

Pronk, et al. (2004) analysed 683 workers to evaluate the relationship between lifestyle-related modifiable health risks such as physical activity, cardio respiratory fitness, and obesity and work performance. The study was based on the number of work loss days, quantity and quality of work performed, overall job performance, extra effort exerted, and interpersonal relationships as its dependent variables. It was found that higher levels of physical activity related diminished quality of work performed and overall job performance; higher cardio respiratory fitness related to diminished quantity of work performed, and a decrease in extra effort exerted to perform the work; obesity lead to difficulty in getting along with coworkers and severe obesity related to a higher number of work loss days. The study concluded that lifestyle-related modifiable health risk factors significantly impact employee work performance.

Bond and Bunce (2003) explained the relationship between mental health, job satisfaction and performance in the work domain. The study was hypothesized that acceptance would predict three outcomes in a sample of 412 customer service center workers. It was found that acceptance predicted mental health and an objective measure of performance over and above job control,
negative affectivity and locus of control. It also noticed that the beneficial effects of job control were greater, when people had higher levels of acceptance.

Cropanzano, Rupp, and Byrne (2003) emphasized that emotional exhaustion would predict job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intentions. The study showed that the relationship between emotional exhaustion and effective work behaviors would be mediated by organizational commitment. It was found that emotional exhaustion exerted an independent effect on these criterion variables beyond the impact of age, gender and ethnicity.

Stajkovic and Luthanss (1998) investigated through a meta-analysis and examined the relationship between self-efficacy and work-related performance. The study was conducted on a 2-level theory-driven moderator analysis by dividing the k sample of correlations according to the level of task complexity such as low, medium, and high. This was then divided into 2 classes according to the type of study setting such as simulated-lab versus actual-field. Thus the relationship between self efficacy and work performance was proved.

Wright and Bonett (1997) examined human services personnel in the age group of 29-68 yrs for a period of three years and evaluated the three dimensions of burnout and work performance. It was found that a negative relationship was established between one dimension of burnout, emotional exhaustion and subsequent work performance. It was also proved that there was no relationship between work performance, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment. Thus results supported that emotional exhaustion was a component of burnout and greatly affected the work performance.
Earley (1996) examined the usefulness of performance feedback in shaping workers’ behaviors. The first study was conducted on 36 workers from a traditional, heavy-manufacturing industry using an in-basket task was used to assess the importance of praise or criticism concerning work performance. The second study was on 86 workers to examine the relations among a worker's trust in a supervisor, perceived importance of praise and criticism, a worker's perceived amount of praise and criticism received and performance. It was found that the workers valued and responded to praise and criticism differently, the influence of the feedback was partially mediated by a worker's trust in the feedback source and perceived importance of the feedback which thereby influenced the work performance.

Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) emphasized the distinction between task performance and contextual performance. The study rated 421 US Air Force mechanics on their task performance, contextual performance and overall performance. The data revealed their experience, ability, training performance, and personality. It was found that both task performance and contextual performance contribute independently to overall performance. It was proved that experience is more highly correlated with task performance than with contextual performance and personality variables are more highly correlated with contextual performance than with task performance. The study concluded that there was a distinction between task performance and contextual performance and confirms that performance was multidimensional one.

Shore and Martin (1989) examined bank tellers and hospital professionals in order to bring out the differential relationship job satisfaction and organizational commitment have with job performance and turnover intentions. It was found that organizational commitment was more strongly related than job satisfaction with turnover intentions for the tellers, but not for the
professionals. Moreover, job satisfaction was related more strongly than organizational commitment with supervisory ratings of performance for both samples. The study concluded that job attitudes can be linked with task-related outcomes like performance ratings and global organizational attitudes are linked with organization-related outcomes like turnover intentions. This determines the work performance.

Schmidt, Hunter, and Outerbridge (1986) examined the causal impact of job experience on job knowledge, performance capability as measured by job sample tests and supervisory ratings of job performance. The study was based on the used data from four independent studies reported by Vineberg and Taylor (1972) with a total sample size of 1,474 through path analysis. It was found that when mean job experience is 2–3 yrs; there is substantial variance in job experience. It also noticed that when the jobs are slightly complex, job experience has a direct impact on job knowledge and performance capabilities. The study was concluded by proving job experience affects work performance.

It is most definitely understood that the work performance of the employees is manifold and has a lot of factors associated to it. It is evident from the above studies that the true nature of work performance can be understood only when we analyze the various factors affecting the work performance of the employees. These factors will not only reflect the present state of the performance of employees in an organization but also throw light on the ways to enhance performance.

2.3 PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

A few studies from the above sections would have reflected how feedback affects the work performance. The performance appraisals are basically forms of evaluating the work
performance. It is important for both the individual and the organization to know where each employee stands and hence there is a need to rate their performance. The following studies indicate the importance of the performance appraisals, the approval of these appraisals by the employees themselves and finally the ways in which they promote the work performance.

Levy and Williams (2004) reviewed 300 articles to emphasize the growth and importance of performance appraisal. The study found that research has broadened the traditional conceptualization of performance appraisal effectiveness to include and emphasize ratee reactions and also the feedback culture which has on performance appraisal outcomes also has contributed to theory and practice. It noticed a large set of distal variables such as technology, HR strategies and economic conditions that are important for understanding the appraisal process. The study concluded that performance appraisal research has contributed to theory development and enhancement to practical application.

Fletcher and Perry (2002) reviewed research on performance appraisal and multi-source feedback systems. The study was based on a detailed analysis of appraisal from a cross-cultural perspective. It discussed two dimensions namely power distance and individualism/collectivism and influence on the appraiser, the style/process used, the content of evaluation and the purpose of appraisal. The study concluded by emphasizing on the future of performance appraisal in organizations.

Abraham, Karns, Shaw, and Mena (2001) investigated through survey, about a set of managerial competencies used in organizations to describe successful managers can be identified and organizations are appraising these same competencies as part of their managerial performance appraisal processes. The study found that many of these same organizations are not appraising
these competencies in their managerial-performance appraisal processes even though the six competencies of managerial success were perfect. The study was concluded by noticing the failure to appraise the competencies reduces the effectiveness of the competencies and the managerial performance appraisal programs.

Gabris and Ihrke (2001) analysed 134 professional county employees and examined the relationship between employee perceptions of performance appraisal, both employee burnout and experienced job satisfaction. The study evaluated whether instrument validity, distributive justice and procedural justice are related to burnout and job satisfaction. It was found that there was a relationship among these three independent variables and job satisfaction and a relationship between procedural and distributive justice and job burnout and also explored these findings on managers too.

Mayer and Davis (1999) determined the 14-month field study of employee trust for top management. A 9-month quasi-experiment found that the implementation of a more acceptable performance appraisal system increased trust for top management. The study proposed three factors of trustworthiness namely ability, benevolence and integrity. It was found that these three factors mediated the relationship between perceptions of the appraisal system and trust.

Cawley, Keeping and Levy (1998) determined the meta-analysis of 27 studies containing 32 individual samples to examine the relationship between participation in the performance appraisal process and various employee reactions. The study found that appraisal participation was most strongly related to satisfaction and value-expressive participation had a stronger relationship with most of the reaction criteria than instrumental participation.
Boice and Kliener (1997) emphasized that effective performance appraisal systems help to create a motivated and committed workforce. It argued that in order to be effective they require the support of top management to show their commitment and to translate organizational goals and objectives into personalized employee specific objectives. It explained the conditions for the implementation of performance appraisal and the need for appropriate training for supervisors, raters and employees. The study concluded that, a system for the frequent review of performance accurate record keeping, a clearly defined measurement system and a multiple rater group to perform the appraisal are important to establish an effective performance appraisal.

Maurer and Tarulli (1996) emphasized on the importance of peer or upward feedback systems and argued that during these systems recommends the use of human resource practices. It was observed that rate used these systems and develop the skills while rating reflected their positive attitude towards the appraisal system. It was found that perceived context variables such as development resource availability, social support and time demands were related to these development capability beliefs and to attitudes. The study was concluded by showing the importance of the appraisal dimensions moderated the influence of the development capability beliefs on attitudes and its contribution.

Hedge and Borman (1995) focused on the need and use of performance appraisal strategies for enhancing the effectiveness of organizations. The study examined the usefulness of different performance rating sources, including supervisor, peer, self, subordinate, and customers. It discussed the potential use of other methods of evaluation, such as electronic performance monitoring and works sample testing. The study concluded that team performance and
productivity and rapid changes in workplace affect workers' attitudes about, and reactions to performance appraisal.

Jordan and Nasis (1992) investigated 52 nurses about their preferences towards performance appraisals in terms of the method used, the rater and the reasons for which they want to be rated. The study noticed that the nurses opted for quantitative scales rather than comparative ones. The nurses also preferred the peers, self and supervisors to be the raters. It was found that their reason to be rated was for promotion and compensation purpose for shift, assignments and retirement decisions.

Carson, Cardy, and Dobbins (1991) investigated that understanding person and system sources of work variation is fundamental to performance appraisal. The study discussed the traditional human resource management view and the statistical process control view (Deming, 1986). These approaches which are contrasting to each other questioned the appraisal process. It was found that managers and subordinates believe that typical poor performance has different causes and that actual productivity levels far outweigh person or system sources of performance variance in appraisal judgments.

Giles and Mossholder (1990) examined the employees and measured system components of the appraisal context. The study compared the contribution of variables like complexity, implementation, follow-up on the review session satisfaction and appraisal system satisfaction with the contribution of variables like supervisory behaviors in the review session. It analyzed salary as another variable and found that the supervisory session variables were related to session satisfaction and also the system contextual variables were related to system satisfaction. Salary
linkage was associated with system satisfaction. Thus the study emphasized on the intricacies of performance appraisal.

Cleveland, Murphy, and Williams (1989) conducted a survey 243 members of Division 14 of the American Psychological Association who were employed in industry in order to determine the extent to which performance appraisal is used for each of several purposes in industry, the extent to which appraisal data may be used for multiple and possibly conflicting uses within the same organization and the organizational correlates of these uses. The study found that the use of performance appraisal to simultaneously make distinctions between and within individuals was common. It concluded that organizational characteristics were significantly related to uses of performance appraisal.

Farh, Werbel, and Bedian (1988) analysed the 88 faculty members and chairpersons of a university to examine the effectiveness of a self-appraisal-based performance evaluation system that incorporates self-assessment into traditional supervisory evaluation procedures. The study found that there was high congruency between self- and chairperson ratings. It also observed that both ratings had moderate to high levels of criterion-related validity. Both faculty members and chairpersons reported high self-appraisal-based performance evaluation acceptance.

Waldman, Bass, and Einstein (1987) conducted a survey among 256 managers in a large business organization to examine the extent to which transactional and transformational leadership practices are related to the attitudinal and rated performance outcomes of a performance appraisal process. The study found that although aspects of transformational leadership were related to performance appraisal scores, the contingent reward factor of transactional leadership, and all factors of transformational leadership were related to satisfaction
with performance appraisal processes. It concluded that there is a need for active transactional and transformational leadership in the performance appraisal process.

Greenberg (1986) examined the 217 middle managers from three industrial groups responding to an open-ended questionnaire in which they described the determinants of particularly fair or unfair performance appraisals. The study categorized and combined the responses using Q-sort procedure in order to highlight seven determinants of fairness in performance evaluations. It was found that the ratings revealed two factors namely procedural and distributive determinants and concluded with the factors responsible for a fair performance appraisal.

Dorfman, Stephan, and Loveland (1986) conducted a study among university employees and examined the performance-appraisal behaviors of supervisors and the reactions of their subordinates were studied in a sample of university employees. The study found that there were three dimensions of formal performance appraisals, in which two were developmental dimensions such as being supportive; emphasizing performance improvement and one administrative dimension such as discussing pay and advancement. It was noticed that supervisors supported highly rated individuals and stressed improvement efforts for poor performers and after controlling it was seen that support in the appraisal review was associated with higher levels of employee motivation, while discussing pay and advancement was related to higher levels of employee satisfaction.

Davis and Mount (1984) examined the 402 middle level managers and evaluated the effectiveness of performance appraisal training in an organizational setting. They were assigned to one of three conditions which were no training, computer assisted instruction only (CAI), or CAI training plus a behavior modeling workshop (CAIW). The study assessed training
effectiveness on two categories of dependent variables, which were managerial learning and managerial job performance. It was found that trained managers were more knowledgeable of performance appraisal than untrained managers. The study observed that the managers in the CAIW group conducted appraisal discussions which were perceived by employees as more satisfying than employees of managers in the no training group. It concluded that only partial support was obtained for the hypothesis that trained managers would be more effective in completing performance appraisal forms.

Ilgen and Feldman (1983) emphasized that the performance appraisal process is construed as a function of three interacting systems namely organizational context, the appraiser's information processing system and the behavioral system of the appraisee. The study investigated that certain aspects limited the ability of the appraisal process to produce an accurate, unbiased, reliable assessment of individual behavior and performance. It focused on observation, reward opportunities, systemic issues such as function and expectations within the context of the organization. The study also discussed the appraiser's automatic attention processes, categorization and memory and information search and recall and the appraisees’ automatic and controlled modes of behavior.

Dipboye and De Pontbriand (1981) conducted a study among 474 employees to examine their opinions and perceptions of the appraisal process. The study found that after controlling for perceived favorability of the appraisal through multiple regression the employee’s opinions of the appraisal and appraisal system were positive to the extent that they believed there was an opportunity to state their own side of the issues, the factors on which they were evaluated were
job relevant, and the objectives and plans were discussed earlier. Thus the study concluded that employees acknowledged performance appraisals favorably.

Landy and Farr (1980) reviewed the studies relating performance rating under the following headings: roles, context, vehicle, process and results. It developed a process model of performance rating combined with personality theory and variance partitioning to suggest a unified approach to understanding performance judgments in applied settings. The study found that cognitive characteristics of raters seem to hold the most promise for increased understanding of the rating process.

Teel (1980) emphasized that current trends in performance evaluations indicated that most large organizations are placing increasing emphasis on the importance of performance appraisal and are making continuing efforts to improve their systems. It was found that the trends included narrative evaluations, typing pay more closely to performance and frequent changes in the appraisal system.

Klimoski and London (1974) examined that the effectiveness for 153 hospital nurses were collected directly from them, their peers and supervisors. The study found that each rating source could be clearly identified and characterized. It concluded that interrater disagreement may reflect systematic rater bias and meaningful differences in the ways in which judgments are made.

The performance appraisals serve to be a motivating factor and promote work performance of the employees. By and large the employees approve these appraisals, prefer their supervisors and peers to evaluate their performance. Apart from this fact, the above studies indicating the importance of performance appraisal throws light in the future applications. The studies in the
above sections have given sufficient knowledge on the work performance of employee, how and why they influence organizational behavior and the role of performance appraisal which gauge the performance. The studies also indicate that, overall the studies reflect three broad dimensions which is associated with the work performance. The following sections will explain these three dimensions and their association with work performance.

2.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING WORK PERFORMANCE AND PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

The work performance of the employees is influenced by many factors. These factors range from ability and self efficacy of the employees, fatigue and burnout, job satisfaction and commitment, communication and goal setting, motivation and turnover and various other factors which are present and play a role in an organizational set up. The following studies throw light on the ways in which they influence the work performance of the employees.

Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009) emphasized that intrinsic motivation was a potential factor of work performance. The study was based on three cross-sectional surveys of a total of 826 respondents from organizations. It was found that there was a relationship between perceived investment in employee development and work effort was mediated by intrinsic motivation and also intrinsic motivation was found to moderate the relationship between perceived investment in employee development and organizational citizenship behavior. The form of the moderation revealed a positive relationship only for employees with high levels of intrinsic motivation.

Schaufeli, Bakker, and Van Rhenen (2009) conducted a survey among 201 telecom managers to examine the relationship with job demands and burnout. The study used the Job Demands-
Resources model and the analyses showed that increases in job demands such as overload, emotional demands and work-home interference; and decreases in job resources such as social support, autonomy, opportunities to learn and feedback to predict burnout. It was also found that this burnout thwarts the work performance.

Kuvaas (2006) explored the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes in the form of self-reported work performance, affective organizational commitment and turnover intention. The study was based on survey conducted among 593 employees from 64 savings banks showed that performance appraisal satisfaction was directly related to affective commitment and turnover intention. It was found that the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and work performance was both mediated and moderated by employees' intrinsic work motivation. The form of the moderation revealed a negative relationship for employees with low intrinsic motivation and a positive relationship for those with high intrinsic motivation. Thus intrinsic motivation leads to good work performance.

Weakliem and Frenkel (2006) examined the relationship between morale and workplace productivity in a sample of workplaces. The study focused on the shape of the relationship, whether the effects of morale are contingent on other factors and the paths by which any effect takes place. It was found that morale influences productivity in an approximately linear fashion. The effect of morale on productivity appeared to be larger when management regarded product quality as important and attempted to develop a corporate ethic and culture. It was also seen that although morale was related to work effort, only great efforts lead to high morale which in turn leads to good performance.
Brown, Jones, and Leigh (2005) investigated that self efficacy has an impact on work performance. The study was conducted in an industrial selling context and examined the effects of role overload on the employees self efficacy beliefs which determined the work performance. It was found that role overload had effects on self-efficacy beliefs. The study concluded that when role overload was low it had positive effects on self efficacy but when role overload was high it had an adverse effect on self efficacy which battered the work performance.

Leiter and Maslach (2005) emphasized that job stress impaired both health and work performance. The study investigated that the worker's internal experience of stress is assumed to play a mediating role between the impact of external job demands which are stressors and work-related outcomes such as absenteeism or illness. It proposed that organizational conditions influence a worker's experience of burnout and hence tamper their work performance. Thus the study discussed the relationship between experienced burnout organizational factors and work-related outcomes.

Beckers, et al. (2004) determined with 1807 full time workforce in order to examine the relationship between overtime and mental fatigue by taking into account work motivation and the quality of overtime work and studying theoretically derived subgroups. The study compared six overtime-fatigue subgroups with respect to work motivation and job characteristics. It was found that 67% of the respondents worked overtime and they appeared to be non fatigued, motivated workers with favorable work characteristics. It was also found that there was no significant interaction between overtime and fatigue. Thus the study concluded that, although the workers worked overtime, if the job was attractive they were happy.
Boles, Pelletier, and Lynch (2004) analyzed 2264 employees of a large national employer and emphasized that health risks and health related absence impaired performance on the job. The study were assessed on health risk and work productivity scale. The mean productivity loss was compared for individuals with different levels of risk factors using analysis of variance. It was found that participants with more risk factors reported greater productivity loss. It was seen that employees with diabetes and stress showed productivity loss. The study concluded that higher risks are strongly associated with greater productivity loss and different risks are associated with absenteeism than with presenteeism.

Halbesleben and Buckley (2004) investigated that burnout is a psychological response to work stress that is characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced feelings of personal accomplishment. The study reviewed and identified the causes of burnout and discussed the adverse effects on health and work performance. It was concluded by discussing the ways of reducing burnout.

Cox (2003) conducted a study based on 141 nurses employed on 13 inpatient units at a state-supported, 597-bed academic medical center and examined the effects of unit technology and intrapersonal, intragroup and intergroup conflict on team performance effectiveness and work satisfaction. It was found that intragroup conflict had direct negative effects on work satisfaction and team performance effectiveness and also the unit technology had a direct negative impact on work satisfaction.

Kennerley and Neely (2002) investigated that the effectiveness of performance measurement is an issue of growing importance to industrialists and academicians. It was noticed that organizations invest large amounts to observe and analyze the factors effecting work
performance. The study argued that the measurement systems should be dynamic and have to be modified in time. It was found that not much has been done with a futuristic mindset and thus concluded that organizations have to actively participate in shaping the evolution of the measurement systems only then can we detect the factors responsible for poor work performance and take measures accordingly.

Castka, Bamber, Sharp, and Belohoubek (2001) emphasized that teamwork leads to outstanding work performance in many organizations. The study examined the factors affecting successful implementation of high performance teams even though high performance teams are rare. The study also developed a model to successfully implement the high performance teams and found that a small sample of medium-sized enterprises felt rejuvenated and the teams performed well.

Maslac, Wilber and Leiter (2001) emphasized that burnout has a definite impact on work performance. The study investigated that burnout was a result of exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy. It studied the focus on engagement, the positive antithesis of burnout and how to alleviate burnout. It also argued that the social focus of burnout, its effects on work domain affects the work performance of an employee in an organization and also the employee’s health and well-being.

Grandey (2000) examined that emotions and emotional labor play a vital role in affecting the work performance. The study reviewed and compared perspectives of emotional labor in order define emotional labor. It also discussed the emotion regulation as a guiding theory for understanding the mechanisms of emotional labor and to present a model of emotional labor that included individual differences such as emotional intelligence and organizational factors such as supervisor support.
Wright and Cropanzano (2000) investigated psychological well-being while examining the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The study reported two field studies to explain these three measures. In the first study psychological well-being, but not job satisfaction, was predictive of job performance for 47 human services workers, the same was with the second study for 37 juvenile probation officers. Thus the study concluded that the performance is influenced by wellbeing of the employee.

Dirks (1999) determined the level of trust promoted performance by examining two roles through which interpersonal trust could affect group performance; it was a main effect and a moderating effect. It was found that the trust seems to influence how motivation is converted into work group processes and performance. The study concluded that trust may be best understood as a construct that influences group performance indirectly by channeling group members' energy toward reaching alternative goals.

Randall and Scott (1998) emphasized that job burnout lead to job dissatisfaction and poor performance. In order to examine this notion, the study was conducted among 248 nurses and 108 service employees. The study inter correlated the three measures in both these samples. It was found that burnout was seen in nurses more than in service employees, job dissatisfaction was more in service employees than in nurses and poor performance was seen in both samples.

Wright and Cropanzanol (1998) examined that emotional exhaustion lead to poor work performance. The study was conducted for one year study on 52 social welfare workers and examined the relationship of emotional exhaustion to job satisfaction, voluntary turnover and job performance. It used positive affectivity and negative affectivity as control variables. It was found that emotional exhaustion was unrelated to job satisfaction and was related to
performance and subsequent turnover. The study found that the relationship between emotional exhaustion and performance and also between emotional exhaustion and turnover remained significant above and beyond the effects of positive affectivity and negative affectivity.

Dawson and Reid (1997) emphasized that reduced sleep are related to accidents and poor work performance. It was observed that poor sleep lead to fatigue, decreased alertness and impaired performance in a variety of cognitive psychomotor tests. The study evaluated the performance impairment caused by fatigue due to alcohol intoxication, and show that moderate levels of fatigue produce higher levels of impairment than the proscribed level of alcohol intoxication.

The study was conducted among 40 subjects participated in two counterbalanced experiments. It was found that although there was performance at the start of the session, it decreased significantly in both conditions. The study also found there was 90% variance in the performance of individuals when they lacked in sleep but comparatively less, a 70% variance in performance when they consumed alcohol.

Baker, Olson, and Morisseau (1995) conducted a study with the operations, technical and maintenance personnel in the commercial nuclear power industry to examine fatigue-induced poor performance. The personnel worked for 12 hours and there was overtime duty too. The study evaluated the relationship between operations overtime and plant safety performance. It was found that although the 12 hours operator shift schedule was correlated with operator error, it was not significantly related to the other five safety indicators. The study concluded that at least one of the existing work practices must be checked in order to maintain safety first and good work performance later.
Keijsers, Schaufeli, Le Blanc, Zwerts, and Miranda (1995) explored 20 intensive care units and evaluated the relationship between three different performance measures and burnout. The study found that burnout such as emotional exhaustion and depersonalization proved to be significantly related to nurses' perceptions of performance as well as to objectively assessed unit performance. It was found that subjective performance measures related negatively to burnout levels of nurses, whereas an objective performance measure related positively to burnout. It subjectively assessed personal performance such as personal accomplishment is more strongly related to burnout than subjectively assessed unit performance. The study concluded that the relationship between both types of subjective performance and burnout reveals that nurses' perception of unit performance is indirectly related to burnout through perception of personal performance.

Parker and Kulik (1995) conducted a study among 73 registered nurses and examined how job stress and work support predict the experience of burnout and how burnout is related to absenteeism and job performance. The study used supervisor ratings of performance and employee records of absenteeism in addition to self-report measures and examined the extent to which burnout may mediate the relationships of job stress and social support with these performance indicators. It was found that levels of work support and job stress were both significant predictors of burnout and higher burnout levels were significantly associated with poorer self-rated and supervisor-rated job performance, there were more sick leaves and more reported absences for mental health reasons. It was seen that the level of burnout explained lack of social support, absences for mental health reasons and intentions to quit. The study concluded that that burnout not only had a negative impact on health but also lead to absenteeism and poor employee performance.
Rosa (1995) investigated that there has been a rise in accident rate and poor performance due to fatigue. Fatigue has been evaluated to be a potential factor affecting work performance and can be measured in cases of long work shifts. The study found that the loss of sleep increases sleepiness during work and hence showed poor performance in work-related tasks and laboratory-type tasks. Thus study concluded that extended work shift schedules should be instituted cautiously and evaluated carefully, with appropriate attention given to staffing levels, workload, job rotation, environmental exposures, emergency contingencies, rest breaks, commuting time and social or domestic responsibilities.

Brown and Peterson (1994) conducted a study on the sales force of a direct selling organization and examined the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The study found a direct positive relationship between job satisfaction and work performance. The study also argued that there are other factors that influence the work performance and need not necessarily be job satisfaction and vice versa, that job satisfaction results in many factors not only good performance.

Dew, Bromet, Schulberg, Parkinson and Curtis (1991) emphasized that mental health among depressed employees influence and affect the work performance. The study examined employees who seek help and who did not seek help during their episode and chose to consult one professional source rather than another. It was found that one-third of the sample sought professional help. It was observed that the respondents consulting mental health specialists were more clinically impaired, had poorer work performance and fewer psychosocial assets than both those consulting non psychiatric physicians and those seeking no help.
Garden (1991) conducted a study among 95 MBA students to examine the relationship between burnout and performance. The study was based on questionnaire containing items which measured their burnout and performance. It was found that there were positive correlations between measures of burnout and performance especially self esteem.

Locke and Latham (1990) devised a model called the high performance cycle. This model combined aspects of theories and proved to be crucial in determining work performance. They were goal setting, expectancy, social-cognitive, attribution, job characteristics, equity, and turnover-commitment. The model starts with organizational members being faced with high challenge or difficult goals. The study argued that if high challenge is accompanied by high expectancy of success or self-efficacy, high performance results, given that there is a commitment to the goals, feedback, adequate ability, and low situational constraints. It was found that high performance is achieved through four mechanisms, direction of attention and action, effort, persistence and the development of task strategies and plans. The high performance, if rewarding, leads to job satisfaction, which in turn facilitates commitment to the organization and its goals. The study concluded the model with recommendations for leadership, self-management, and education.

Krueger (1989) emphasized that the physiological and psychological stressors associated with sustained work, fatigue and sleep loss affect worker performance. The study found that there was poor work performance when there was long hours of work, fatigue and lack of sleep. It was found that sleep loss appears to result in reduced reaction time, decreased vigilance, perceptual and cognitive distortions and changes in affect. It also examined that sleep loss and workload interact with circadian rhythms in producing their effects. The study concluded that the
influences of these factors are a major source of stress in work situations and hence adverse impact on work performance.

Grandjean (1979) investigated that physical fatigue is due to overstressed muscles and mental fatigue is a sensation of weariness, both has an impact on work performance. The study was about a neurophysiological model of fatigue, involving an activating and inhibitory system. It was found that fatigue in industrial practice has clinical symptoms such as psychic instability, fits of depression and increased liability to illness. The study argued that the indicators of fatigue are work performance, subjective feelings of fatigue, electroencephalography, and flicker-fusion frequency, various psychomotor and mental tests.

Orpen (1979) examined the effect of job enrichment on work performance. The study was conducted among clerical employees of a federal agency who were randomly assigned to either an enriched or unenriched condition. The study made sure that in the enriched condition, a systematic attempt was made to increase the extent to which the jobs of the employees possessed each of the dimensions of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The employees performed their original duties and tasks in the unenriched condition. After a 6-month experimental period, the effect of enrichment was examined. It was found that employees in the enriched condition perceived their jobs as more enriched than before and caused significant increases in employee job satisfaction, job involvement and internal motivation and also led to significant decreases in absenteeism and turnover. However, enrichment had little impact on performance, whether assessed by superiors' ratings or by actual output. Thus the study concluded that enrichment lead to good attitudes not to good performance.
Mannheim and Cohen (1978) studied that work-role centrality could determine the work performance of the individual. The study examined seven occupational categories in order to investigate work-role centrality and its relationship with a number of variables related to the individual's background, orientation, role strains, job rewards, and career characteristics. It was found that occupations are found to vary in their work-role centrality and in the variables hypothesized related to it and the general validity confirmed with the findings. The study also found that job reward variables, especially intrinsic rewards, had the strongest weightage.

Ivancevich (1976) examined that goal setting promoted work performance. The study was conducted among 37 sales personnel were trained in participative goal setting, 41 were trained in assigned goal setting, and a third group of 44 served as a comparison unit. The study was based on collected data before training and after training at the 6th, 9th and 12th month. The study found that for at least 9 months both participative and assigned goal setting subjects were more effective in improving performance and satisfaction. Thus goal setting is considered to be a potential factor of performance.

Cameron (1973) evaluated fatigue as a generalized response to stress. The study argued by using the time scale of fatigue studies it is understood that over a period of time like days, weeks and months, the cumulative effects result in disturbed sleep habits. The study explained that fatigue effects are closely related to the effects of sleep deprivation. The importance of such long term effects suggested that the time required for recovery may be a useful method of quantifying severity of fatigue.

Porter and Steers (1973) emphasized that turnover and absenteeism in work situations lead to poor work performance. The study analyzed various factors in work situations and found four
categories of withdrawal behavior namely organization-wide factors, immediate work environment factors, job-related factors, and personal factors. It was found that many variables in each of the four categories were found to be related fairly consistently to one or both forms of withdrawal.

From the above section it is evident from each study, the influence of the factors on the performance of the employee. The authors of the studies have examined through samples to investigate the relationship with various factors and work performance. Every factor explains how it increases or decreases work performance. At times an interplay of two or more factors result in the performance level. Although it is a broad spectrum of factors affecting the work performance they are all inter related and intervene at various points. These factors throw light on the problem areas and provide the correct implications for further study in this area. Thus work performance can be enhanced accordingly.

2.4.1 General Health and Work Performance

The general health and wellbeing of an employee will most certainly have an effect on their performance at work. The physical and mental health of the employees determines how they understand their work, how they relate with other workers, how they accept training and finally how they perform their work roles. The following studies indicate the powerful interplay of the general health of employees and work performance.

Collins (2005) used the Stanford Presenteeism Scale to estimate total costs for chronic health conditions for which purpose information was collected from workers at five locations on work impairment and absenteeism. The study combined the data with employee demographics, medical and pharmaceutical claims, smoking status, biometric health risk factors, payroll
records, and job type. It was found that almost 65% of respondents reported having one or more of the surveyed chronic conditions. Also the total cost of chronic conditions was estimated to be 10.7% of the total labor costs and 6.8% was attributable to work impairment alone. Thus the cost associated with performance based work loss or presenteeism greatly exceeded the combined costs of absenteeism and medical treatment combined. This depicted the relationship between general health and work performance.

Fritz and Sonnentag (2005) evaluated the extent to which experiences during the weekend contribute to health and job performance after the weekend. The study was based on 87 emergency service workers and longitudinal data on three measurement occasions showed that non work hassles, absence of positive work reflection and low social activity during the weekend predicted burnout and poor general well-being after the weekend. The study concluded that the findings revealed the need for individual and organizational optimization of recovery processes.

Erickson, Thomas, Blitz and Pontius (2004) conducted a study based on the effects of smoking cessation on health-related quality of life and perceived work performance. The study gave the Smoking Cessation Quality of Life Questionnaire and the Work Performance Scale to their subjects prior to quit date and a week after they quit. It was found that smokers with higher addiction have lower health-related quality of life when they begin their cessation attempt, while smokers with lower addiction have greater change in health-related quality of life. This health-related quality of life had an adverse effect on their work performance in accordance to their level of addiction.

Bond and Bunce (2003) examined the relationship between mental health, job satisfaction, and performance in the work domain. The study was based on the hypothesis that acceptance would
predict these three outcomes, a year later in a sample of 412 customer service center workers. It was found that acceptance predicted mental health and an objective measure of performance over and above job control, negative affectivity, and locus of control. It was noticed that when people had higher levels of acceptance the beneficial effects of job control was greater.

Danna and Griffin (1999) reviewed that health and well-being in the workplace have close association. The study discussed the primary factors associated with health and well-being. It emphasized that the low levels of health and well-being lead to diminished work performance. The study concluded by investigating on the ways to improve work performance.

Sparks, Cooper, Fried, and Shirom (1997) conducted a meta-analysis on 21 study samples explaining the relationship between working hours and health. The study found that there were significant positive mean correlations between overall health symptoms, physiological and psychological health symptoms and hours of work. Further qualitative analysis of 12 other studies supported these findings of a positive relationship between hours of work and ill-health. The study discussed different factors which may obscure the relationship between health and hours of work. Thus the study concluded by stating that the results from meta-analyses and qualitative analysis explained the relationship between hours of work and ill-health.

Spurgeon and Harrington (1997) reviewed that there is a relationship between long working hours and consequent sleep loss often experienced by junior hospital doctors. The study examined the pressure for the demanding work schedules common in many hospitals. It studied two areas namely, the potential effects on the doctors work performance and the effects on their health and also assessed how sleep loss can affect the work performance.
Barling and Boswell (1995) conducted a study among 92 males and 69 females using a model, evaluated the achievement-strivings and impatience–irritability dimensions of Type A behavior which predict work performance directly or indirectly. The study expressed that achievement strivings predict work performance directly and through their positive effects on concentration whereas impatience–irritability is predicted to negatively influence health; and any health problems are predicted to negatively influence concentration. The study collected both self- and supervisor ratings of work performance were obtained. Path analyses provided strong support for the proposed model and emphasized on the relationship.

Wright, Bonet, and Sweeney (1993) evaluated a two-year longitudinal field study and supported the hypothesized positive relationship between mental health and the subsequent work performance. It was found that the relative and absolute stability analyses established mental health as a consistent and stable trait. The study concluded by discussing the importance of organizational behaviors.

Barling and Charbonneau (1992) conducted a study among 113 university students to evaluate the two dimensions of type A behavior, namely Impatience—Irritability and Achievement - Striving and explain that they differentially predict health and performance. The students provided their grade point average and completed questionnaires to measure Impatience—Irritability and Achievement - Striving and several health measures. They were also asked to perform a five-minute proof-reading task which yielded a behavioral measure of attention and concentration. The study found that there were headaches and sleep habits as predicted, but neither respiratory infections nor digestive problems were seen. Their scores revealed the impact on work performance due to their health condition.
Bluen, Barling, and Burns (1990) examined whether Achievement Strivings and Impatience-Irritability differentially predict work performance, work attitudes, and depression in a sample of 117 life insurance salespersons. The study found that when the biographical variables were controlled, Impatience-Irritability and Achievement Strivings predicted job satisfaction but was not related to depression. When the biographical variables were partialled, Impatience-Irritability and Achievement Strivings were related to depression but not with others.

Ivancevich (1986) conducted a study among 185 hourly employees and examined the relationship of life events, daily hassles and daily uplifts to general health symptoms, job performance, and absenteeism. The study found that hassle frequency and intensity was responsible for the general health symptoms. This had a significant impact on job performance and absenteeism. Thus the study revealed the association between general health symptoms, performance and absenteeism.

Banks (1980) analysed by using the GHQ-12 to examine the mental health of 659 employees in an engineering firm, 647 recent school-leavers and 92 unemployed men. The study found that the scores on GHQ-12 were found to be much higher which meant a lower mental health, for those who were unemployed, higher for women than for men in one sample and unrelated to age, job level and marital status.

Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979) assessed eight scales relating to the quality of working life on male manual workers. The scales covered factors like work involvement, intrinsic job motivation, higher order need strength, perceived intrinsic job characteristics, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, happiness and self-rated anxiety. It also identified components of job satisfaction.
and life satisfaction. The study proved that the physical and mental state of the workers affected the job satisfaction and job performance.

It is understood from the above studies that it is important to enhance the levels of physical and mental health of the employees if good performance is needed. Chronic health conditions, depression, lack of sleep, disturbed mind, physical ailments etc, will demolish the employees system to an extent where functioning deteriorates and performance gets affected. It is important to find ways of promoting the health of the employees in order to achieve safety first and good work performance.

2.4.2 Emotional Intelligence and Work Performance

There are lot of importance is given on goals, success and physical capacity of workers to attain it, but little was shown to reflect the depth of emotional aspect in an organizations. However, over the years many studies have resulted in what is generated today; a term called ‘emotional intelligence’ has evolved. Apart from believing intellectual intelligence is important, researchers have started to argue that emotional intelligence too is equally important, especially in a work setting. The following studies indicate the influence and relation of emotional intelligence on work performance.

Rode (2007) conducted a study among business undergraduates to examine the direct and moderated effects of an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence. The study observed that emotional intelligence explained unique incremental variance in performance ratings on only one of two measures of interpersonal effectiveness which was public speaking effectiveness. Whereas the interaction of emotional intelligence with conscientiousness explained unique
incremental variance both in public speaking and group behavior effectiveness, as well as academic performance. The study concluded that the effects of emotional intelligence on performance are more indirect than direct in nature.

Suliman and Al-Shaikh (2007) examined 500 employees from 19 organizations to explore the role of emotional intelligence in affecting work outcomes. The study found that there were significant differences between employees' perceptions of emotional intelligence, conflict and readiness to create and innovate. The study concluded that emotional intelligence plays a vital role in managing climate and conflict which will have an impact on work performance in the long run.

Carmeli and Josman (2006) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and two aspects of work outcomes. They are task performance and two forms of organizational citizenship behaviors, altruism and compliance. The emotional intelligence was assessed by Schutte et al’s (1998) self-report measure of emotional intelligence, whereas work outcomes were assessed by the employees' supervisors. It was found that there were positive relationships between emotional intelligence and employees' work outcomes.

Côté and Miners (2006) developed and tested a model that examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance which emphasized that job performance becomes more positive as cognitive intelligence decreases. The employees completed tests of emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence; their task performance and organizational citizenship behavior were assessed by their supervisors. The study found that the model was supported for
task performance and organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization, but not for
organizational citizenship behavior directed at individuals.

Matthews (2006) evaluated 200 participants and compared emotional intelligence with the
personality factors of the Five Factor Model (FFM) as predictors of task-induced stress
responses. The participants were assigned to one of four task conditions, three of which were
designed to be stressful. The study found that low emotional intelligence was related to worry
states and avoidance coping, even with the Five Factor Model statistically controlled and
emotional intelligence was not specifically related to task-induced changes in stress state.

Reuven, Handley, and Fund (2006) examined two studies, with air force and defense forces to
demonstrate that emotional intelligence has an impact on performance. The study explained why
some people function better than others, assumed positions of leadership and even volunteered
for highly stressful and potentially dangerous tasks at times, whereas others were unable to
emotionally and socially deal with daily demands in a more intelligent and effective manner.

Rojell, Pettijohn, and Parker (2006) conducted a study among sales representatives to examine
the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance. The study found that the
constructs of emotional intelligence and dispositional affectivity were positively related to sales
force performance. The study concluded that sales performance is significantly related to
emotional intelligence.

Bond and Donaldso-feilder (2004) analyzed 290 workers and compared psychological
acceptance and emotional intelligence in terms of their ability to predict various well-being
outcomes such as general mental health, physical well-being and job satisfaction. It was found that emotional intelligence did not significantly predict any of the well-being outcomes, after accounting for acceptance and job control, whereas psychological acceptance predicted general mental health and physical well-being but not job satisfaction and job control was associated only with job satisfaction.

Douglas and Ferris (2004) investigated the relationship between conscientiousness and performance and examined if it was stronger for individuals who are high on emotional intelligence. The study found that the relationship between conscientiousness and work performance is positive for individuals high in emotional intelligence through the hierarchical moderated regression analyses. It was also seen that those low in emotional intelligence increases in conscientiousness were associated with decreases in performance.

Higgs (2004) examined 289 call centre agents to explore the relationship between the emotional intelligence and their performance using the EIQ measure developed by the authors. It was found that there was a strong relationship between overall emotional intelligence and individual performance as well as several emotional intelligence elements from the model and performance and also a relationship between age and performance were noticed.

Petrides, Frederickson, and Furnham (2004) conducted a study among 650 students in the age group of 16 years in order to examine the role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and in deviant behavior at school. The study found that trait emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between cognitive ability and academic performance. The students with high trait emotional intelligence scores were less likely to have had unauthorized absences and less likely to have been excluded from school and the trait emotional intelligence effects
stayed even after personality variance was controlled. The study concluded that the various abilities of trait emotional intelligence are implicated in academic performance and deviant behavior, with effects that are particularly relevant to vulnerable or disadvantaged adolescents.

McQueen (2004) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional labour, in order to measure the role of emotional intelligence in nursing. The study noticed that although emotional labour is important in establishing therapeutic nurse–patient relationships but carried the risk of ‘burnout’ if prolonged or intense. The study found that demands of nursing draw on the skills of emotional intelligence to meet the needs of direct patient care and co-operative negotiations with the multidisciplinary team. Therefore there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional labour which will lead to better nurse-patient relationship and better performance.

Ashkanasy and Dasborough (2003) examined a classroom study in which emotion concepts were incorporated into an undergraduate leadership course and examined the importance of emotional awareness and emotional intelligence in organizations. The students completed self-report and ability tests of emotional intelligence and their results were compared with students' interest in emotions and their performance in the course assessment. The study found that interest in and knowledge of emotional intelligence predicted team performance, whereas individual performance was related to emotional intelligence.

Carmeli (2003) observed that emotional intelligence played a significant role in the success of senior managers in the workplace. The study was examined the extent to which senior managers with a high emotional intelligence employed in public sector organizations develop positive work attitudes, behavior and outcomes. The study found that emotional intelligence augmented
positive work attitudes, altruistic behavior and work outcomes, and moderated the effect of work-family conflict on career commitment but not the effect on job satisfaction.

Rapisarda (2002) argued that the degree of emotional competence demonstrated by members of a team will determine whether member interactions build cohesiveness and high performance. The study examined the relationship between the average score of team members on thirteen emotional intelligence competencies, and ratings of team cohesiveness and performance in 18 teams in an Executive MBA program. The study found that emotional intelligence competencies of influence, empathy, and achievement orientation were positively related to student and faculty ratings of team cohesiveness. It was also seen that empathy was positively related to student and faculty ratings of team performance and achievement orientation was positively related to student ratings of team performance.

Rozell, Pettijohn, and Parker (2002) investigated 295 undergraduate business majors’ students and measured their emotional intelligence using a comprehensive scale. It was found that students with accounting majors rated lower on emotional intelligence as compared to other majors. It also found that higher emotional intelligence scores were associated with involvement in sports organizations. It was also found that international students rated lower on the emotional intelligence when compared to domestic students. The study concluded that the students with higher emotional intelligence showed better performance than others.

Slaski and Cartwright (2002) conducted a study among 224 individuals in an organization in order to examine the relationship between a measure of emotional intelligence, subjective stress, distress, general health, morale, quality of working life and management performance. The study found significant correlations which showed that managers who scored higher in emotional
intelligence suffered less subjective stress, experienced better health and well-being and demonstrated better management performance.

Tischler, Biberman, and McKeage (2002) reviewed that there was a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace success and also it was seen that spirituality is related to workplace performance or effectiveness. The study explored the impacts of emotional intelligence and spirituality on workplace effectiveness. Thus it is concluded that emotional intelligence has positive influence on work place and the performance.

Palmer, Walls, Burgess, and Stough (2001) examined 43 participants employed in management roles using the Trait Meta Mood Scale and explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership. The study identified the effective leaders as those who displayed a transformational rather than transactional leadership style which was measured by the multifactor leadership questionnaire. The study found that emotional intelligence correlated with several components of transformational leadership which shows that it is a component of effective leadership. It also shows how emotional intelligence reflected on effective leaders monitor and responds to subordinates and makes them feel at work. This would have a positive influence on the work performance.

Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) examined emotional intelligence using competency-based and personality factor scales. The study investigated the reliability and construct and predictive validity of three scales through an emotional intelligence scale based on 16 relevant competencies showed highly promising reliability and validity. It was found that two other competency-based scales namely intellectual intelligence and managerial intelligence both predicted organizational advancement. The study found that the three scales had high validity
and emotional intelligence constructs can be measured more effectively by performance analysis than the classic paper and pencil tests. It was also found that a combination of emotional intelligence and intellectual intelligence are predictors of good performance.

Fox and Spector (2000) conducted a study among 116 undergraduates in a simulated job selection experience in order to examine the relationship between three components of emotional intelligence namely, empathy, self-regulation of mood, self-presentation and also affective traits which had positive and negative affectivity. The participants underwent paper and pencil tests and a videotaped structured interview. The study found that some of the affect and ability measures were related to interview outcomes, both directly and mediated by the interviewer's affective response such as perceived similarity and liking.

Grandey (2000) emphasized that emotional labor addressed the stress of managing emotions when the work role demands that certain expressions is shown to customers. The study reviewed and compared the perspectives of emotional labor, in order to acknowledge emotional labor that integrates these perspectives, to discuss emotion regulation as a guiding theory for understanding the mechanisms of emotional labor, and to present a model of emotional labor that includes individual differences such as emotional intelligence and organizational factors such as supervisor support. The study proved that emotional labor closely related with emotional intelligence to promote organizational performance.

Reuven and Parker (2000) investigated that emotional intelligence could be improved through effective programs including management training interventions, communication and empathy training with physicians, teaching policy to handle conflict, stress management training, self-management training, training for unemployed workers, and personnel selecting based on
emotional intelligence competencies. The study discussed practice guidelines for emotional intelligence training and development. They are categorized into three phases of change. They are preparation for change, doing the work of change and encouraging, maintaining and evaluating change. This capacity and knowledge to handle change will have an impact on the work performance.

Abraham (1999) emphasized the role of emotional intelligence in workplace postulated nine propositions. The study theorized emotional intelligence to have a positive effect on the organizational outcomes of work-group cohesion, congruence between self- and supervisor appraisals of performance, employee performance, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship. Further the study proposed that emotional intelligence prevented emotional dissonance, ethical role conflict and job insecurity from affecting organizational commitment. The most beneficial effects of emotional intelligence may occur in environments in which there is a high degree of job control, for all these reasons emotional intelligence increases work performance.

Dulewicz and Higgs (1999) examined 201 managers to measure emotional intelligence using the 16PF, Belbin team roles, Myers-Briggs type inventory and Type A behavior. The study defined the seven elements in detail, which are self-awareness, influence, decisive, interpersonal sensitivity, motivation, integrity and resilience. It concluded that emotional intelligence plays an important role in organizational culture and leadership.

Sosik and Megerian (1999) examined whether self-awareness of managers would moderate relationships between the aspects of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership
behavior and the transformational leadership behavior and managerial performance. The study was conducted among 63 managers who responded about their emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behavior; 192 subordinates who rated their manager’s transformational leadership behavior and performance outcomes and 63 superiors of focal managers who rated managerial performance. The study found that correlations between emotional intelligence aspects, leader behavior and performance varied as a function of self-awareness of managers.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) reviewed the adaptive versus maladaptive qualities of emotion, explored intelligence and social intelligence to examine the place of emotion in traditional intelligence conceptions. The study examined the emotion-related skills and the components of emotional intelligence and concluded by emphasizing the role of emotional intelligence in mental health.

The above studies clearly indicate the growth and contribution of individuals with high emotional intelligence have on work performance. Emotional intelligence encompasses several factors which make up the employee in becoming self-aware, decisive, empathetic, motivated and resilient individuals. The emotional intelligence shapes an employee in becoming a lot more wholesome, this itself can positively affect work performance.

2.4.3 Spiritual Intelligence and Work Performance

Emotional intelligence has shaped an employee and contributes to a more wholesome being and there could be something else which lacks in an individual to give in that extra bit. Walking
that extra mile becomes easy with ‘spiritual intelligence’. Contrary to the thought that, ‘what can spirituality do in a work place’, the following studies enlighten on how employees with a high spiritual intelligence can relate better, are capable of removing obstacles and simply perceiving people and things.

Attri (2011) postulated that spirituality is the basic feeling of being connected with one's complete self, others and the entire universe. The study reported on the importance of practicing spirituality at workplace to progress from cognitive intelligence to emotional intelligence and ultimately to spiritual intelligence which acts as a catalyst for inspirational leadership and management excellence. The study points out that spirituality should not be treated as a jargon but should be included in the workplace. This will increase the productivity of each individual and organization in totality and also in the changing business scenario there is a need to integrate spirituality into management. The study emphasizes that no organization can survive for long without spirituality and soul. The study also argued that the ways of managing spirituality without separating it from the other elements of management need to be understood and implemented for the holistic development of individuals and organization.

Ayranci (2011) conducted a study among managers to examine their spiritual and emotional intelligences on their organizations’ financial performance by using Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i: S) and the Integrated Spiritual Intelligence Scale (ISIS). It was found that some relationships existed among factors related to emotional and spiritual intelligences but that there was not a mixture of these two intelligences which means that there was not a common factor that included some of the items of these two forms of intelligence together. The study concluded that each of spiritual intelligence factors affected financial performance very weakly, whereas
most factors of emotional intelligence did not have any statistically significant effect on the performance.

Kumar and Pragadeeswaran (2011) examined executives with occupations related stress using spiritual quotient. The study measured the perceived status of occupational stress and spiritual quotient based on the responses from employees in executive cadres in NLC. It was found that occupational stress had less influenced among executives and the spiritual quotient among the executives with low, moderate and high level occupational stress; it was evident that the executives with low stress level tend to have high spiritual quotient level. It was also seen that spiritual quotient tends to decline significantly when there was an increase in the level of stress among executives. The study concluded that there was a negative relationship between spiritual quotient and occupational stress among executives at their workplace.

Amram, Luskin, Posner, and Shapiro (2010) conducted a study among 42 company CEOs and 210 of their staff members to investigate the contribution of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence to leadership effectiveness. The study made each participant provide ratings on the CEO’s personality, emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence. Leadership effectiveness was measured by the CEO’s staffs’ composite score of commitment, satisfaction, morale, productivity, and their likings. It was found that the CEOs, self-reported spiritual intelligence significantly correlated with leadership effectiveness, but not their self-reported emotional intelligence. The study also noticed that the staff ratings of CEO’s emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence significantly correlated with leadership effectiveness and remained significant after controlling for other variables. Finally it was concluded that emotional
intelligence and spiritual intelligence are distinct constructs and each distinctly contributed to leadership effectiveness.

Hanafi (2010) examined the effect of spiritual intelligence on the performance of auditors with emotional intelligence as a mediator variable. The study had auditor performance as dependent variable and the independent variable was spiritual intelligence. It was found that spiritual intelligence has positively influenced performance with emotional intelligence as the mediator variable. Thus there is an association between the three variables namely spiritual intelligence, emotional intelligence and performance.

Raj (2010) selected five hundred prisoners randomly from five prisons in order to explain the extent to which intelligent quotient, emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence would jointly and relatively predict prison-adjustment. The participants were 458 males and 42 females. It was found that there was a significant positive correlation between the independent variables and prison adjustment with highest in emotional intelligence, followed by spiritual intelligence and lastly, intelligent quotient. The three independent variables also contributed a total of 93.2% to prison adjustment. It was concluded that emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence skills are far more important than intelligent quotient. The study emphasized that more importance should be given for students and people demonstrating high level of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence instead of just academic brilliance.

Vasconcelos (2010) addressed the concept of spirituality in organizations and managerial issues through the Spiritist Doctrine. The study postulated that Spiritist Doctrine contributed to work
settings that differ from the traditional religion approaches and discussed its implications to managers’ spiritual development. Spiritist Doctrine tenets provided important warnings that encompass peoples work lives. The study emphasized that corporate life coupled with some factors, build and enhanced one’s spiritual progress, the potential spiritual rewards derived from these factors, and the loci where the rewards are enjoyed.

Howard, Guramatunhu-Mudiwa, and White (2009) investigated on the relationship between spiritual intelligence and transformational leadership so that spiritual intelligence shall have its place in education. The study defined spiritual intelligence as an interconnected configuration of affective orientations intimately linked to create meaning through connecting ideas, events and persons rather than to a specific religious tradition or orientation. The study found that by exploring the meaning of transformational leadership in education in K-12 settings and it provided the basis for the development of a synthesis of two concepts that empower the dispositions of leadership impacting school culture.

Indradi and Tintri (2009) measured the influence of emotional and spiritual intelligence on the performance of auditors in the Public Accounting Office by using a questionnaire adopted from Cooper and Sawaf (1998) for emotional intelligence and the instrument to measure spiritual intelligence was the one adopted from Khavari (2000). The study found that either both or the emotional and spiritual intelligence of auditors significantly influence their performance. However, the spiritual intelligence gives more contribution and is more effective on the performance of auditors compared to the emotional intelligence. Further more the result of analysis also shows a high significant influence in encouraging the optimal performance of auditors. Thus, approaches utilizing the emotional and spiritual intelligence are much more beneficial than intellectual intelligence.
Martin and Hafer (2009) conducted a study among a large sample of junior-level and senior-level business students using Tischler, Biberman and McKeage’s proposed five models which explained the relationship between emotional intelligence, spiritual intelligence, and performance. Emotional intelligence was measured using the 16-item Wong Law Emotional Intelligence Survey, spiritual intelligence was measured with a modified version of Ashmos and Duchon’s survey and the performance was the student’s cumulative grade point average. The study found that there was a positive relationship among emotional intelligence, spiritual intelligence and performance.

Nel (2008) investigated that the integration of spirituality into the workplace is leading to a change in the lives of business leaders and employees. The study found that spirituality in the workplace is not only having an effect on a personal level through dimensions such as improved well-being, greater connectedness, self-awareness and wholeness, but also improving organizational performance and giving organizations a competitive edge. The study illustrated the relationship between Spiritual Leadership and positive Organizational Performance. It was observed that employees are coming to work for more than just economic prosperity; they are searching for meaning in their work and spiritual leaders need to transform business to enhance not only the well-being of employees and help them with their search for meaning, but also increase their performance excellence. The study emphasized that one of the most important new strategic drives for leaders is to be spiritual leaders and therefore create a place of work which provides both a challenging work environment and a work environment which provides a sense of meaning for employees. Thus it was concluded that spiritual leadership leads to the transformation of the workplace into an environment which incorporates productivity, wholeness, meaning, creativity and connectedness.
Haobai, Pingping, and Hui (2007) examined Ph. D candidates who play important role in university research work in order to examine that research needs more personal spiritual ability not material ability than physical work. The study constructed the character dimensions of spiritual quotient and designs the research performance evaluation system of Ph. D candidates. The study explored the impact of spiritual quotient on research performance through case interviews and statistical analysis and found that except spontaneity, the other 11 dimensions of spiritual quotient all had positive relationship with research performance which includes task performance and contextual performance.

George (2006) explained why spiritual intelligence can make a difference to the way in which people manage work and lead others in the workplace. The study argued that although many people think there is nothing spiritual about work and the workplace, there are many areas of working life in which spiritual intelligence can be applied. The study emphasized on the importance of spiritual intelligence in personal security. This will in turn affect areas of personal effectiveness, areas of inter-personal understanding and relationships and finally being capable of managing change and removing the roadblocks. This is how the work performance of the employee can to a large extent stays unadhered by any kind of work hazard.

Marques (2006) described ways in which non-managerial workers could contribute toward establishing spirituality at work. The study conducted two qualitative studies by defining the phenomenon examining internal, integrated and external drivers and presentation of the ripple effect. The study found that spirituality at work is an inside-out approach; workers at different levels can help establish spirit at work and argued that some workplaces are just not susceptible toward a spiritual mindset.
Cowan (2005) evaluated dimensions of spiritual intelligence in leadership contexts by using Emmons' (1999) framework of core components of spiritual intelligence. The study translated Emmons’ components into a conceptual framework of leadership competencies. It argued that the foundation employed is derived from integrative and dynamic perspectives, which reflect linear patterns of human and organizational evolution and interdependent relationships that position spiritual potential amid physical, emotional, and mental potentialities. It was found that these perspectives imbibed spiritual intelligence in organizationally relevant ways thereby making the relationship between organizations and spiritual intelligence and that spirituality is beginning to make to leadership and leadership education.

Kanjorski and Skrypnek (2004) conducted a study an exploratory, qualitative study on 14 professionals, who not only experienced spirit at work, but whose work also involved researching or promoting spirit at work, participated through face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, or written surveys. The study asked the participants about what is spirit at work and describes a personal experience of spirit at work. The subjects found it very easy to recall and describe such an experience; they gave rich descriptions of their personal experiences of spirit at work. The study found that the participant’s descriptions revealed that spirit at work is a distinct state that has physical, affective, cognitive, interpersonal, spiritual and mystical dimensions. The study concluded that this state involves physiological arousal, positive effect, a belief that one's work makes a contribution, a sense of connection to others and common purpose, a sense of connection to something larger than self, and a sense of perfection and transcendence.

Klenke (2003) emphasized that leadership scholars are confronted with the challenges of
integrating spirituality into existing theories of leadership and developing new models that incorporate the leader's spiritual self and ontological power. The study investigated that these challenges require multidisciplinary research in both quantitative and qualitative traditions and seek the collaborated effort of leadership scholars, practitioners and educators to integrate spiritual perspectives into leadership education, practice, and research.

The above studies depict the concept, importance and ways in which spiritual intelligence can make life worth living and organizations a better place. It can, not only promote us to perform better but gives us a feeling of completeness. Even though spiritual intelligence is a rare quality, it can be triggered and chiseled in an employee. It becomes imperative for us to create and enhance such measures in not just an organization but in our lives as well.

2.5 INTERVENTIONS ON PERFORMANCE AND PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Over the years there have been several studies which attempt to better the work performance and the performance appraisals of the employees in the organizations. There are many psychological interventions meant for an organizational purpose. The following section gives a glimpse of the studies pertaining to the same and also reflects the author’s area of intervention.

Richardson and Rothstein (2008) conducted a meta-analysis to determine the effectiveness of stress management interventions in occupational settings for which thirty-six experimental studies were included, representing 55 interventions. The total sample size was 2,847. The study found that intervention type played a moderating role. Cognitive-behavioral programs consistently produced larger effects than other types of interventions, but if additional treatment components were added the effect was reduced. Also, relaxation interventions were most
frequently used and organizational interventions continued to be scarce. The study found that effects were based mainly on psychological outcome variables, as opposed to physiological or organizational measures. The examination of additional moderators such as treatment length, outcome variable and occupation did not reveal significant variations in effect size by intervention type.

Pahor (2006) assessed the effect of a comprehensive physical activity intervention on the Short Physical Performance Battery and other physical performance measures. The study was conducted on 424 sedentary persons at risk for disability, aged 70-89 years who were randomized to a moderate-intensity physical activity intervention or a successful aging health education intervention and were followed for an average of 1.2 years. It was found that the 400-meter walking speed was significantly improved in the physical activity group and they had a lower incidence of major mobility disability defined as incapacity to complete a 400-meter walk. The study concluded that a structured physical activity intervention improved the SPPB score and other measures of physical performance. An intervention that improves the Short Physical Performance Battery performance may also offer benefit on more distal health outcomes, such as mobility disability.

Youssef and Luthans (2006) conducted two studies among 1032 and 232 employees respectively on the positive organizational behavior. The study tested the hypotheses that the selected positive psychological resource capacities of hope, optimism and resilience have on desired work-related employee outcomes. These outcomes included performance which was self-reported in Study 1 and organizational performance appraisals in Study 2, job satisfaction, work happiness and organizational commitment. The study found that employees’ positive
psychological resource capacities related and contributed unique variance to the outcomes. In contrary the authors found hope, optimism and resilience, contributed to the various outcomes.

Glisson and Schoenwald (2005) emphasized on the organizational and community intervention for the implementation of effective mental health treatments in usual community practice settings. The study described an organizational and community intervention model named ARC for Availability, Responsiveness and Continuity, that was designed to support the improvement of social and mental health services for children. The ARC model incorporates intervention components from organizational development; inter organizational domain development, the diffusion of innovation and technology transfer that target social, strategic, and technological factors in effective children's services.

Heslin, Latham, and VandeWalle (2005) examined through four studies whether implicit person theory regarding the malleability of personal attributes affected managers' acknowledgment of change in employee behavior. The study found that the extent to which managers held an incremental implicit person theory was positively related to their recognition of both good referring Study 1 and poor referring Study 2 performance, relative to the employee behavior they initially observed. Incremental theorists' judgments were not anchored by their prior impressions of Study 3. In the fourth study, entity theorists who were randomly assigned to a self-persuasion training condition developed a significantly more incremental implicit person theory. This change was maintained over a 6-week period and led to greater acknowledgment of an improvement in employee performance than was exhibited by entity theorists in the placebo control group.
Martin, Jones, and Callan (2005) emphasized that interventions focusing on the psychological climate variables can produce higher productivity at work. For this purpose a theoretical model of employee adjustment during organizational change based on Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) cognitive-phenomenological was used. The model hypothesized that psychological climate variables would act as coping resources and predict improved adjustment during change. The two variations of this model were tested on 779 public hospital employees and 877 public sector employees. The study found that employees whose perceptions of the organization and environment in which they were working—that is, psychological climate were more positive, and likely to appraise change favorably and report better adjustment in terms of higher job satisfaction, psychological well-being, organizational commitment, lower absenteeism and turnover intentions.

Reiber and McLaughlin (2004) emphasised that behaviour management techniques are essential components of and treatment method for students with ADHD. The study observed that nearly all educators employ some form of behavioral modification techniques in their classroom. The study explored a variety of classroom interventions to assist teachers to work successfully with children with ADHD namely; classroom structure, teaching modifications, peer interventions, token economies and self-management. It presented these interventions on a continuum from the least basic modifications needed in the classroom to those in which more time and resources are involved. The study found evidence for all the strategies and included an interview of a general education instructor and a review of the strategies to employ in his classroom.

O'Driscoll, et al. (2003) designed interventions to ameliorate the negative impact of work-family conflict on managerial well-being. The study was conducted among 355 managerial personnel to
measure the organizational family-responsive policies, perceptions of the organization as family supportive and supervisor support as issues that lead to conflict between paid employment and family roles. It was found that although work-family conflict and psychological strain were strongly linked, the availability of organizational policies had no significant association with levels of conflict or strain, whereas policy usage was related only to work-to-family interference and not to family-to-work interference. In contrast the perceptions of the organization as family supportive and supervisor support for work-family balance displayed significant relationships with key variables.

Munz, Kohler, and Greenberg (2001) used a stress management program consisting of self-management training and a stressor reduction process and evaluated in a pre-post, treatment-control design in four comparable facilities. The study found that over a 3-month period those individuals attending self-management training improved on emotional well-being measures. The work-units' productivity increased and absenteeism decreased over the same period. The study proved that combining self-management training and stressor reduction to produce positive individual and organizational outcomes was ideal.

Mikkelsen and Saksvik (1999) investigated that occupational stress intervention models resulted in increased employee control and participation and achieved both "flexible organization" and improvements in health. The study evaluated the impact of a participatory organizational intervention on job stress and job characteristics. The underlying dynamics of the intervention were to manipulate employees learning opportunity and decision authority so as to improve work environment and health. Work groups, conducted diagnosis, action planning and action taking. Work conditions deteriorated during the observation period in the control groups. In one of the
intervention groups, this negative trend was reduced by the intervention. The study argued that lack of positive results in the other intervention group may have been due to organizational restructuring and turbulence.

Parker (1998) developed a new scale of Role breadth self-efficacy which measured employees' perceived capability of carrying out a broader and more proactive set of work tasks that extend beyond prescribed technical requirements. The study was conducted among 580 employees and the work design variables were job enrichment, job enlargement and membership of improvement groups which were the key organizational predictors of Role breadth self-efficacy. The study’s repeated investigation on 622 employees and extended by examining change over time for another 459 employees. It was found that increased job enrichment and increased quality of communication predicted the development of greater self-efficacy.

Kluger and DeNisi (1996) conducted a meta-analysis on 607 effect sizes and 23,663 observations to evaluate feedback interventions. It was found that feedback interventions improved performance on an average but that over one-third of the feedback interventions decreased performance. The study proposed a preliminary feedback interventions theory (FIT) and tested it with moderator analyses. It was found that feedback interventions effectiveness decreases as attention moves up the hierarchy closer to the self and away from the task.

Woehr and Huffcutt (1994) reviewed rater training as a means of improving performance ratings. The study provided integration and a quantitative review of the rater training. The study presented a framework for the evaluation of rater training in terms of four rating training strategies namely, rater error training, performance dimension training, frame-of-reference training and behavioral observation training and four dependent measures namely, halo,
leniency, rating accuracy and observational accuracy. The study concluded a meta-analytic review to assess the effectiveness of the rater training strategies across the four dependent measures.

Pasmore and Fagans (1992) investigated that Organization Development interventions have been successful. The study emphasized that more attention to combining individual and organization development efforts should be given. The study explored the effects of mediating variables on participation outcomes. The study recommended the concept of organizational citizenship as a more inclusive framework for research and practice concerning participation in organization development activities and interventions.

Neuman, Edwards, and Raju (1989) conducted a meta-analysis based on the effects from 126 studies that employed organizational development interventions to modify satisfaction and other attitudes. Raju and Burkes's (1983) Taylor series approximation 1 (TSA 1) validity generalization procedure was used to conduct the meta-analysis. It was found that multi-faceted interventions were more effective in modifying satisfaction and attitudes than were organizational development interventions that used a single human-processes or techno structural technique. The study found that team building and lab training were the most effective means of changing satisfaction and other attitudes and also organizational development affected attitudes more than satisfaction.

Pritchard, Jones, Roth, Stuebing, and Ekeberg (1988) explored the Productivity Measurement and Enhancement System, and used measures from this approach as a foundation for group-based feedback, goal setting and incentives. The experimental design consisted of a baseline period of 8 to 9 months, followed by a 5-month period of feedback based on the Productivity
Measurement and Enhancement System. The study added goal setting to feedback for 5 months and later incentives in the form of time off from work were added to feedback and goal setting for another 5 months. The study found that group-level feedback increased productivity an average of 50% over baseline, group goal setting increased productivity 75% over baseline, and group incentives increased productivity 76% over baseline. The control group data showed no or only a slight increase in productivity over the same period and level of personnel either stayed the same or decreased. The study found that work attitudes such as job satisfaction, turnover intentions and morale were better after interventions.

Guzzo, Jette, and Katzell (1985) conducted a meta-analysis of the effects on worker productivity of 11 types of psychologically based organizational interventions which showed that such programs, on average, raised worker productivity by nearly one-half standard deviation. The study found that the strength of effects was found to vary by type of intervention, criterion of productivity, contextual factors in organizations, and features of research design.

Hunter and Schmidt (1983) emphasized those psychological programs in organizations increases in workforce productivity. In accordance to this the study found in the area of personnel selection, many meta-analytic studies resulted in precise and generalizable estimates of the validity of cognitive ability tests and other selection procedures. The utility analyses showed that the job performance increases resulting from the use of valid selection methods had substantial economic value. Valid selection produces major increases in work-force productivity. It is concluded that the combined effects of selection and non selection interventions can be expected to produce substantial increases in workforce productivity.
Feldman (1981) examined that performance appraisal was the outcome of a dual-process system of evaluation and decision making whereby attention, categorization, recall, and information integration are carried out through either an automatic or a controlled process. The study explained that in the automatic process, an employee's behavior is categorized without conscious monitoring unless the decisions involved are problematic, that is a consciously monitored categorization process would then occur. Then the subsequent recall of the employee is viewed to be biased by the attributes of prototypes representing categories to which the employee has been assigned. Dispositional and contextual factors influence the availability of categories during both assignment and recall. The study found that although automatic and controlled processes can create accurate employee evaluations, categorization interacting with task type tends to affect subsequent employee information with halo, lenient/stringent, racial, sexual, ethnic, and personality biases.

2.5.1 Twelve Step Programme

The following studies reflect how the Twelve step programme has been effective in many ways. It also reflects that it can be combined with other therapies and used for different groups of individuals for various purposes.

Maude-Griffin (2007) evaluated the efficacy of cognitive-behavioral therapy and 12-step facilitation in treating 128 cocaine abusers who were assigned to treatment conditions for 12 weeks and assessed at baseline and at Weeks 4, 8, 12, and 26. The study was based on hypothesis that participants treated with cognitive-behavioral therapy would be significantly more likely to achieve abstinence from cocaine than participants treated with 12-step facilitation.
It was found that although participants in cognitive-behavioral therapy were significantly more likely to achieve abstinence than participants in 12-step facilitation. However, the study did find matching hypotheses, which suggested that both psychotherapies may be differentially effective for identified subgroups of persons that abuse cocaine.

Carroll (2003) examined the relationship between spirituality and recovery from alcoholism. Spirituality was defined as the extent of practice of Alcoholics Anonymous Steps 11 and 12 and was measured by a Step Questionnaire developed by the researcher. Step 11 suggests prayer and meditation and Step 12 suggests assistance of other alcoholics. Expressed degree of purpose in life was also seen as a reflection of spirituality. The study postulated that the extent to which Steps 11 and 12 were practiced would be positively correlated with the extent of purpose in life reported by 100 Alcoholics Anonymous members. It was found that there were significant positive correlations between practice of Step 11 and purpose in life scores and between Step 11 and length of sobriety. The number of Alcoholics Anonymous meetings attended was significantly correlated with purpose in life scores and length of sobriety. The study concluded that a sense of purpose in life increases with continuing sobriety and practice of the spiritual principles of Alcoholics Anonymous.

Magura, et al. (2001) examined whether three hypothesized factors of self-help namely: helper-therapy, reciprocal-learning, and emotional-support processes are associated with drug/alcohol abstinence outcomes for members of a 12-step dual-focus fellowship, Double Trouble in Recovery. The study was conducted on 24 Double Trouble in Recovery groups who were recruited, interviewed, and reinterviewed after 1 year. It was found that helper-therapy and reciprocal-learning activities were associated with better abstinence outcomes, independent of
other attitudes and behaviors of the members. Whereas, emotional support was not related to outcome. The study concluded that specific elements of self-help participation contribute substantially to progress in recovery for members of dual-focus groups; facilitating such self-help processes should be encouraged by clinicians and senior fellowship members.

Peteet (2001) emphasized that Twelve Step Programs such as AA play a major role in addictions treatment, and their members are increasingly accepting of psychotherapy and medication. The study explored the nature, indications, and limitations of a spiritual approach to addiction and the implications for collaboration with mental health professionals. The study suggested that Twelve Step Programs not only provide accessible group support and a clear ideology regarding addiction but address individuals' needs for identity, integrity, an inner life and interdependence within a larger social and moral, or spiritual context. The study examined the ways in which the religious connotations of the Program remain an obstacle for many patients and clinicians.

Kelly, Myers, and Brown (2000) recommended youth treated for substance abuse to attend 12-step groups. The study examined the relation between 12-step attendance and substance use outcome in the 6 months post discharge from inpatient care and a process model of how 12-step attendance during the first 3 months post discharge affects proximal outcomes of motivation, coping and self-efficacy, measured at 3 months, and how these, in turn, affect ultimate substance use outcome in the following 3 months. The study was conducted among 99 adolescent patients and was assessed during treatment and 3 and 6 months post discharge. The study found beneficial effects of 12-step attendance, which were mediated by motivation but not by coping or self-efficacy.

Morgenstern and Kahler (1998) examined the intervening factors that link client characteristics
to endpoint outcomes, for this purpose they tested the hypothesis that Type B substance abusers would demonstrate difficulties engaging in the treatment process, and that these problems would mediate their poorer outcomes. The study used two intensive 12-Step substance abuse treatment programmes with a sample of 115 men and women seeking treatment. The study found that hypotheses were not supported. Type Bs did not demonstrate difficulties with the treatment process, but had greater problems sustaining gains post treatment. Contrary to prediction, Type Bs was better matched to self-help affiliation than Type As.

Kingree (1997) assessed the 12-step group affiliation among participants in a 120-day addiction treatment program using seven measures, the seventh being a composite of the six measures. The participants completed the affiliation indicators and three treatment satisfaction measures at the midpoint of their involvement in the program, after they had completed various socio demographic and psychological measures at admission and before they were eligible for program completion. The study found that compared to each of the six indicators, the composite measure was more robustly related to the socio demographic, psychological, satisfaction, and program completion variables.

Ouimette (1997) compared the effectiveness of 12-step and cognitive-behavioral models of substance abuse treatment among 3,018 patients from 15 programs. The study found that the participants showed significant improvements in functioning from treatment admission to a 1-year follow-up. The 12-step, cognitive-behavioral, combination of 12-Step and cognitive-behavioral treatment programs were equally effective in reducing substance use and improving most other areas of functioning. The study proved that this effectiveness was seen in many other
treatment groups.

Spalding (1997) surveyed the members of the program of Alcoholics Anonymous and thought that certain spiritual perspectives would be more adaptive than others in the alcoholism recovery process in terms of perceived quality of life in sobriety. The study found a collaborative spiritual coping style was superior to a deferring spiritual coping style or self-directing spiritual coping style in predicting better quality of life. It was observed that the intrinsic versus extrinsic spiritual focus did not predict quality of life in recovering alcoholics but social support from friends and family predicted quality of life in recovering alcoholics.

Wells, Peterson, and Gainey (1994) conducted a study based on 110 subjects seeking Twelve-Step treatment and assessed the efficacy of treatment for cocaine abuse and compared the relative effectiveness of a cognitive-behavioral relapse prevention treatment. The study collected self-report data, on baseline, post treatment, and 6-month follow-up. It was found that subjects in both treatment conditions reduced cocaine and marijuana use at post-treatment. The study found that the subjects in both groups reduced their alcohol use from pretreatment to post treatment and the subjects receiving Twelve-Step treatment showed greater increases from post treatment to 6-month follow-up in alcohol use than did relapse prevention participants.

2.5.2 Transpersonal Psychology

The following studies show the impact of this new field of psychology and the instrumental role spirituality and meditation has on various walks of life.

Walsh (2006) established that although meditation is now one of the most enduring, widespread, and researched of all psychotherapeutic methods, the meeting of the meditative disciplines and
Western psychology. The study found that much could be achieved through assimilative integration. Meditation was found to contribute largely towards cognition and attention, mental training and development, health and pathology, and psychological capacities and potentials. The study concluded that by investigating meditative traditions with greater cultural and conceptual sensitivity, there could be a possibility of uniting meditative traditions and Western psychology which will benefit both the concepts.

Adams (2002) investigated and assessed Ken Wilber's contribution to transpersonal psychology. The study questioned his definition of 'God' even though he accepted the reality, validity and value of the transpersonal religious experiences that are the foundation of Wilber's work. The study argued that there were contradictory positions regarding the presence of a personal element in the divine nature, de-valuation of the individual self and inadequate emphasis on the moral component of spiritual development. Thus the study felt that it was incomplete or rather lacked in the reality part.

Butts (2002) explored that spirituality at work is an idea of revolutionary potential that required more clarity and theoretical understanding. The study found that several dimensions of spirituality, when integrated into the workplace, can greatly enhance personal well-being and creativity, organizational harmony and long-term business success. These are ultimate ancient and modern values, optimal human development, the art of transcendence and spiritual psychologies.

Vaughan (2002) investigated spiritual intelligence and suggested that it is one of several types of intelligence can be developed relatively independently. The study emphasized that Spiritual
intelligence calls for multiple ways of knowing and for the integration of the inner life of mind and spirit with the outer life of work in the world. It can be cultivated through questing, inquiry, and practice. Spiritual experiences may also contribute to its development, depending on the context and means of integration. Spiritual maturity is expressed through wisdom and compassionate action in the world. The study concluded that Spiritual intelligence is necessary for discernment in making spiritual choices that contribute to psychological well-being and overall healthy human development.

Haimer (2001) established the effect of Buddhist meditation on self-directedness, cooperativeness and self-transcendence. This represented the intrapersonal, interpersonal and transpersonal levels of the self-concept respectively. The study found that meditation experience would lead to development in each of these dimensions.

Wilber (1993) emphasized that states of consciousness, structures of consciousness and the relation of mind and body have been of utmost importance in transpersonal psychology. The study found that these states of consciousness revolve around the mind and body. In order to bring alignment in these realms one has to meditate. The study also found that meditation brought closeness to the mind and body.

Delmonte and Kenny (1985) reviewed various theoretical models and forms of meditation. Meditation is also discussed in terms of behavioral, psychoanalytical and personal construct perspectives. The study found that the objectives of the various meditation techniques appear to be rather similar, that is to achieve insight into the workings of the mind, self-mastery and ultimately to transcend the ego. However, meditation experiences may vary considerably within
and between individuals.

Walsh and Vaughan (1980) emphasized that all models of psychologies shape perception, organize experience and determine methods of inquiry. The study investigated that a transpersonal humanistic model, focused on the human potential for growth, health and well-being. The study found that it goes beyond existing models to include self-transcendence and it emphasized the centrality of consciousness in shaping experience and enhancing well-being.

The above section clearly throws light on the kind of interventions used for organizational effectiveness and better work performance. This section also reveals studies based on the Twelve step programme as well as Transpersonal psychology which pave the way to the intervention used in the present research.

Thus, the present chapter on the whole, elaborately explains the path taken by various researchers in conducting research in the fields of organizational behavior, work performance, performance appraisals and the dimensions influencing work performance. The studies throw light on the dimensions which have such a great impact on work performance. Moreover, it kindles a need to conduct further research on these areas in order to improve and enhance the work performance of employees in an organization.