CHAPTER – 1

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The world of work and organizations has become increasingly demanding and tumultuous. Managing human capital is one of the major challenges presently facing organizations. Therefore, as organizations continue to face innumerable challenges, their survival will depend upon how efficiently they manage their human assets and implement their HRM practices. Barney and Wright (1998) said that globally competitive organizations depend on the uniqueness of their human resources and the systems for managing human resources effectively to gain a competitive advantage. Human resources are not only the principal value creators of the knowledge industry, but they are also the intellectual capital or the infrastructure investment. Around the world, more and more organizations are realizing that competitive advantage can be successfully derived from how their people handle themselves at workplace. Excellent human resource is a major drive to maintain corporate competitiveness. Successful organizations depend on getting the right mix of individuals in the right positions at the right time possessing right attitudes. Subsequently, it becomes all the more important to identify the factors influencing workforce satisfaction, job attitudes which ultimately influence behaviour and performance in a unique and budding industry – The Aviation Industry.

1.2 INDIAN AVIATION INDUSTRY - AN OVERVIEW

The world over, Aviation is an industry that is one of the drivers of economic growth. It is an extremely competitive, safety sensitive, high technology service industry which brings enormous benefits to communities and economies around the globe. However, in India the open sky policy was introduced in 1992, when India
consciously embraced the policy of liberalisation and privatisation. Since then the Indian Aviation Industry has seen a stupendous growth despite very high cost of capital involved in the sector. With growth rate of 18% per annum, the Indian Aviation industry is one of the fastest growing industries in the world (Confederation of Indian Industry, 2013). According to the Indian Aerospace Industry Analysis report (2011), in terms of passenger traffic, India is currently the ninth largest aviation market in the world. Aviation plays a key role in economic and community development and in the delivery of social services such as air ambulances and scheduled transportation, protection from natural disasters such as forest fires as well as non-renewable resource exploration. The government's open sky policy has lead to many overseas players entering the market and the industry has been growing both in terms of players and number of aircrafts. With the liberalisation of the Indian aviation sector, the aviation industry in India has undergone a rapid transformation. From being primarily a government-owned industry, the Indian aviation industry is now dominated by privately owned full-service airlines and low-cost carriers. The Aviation sector has reaped massive benefit from the entry of private carriers, especially from those of the low fare ones. The growth of the airlines sector has caused a sharp upturn in demand for a wide range of services related to air transport such as passenger and cargo airlines, unscheduled service operators - private jets and helicopters, airport management, and support services like Maintenance, Repairs and Overhaul (MRO), ground handling, in-flight catering, and training. Aviation sector in India has been transformed from an over regulated and under managed sector to a more open, liberal and investment friendly sector since 2004. Entry of low cost carriers, higher household incomes, strong economic growth, increased FDI inflows, surging tourist inflow, increased cargo movement, sustained business growth and
supporting government policies are the major drivers for the growth of aviation sector in India. With regards to air cargo tonnage, India leads the South Asian region - consisting of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, the Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Over the past ten years the Indian civil aviation sector grew by 14.2% in terms of domestic passengers and 7.8% in terms of air cargo (in CAGR - compound annual growth rate). Currently, India has 128 airports -including 15 international airports. In 2010-11 six major Indian carriers with around 400 aircraft catered to 143 million passengers, including 38 million passengers that originated abroad. Indian Aviation market is currently handling 121 million domestic and 41 million international passengers (Nathan Economic Consulting India Pvt. Ltd, 2012). Today, more than 85 international airlines operate to India and 5 Indian carriers connect over 40 countries. By the year 2020, India is likely to become the third largest aviation market handling 336 million domestic and 85 million international passengers with projected investment to the tune of US$ 120 billion (Press Information Bureau, Govt. of India).

1.3 ROLE OF AVIATION IN INDIAN ECONOMY

A country's transportation sector plays an integral role in the growth and development of an economy. Indian Aviation Industry has been instrumental in the overall economic development of the country. Air transport to, from and within India creates three distinct types of economic benefits such as contribution to GDP, jobs and tax revenues generated by the sector and its supply chain. But the economic value created by the industry is more than that. The principal benefits are created for the customer, the passenger or shipper using the air transport service. In addition, the connections created between cities and markets represent an important infrastructure asset that generates benefits through enabling foreign direct investment, business
clusters, specialization and other spill-over impacts on an economy’s productive

1.3.1 Contribution to Indian GDP

The aviation sector contributes INR 330 billion (0.5%) to Indian GDP (see
Table 1.1). This total comprises:

- INR 147 billion directly contributed through the output of the aviation sector
  (airlines, airports and ground services, aerospace);
- INR 107 billion indirectly contributed through the aviation sector’s supply
  chain; and
- INR 77 billion contributed through the spending by the employees of the
  aviation sector and its supply chain.
- In addition there is INR 582 billion in ‘catalytic’ benefits through tourism,
  which raises the overall contribution to INR 912 billion or 1.5% of GDP.

(Source: Oxford Economics, 2011)

1.3.2 Contribution to public finances

The aviation sector pays over INR 87.5 billion in tax including income tax
receipts from employees, social security contributions and corporation tax levied on
profits. It is estimated that an additional INR 9.8 billion of government revenue is
raised via the aviation sector’s supply chain and another INR 7.1 billion through
taxation of the activities supported by the spending of employees of both the aviation

1.3.3 Consumer benefits for passengers and shippers

The aviation sector – comprising the airlines together with the airports, air
navigation and other essential grounds services that make up the air transport
infrastructure – carries over 70 million passengers and 1.4 million tonnes of air freight
to, from and within India. More than 130,000 scheduled international flights depart India annually, destined for 70 airports in 50 countries. Domestically, more than 664,000 flights make 89 million seats available to passengers annually, destined to 73 airports. Among the many reasons that people and businesses use air transport, people rely on it for holidays and visiting friends and family; while businesses use air transport for meeting clients and for the speedy and reliable delivery of mail and goods often over great distances. For this reason, the air transport network has been called the Real World Wide Web (Oxford Economics, 2011).

1.3.4 Enhancing economic performance

Improvements in connectivity through aviation contribute to the economic performance of the wider economy through enhancing its overall level of productivity. This improvement in productivity in firms outside the aviation sector comes through two main channels: through the effects on domestic firms of increased access to foreign markets, and increased foreign competition in the home market, and through the freer movement of investment capital and workers between countries. Improved connectivity gives Indian-based businesses greater access to foreign markets, encouraging exports, and at the same time increases competition and choice in the home market from foreign-based producers. In this way, improved connectivity encourages firms to specialise in areas where they possess a comparative advantage. Where firms enjoy a comparative advantage, international trade provides the opportunity to better exploit economies of scale, driving down their costs and prices and thereby benefiting domestic consumers in the process. Opening domestic markets to foreign competitors can also be an important driver behind reducing unit production costs, either by forcing domestic firms to adopt best international practices in production and management methods or by encouraging innovation. Competition
can also benefit domestic customers by reducing the mark-up over cost that firms charge their customers, especially where domestic firms have hitherto enjoyed some shelter from competition. Improved connectivity can also enhance an economy’s performance by making it easier for firms to invest outside their home country, which is known as foreign direct investment (FDI). Most obviously, the link between connectivity and FDI may come about because foreign investment necessarily entails some movement of staff: whether to transfer technical know-how or management oversight. But increased connectivity also allows firms to exploit the speed and reliability of air transport to ship components between plants in distant locations, without the need to hold expensive stocks of inventory as a buffer. Less tangibly, but possibly just as important, improved connectivity may favour inward investment as increased passenger traffic and trade that accompanies improved connectivity can lead to a more favourable environment for foreign firms to operate in (Oxford Economics, 2011).

1.3.5 Enabling long-term economic growth

In 2010 there were 357 routes connecting major Indian airports to urban agglomerations around the world. On average there were 4 flights per day along these routes. A total of 66 of these routes were connecting India to cities of more than 10 million inhabitants, with an average of 7 flights per day available to passengers. Frequencies are higher to the most economically important destinations. India’s integration into the global air transport network transforms the possibilities for the Indian economy by:

- Opening up foreign markets to Indian exports;
- Lowering transport costs, particularly over long distances, helping to increase competition because suppliers can service a wider area and potentially reduce average costs, through increased economies of scale;
- Increasing the flexibility of labour supply, which should enhance allocative efficiency and bring down the natural rate of unemployment;
- Encouraging Indian businesses to invest and specialise in areas that play to the economy’s strengths;
- Speeding the adoption of new business practices, such as just-in-time-inventory management that relies on quick and reliable delivery of essential supplies;
- Raising productivity and hence the economy’s long-run supply capacity. It is estimated that a 10% improvement in connectivity relative to GDP would see an INR 39.3 billion per annum increase in long-run GDP for the Indian economy.

(Source: Oxford Economics, 2011)

1.3.6 Tax contribution

Aviation makes a substantial contribution to the public finances. The aviation sector contribute over INR 87.5 billion in taxes through corporation tax and the income and social security contributions (both employee and employer contributions). These estimates reflect the direct tax payments of the aviation sector. It is estimated that a further INR 16.9 billion of government revenue is raised via taxation through the indirect (INR 9.8 billion) and induced (INR 7.1 billion) channels. Further, domestic aviation fuel taxes are estimated to be in the range of INR 15-20 billion (IATA, Indian Tax Office, Oxford Economics, 2011).
1.3.7 Investment and productivity

Apart from these transformative effects on the wider economy, air transport services – the airlines, airports and ancillary services, such as air traffic control – form a capital intensive sector that invests heavily in aircraft systems and other advanced technology (Oxford Economics, 2011).

1.3.8 Benefits to trade and tourism

Air transport lies at the heart of global business and tourism. Through its speed, convenience and affordability, air transport has expanded the possibilities of world travel for tourists and business travellers alike, allowing an ever greater number of people to experience diversity of geography, climate, culture and markets. Tourism, both for business and leisure purposes, makes a large contribution to the Indian economy, with foreign visitors spending just over INR 548 billion in the Indian economy each year. Around 89% of these visitors arrive by air so that foreign visitors who travel by air spend approximately INR 488 billion.

Compared to other modes of transport, air freight is fast and reliable over great distances. However, these benefits come with a cost attached. Consequently, it is mostly used to deliver goods that are light, compact, perishable and that have a high unit value. While air accounts for just 0.5% of the tonnage of global trade, air freight makes up 34.6% of the value of global trade (Oxford Economics, 2011).

1.4 EMPLOYMENT IN AVIATION

Aviation sector comprises of three distinct types of activity namely:

- Airlines transporting people and freight.
- Ground-based infrastructure that includes the airport facilities, the services provided for passengers on-site at airports, such as baggage handling.
ticketing and retail and catering services, together with essential services provided off-site, such as air navigation and air regulation.

- Aerospace manufacturing that builds and maintains aircraft systems, airframes and engines.

The aviation sector supports GDP and the employment in India through four distinct channels namely:

- Direct – the output and employment of the firms in the aviation sector.
- Indirect – the output and employment supported through the aviation sector’s Indian based supply chain.
- Induced – employment and output supported by the spending of those directly or indirectly employed in the aviation sector.
- Catalytic – spill over benefits associated with the aviation sector. Some of these include the activity supported by the spending of foreign visitors travelling to India via air, and the level of trade directly enabled by the transportation of merchandise.

The aviation sector supports 1.7 million jobs in India. (See Table 1.1) This total comprises:

- 276,000 jobs directly supported by the aviation sector;
- 841,000 jobs indirectly supported through the aviation sector’s supply chain; and
- 605,000 jobs supported through the spending by the employees of the aviation sector and its supply chain.
- In addition there are a further 7.1 million people employed through the catalytic (tourism) effects of aviation.
The average air transport services employee generates nearly INR 1.3 million in GVA (Gross value added) annually, which is around 10 times more productive than the average in India.

Table 1.1: Aviation’s Contribution of Output and Jobs to India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
<th>Induced</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of whole economy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contribution to GDP (INR billion)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aviation (inc Airlines, Airports and Ground Services, Aerospace)</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalytic (tourism)</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>582</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total including catalytic</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Contribution to employment (000s)</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aviation (inc Airlines, Airports and Ground Services, Aerospace)</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>841</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>1,723</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>841</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>1,723</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalytic (tourism)</td>
<td>3,791</td>
<td>2,297</td>
<td>989</td>
<td>7,077</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total including catalytic</td>
<td>4,067</td>
<td>3,139</td>
<td>1,593</td>
<td>8,800</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IATA, ACI, Individual company accounts, Oxford Economics

Table 1.1 reports the economic contribution of the airlines, airports and aerospace for each of the four channels. Contributions are reported both in terms of GDP and employment.
1.5 HR TRENDS AND FORECAST IN AVIATION

The booming aviation industry, along with its tertiary services, has wreaked a major talent crunch, boosting opportunities for training service providers. The ever-expanding Indian economy and increased demand for trade has pushed the need for air cargo services to a new high. The real challenge is to manage the phenomenal growth of air traffic with safety and skill augmentation in its entire dimension. With emerging sectors like MRO in near run and aerospace in longer run, which are
expected to grow in size, the need for technical personnel will surge even further. The implementation of stringent standards to cope up with the growing air traffic is crucially dependent upon the ‘skills and competency’ of the workforce. A skilled and competent workforce is essential to create a safe and efficient aviation industry. Without this India cannot join the ranks of the leading aviation nations. Indian aviation not only needs to recruit and train people in unprecedented numbers, but it faces increased competition on multiple fronts. India is not the only country experiencing rapid growth. Countries in the Middle East, China and the rest of Asia are in fact looking to recruit aviation personnel in this region to cater to the requirements of growth in their markets. According to the Report of Working Group on Civil Aviation for formulation of 12th Five Year Plan (2012-17) the total manpower requirement of Indian carriers is estimated to rise from 62,000 in FY-2011 to 117,000 by FY-2017. This includes the number of pilots, cabin crew, aircrafts engineers and technicians (MRO), ground handling staff, cargo handling staff, administrative and sales staff. The manpower requirement (including ANS) for the airports is estimated to increase from current 20,000 to 26,000-30,000 by FY 2017. The categories of core personnel required include Pilots, Air-traffic Controllers, Cabin Crew, Airport Staff, Ground handling Staff, Aviation Meteorological Service Personnel, besides expertise with respect to Aviation Medicine, Aviation Law, Aeronautical Engineering, Airport Architecture, Aviation Regulatory Affairs including Airworthiness, Accident Investigation, Aviation Maintenance Science, Aeronautical Science, Aerospace Engineering Applied Meteorology, Air Traffic Management, Aviation Business Administration, Aviation Environmental Science, Professional Aeronautics, Safety Science, Technical Management - Logistics &
As the industry is in its nascent stage so is the market research especially in the area of human resource development that has been conducted in this sphere. Secondly being a service industry the role of human capital to make or mar the business prospects is of crucial importance. Air carrier operations cover a wide range of occupations. Pilots, flight attendants, aircraft maintenance engineers and dispatchers are some of the members of the air carriers’ service team. Millwrights, fire-fighters, security guards, reservation agents, freight agents and facility managers are just some of the occupations that support airport operations. Flight service
specialists, air traffic controllers and CARS (Community Aerodrome Radio Station) observer/communicators provide air navigation services. These broad varieties of jobs within the aviation industry require varying degrees of education, skills and experience. In addition to specific work related skills such as literacy, computers, math and science, jobs in this sector also require good general workplace skills such as flexibility and adaptability to change, independence, and the ability to communicate well.

1.6 ROLE OF HR IN SERVICE INDUSTRY

Customer Service Excellence is key to success in a service industry. Nowadays, Service firms are inclined towards customer oriented strategies. As service quality and customer satisfaction are closely linked to employee satisfaction, organizations that desire to improve their customer satisfaction must be concerned about internal issues related to employees satisfaction and view their employees as customer too (Harter et al., 2002; Wangenheim et al., 2007). In service industry such as aviation, employees have significant effect on organizational performance. Service companies try to offer high quality services, maximize customer loyalty, gain higher market share, higher profitability, and their ultimate goal of customer satisfaction. These companies may reach these long-term and short-term goals with satisfied employees. Zeithaml and Bitner (2000) identified four core HR strategies namely hiring the right people, develop the people to deliver service quality, provide needed support systems and retain the best people. Key HRM practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management and reward systems have been identified as significant to customer service excellence and service quality (Browning, 1998; Tsaur and Lin, 2004). Schneider and Bowen (1993) also reported that for service organizations, superior HRM practices can be a key to
competitive advantage. Heskett et al. (2008) posited that highly satisfied customers drive growth and profitability in a service business and that all aspects of the operation that affect customer satisfaction should be managed under what they called the service profit chain. The way this chain operates is that employee satisfaction increases, when internal service quality is enhanced, which in turn strengthens employee loyalty, raising employee productivity. Higher productivity results into greater external service value for customers improving customer satisfaction and loyalty which in turn ensures increased profits. As service firms are recognizing the dire need to obtain customer oriented behaviour from their employees, the HRM practices in service industry need to be the finest that would stimulate the needed behaviour on the part of employees and enhance organizational performance by delivering excellent customer service.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF JOB ATTITUDES

Unlike many other industries, Airlines Industry operates with altogether different work environment. The workforce operates away from base much of the time. The administrative staff typically works at base locations while the pilots and cabin crew work on flight schedules which often involve rotating shift work and offsite overnight stopovers. Shift work is common and staffs are scheduled to operate in small teams for each shift while for the next shift they may work with a different group of people. The work of cabin crew is highly time dependent, as tasks must fit into narrow windows of time. The heightened expectation for productivity, speed and efficiency puts increasing pressure on those whose job demands that they operate at peak performance levels. Moreover in certain jobs such as airline pilots, air traffic controller, air hostess and so forth, the responsibility of aircraft employees especially towards the safety of passengers is immense. Aircraft employees are in fact the
backbone of the airline industry. Aviation jobs demand a great deal of responsibility, personal commitment and self sacrifice. Hence, for the effective functioning of this industry, aviation employees and more specifically the aircraft employees are expected to play their role satisfactorily, manage occupational stress; be committed to their jobs and organizations, hence bringing the best out of them to satisfy the customers. The performance of aviation employees especially aircrew can be construed as a product of skill, attitude, and personality factors. The key to recruitment and selection for frontline positions is to hire for attitude, not skills (Ellis, 2001). “If we hire people who don’t have the right attitude, disposition and behavioural characteristics to fit into our culture, we will start to change that culture. The recruiter’s primary role is to make sure it’s a good cultural fit” (Ellis, 2001). A very good example in this regard is of Southwest Airlines. Southwest hires for attitudes and trains people for specific skills because of the belief that skills can be taught but attitudes cannot be changed. Part of the interview process involves testing for “a sense of humour, ability to work with others, and friendliness” (Czaplewski et al., 2001). Hence we can rightly comprehend the importance of work place attitudes in organizations.

1.8 ROLE OF PERSONALITY

Personality happens to be one of the major psychological factors affecting human behaviour at work and one of the key determinants of success at workplace. Personality encompasses a person’s relatively stable feelings, thoughts, and behavioural patterns. Each of us have a unique personality that differentiates us from other people, and understanding someone’s personality gives us clues about how that person is likely to act and feel in a variety of situations. Personality is a potentially important predictor of work behaviour. To manage effectively, it is helpful to
understand the personalities of different employees. Having this knowledge is also useful for placing people into jobs and organization. Personality is reflection of behaviour, whatever human beings do in a persistent fashion that is known as personality. It is a behaviour which differentiates one person from another (Beer & Brooks, 2011). The traits, relevant to personality are considered to be stable and steady throughout the work life in a personality behaviour model (Myers, 1998; Denissen et al., 2011; Gerber et al., 2011). The human personality dimension also might provide a means to determine why an employee appears more or less involved in work. With such information, managers could identify the kinds of personalities that best fit with specific job characteristics and avoid choosing inappropriate staff to maximize productivity, efficiency and effectiveness. Studies on personality and organizational outcomes have received enormous attention by researchers in the organizational behaviour research stream. Latest studies illustrate that personality effects the environments in which individuals are living (Chen, 2004) and plays a significant role to select the situation in which individuals decide to stay in. According to Barrick and Mount (2005), the preference for organizational environments, the cycle of individuals one choose to interact with and the kind of activities one enjoys strongly relies on one's personality.

Personality has been shown to influence career choices, job satisfaction, stress, leadership and some aspects of job performance. Many theorists agree that personality is a predictive factor in vocational choices (Holland, 1996; Osipow, 1968). Holland (1985) believed that career choice is an expression or an extension of one’s personality into the world of work. Literature also suggests those ones’ personality traits lead to ones’ social attitudes. Over the past few years, personality has recuperated its credibility in organizational settings. Working environments nowadays
require people to be more flexible in order to keep up with the continuous changes and developments inside and outside the organization. This is reflected in personnel selection practices, where more and more emphasis is put on the so-called ‘soft’ factors and ‘generic’ competencies such as communication skills and personality features (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). As people differ in possession of personality traits in terms of intensity, the success of an individual in a particular profession depends upon appropriate combination of different personality traits and other qualities like proficiency and involvement. Sen (1976) observes that success in a particular profession may be identified by the presence of similar set of personality traits. There seems to be escalating need for the study of personality at the workplace as it fortifies various aspects of performance & success. All the modern organizations look for positive job attitudes namely high job satisfaction and job involvement in their employees because it leads to high productivity of the organizations (Al-Meer, 1995; Kumar & Singh, 2008). As any organization doesn't want to compromise with its productivity, it is evident that the organizations need to take care of their employee's well-being and try to understand personality in relation to job attitudes. Hence, Personality assessment seem to be an important approach to identifying candidates who are likely to perform and adapt optimally in this sector by matching their personality traits with the job requirements and unique work environment.

1.9 PERSON – JOB FIT THEORY

Job fit refers to the degree to which a person’s abilities, interests and personality dynamics match with job requirement. Job fit is where the passion and talents of the individual match with those required by the job and where the values of the individual are in tune with the values of the organization. Edwards (1991) outlined two basic conceptualizations of person-job fit. The first is the demands-abilities fit, in
which employees’ knowledge, skills, and abilities commensurate with what the job requires. It comprise of two components - job demands such as knowledge, skills, abilities that are required in order to carry out the tasks of the job and the abilities that the individual has such as education, experience, aptitudes and KSA that can be used to meet the job requirements. The second form of P-J fit occurs when employees’ needs, desires, or preferences are met by the jobs that they perform. This type of fit, referred to as needs–supplies fit has been the emphasis of various theories of adjustment, well-being, and satisfaction. The components of needs-supply perspective include the desires of the individual such as goals, interests and values and the characteristics of the job such as pay and other job attributes that may satisfy those desires. Hence, individuals would be satisfied with his/her job once the organization policies or structure could fulfill individuals’ preferences (Kristof, 1996). Accurate and rational job information enables applicants to assess the degree of congruence between their KSA and the requirements of the job which is further associated with positive outcomes such as low attrition from recruitment process, high job satisfaction, low turnover. Research indicates that P-J fit is positively related to individual performance and adjustment at work and significantly predicts attitudes toward the organization (Caldwell & O’Reilly, 1990). Further high levels of P-J fit have been found to be positively associated with organizational commitment and job-focused satisfaction, and negatively associated with intention to quit (Kristof et al., 2005).

1.10 PERSONALITY – CONCEPT

Though the term personality is frequently used by people, there is little consensus about its meanings. The term personality has been derived from Latin word ‘persona’ which means to speak through. The Latin term denotes the masks which the
actors used to wear in ancient Greece and Rome. Thus personality is used in terms of influencing others through external appearance. However mere external appearance, though important for personality characteristics, does not make the whole personality. According to Ruch (1953), personality should include external appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value, inner awareness of self as permanent organising force and the particular pattern or organization of measurable traits, both inner and outer. Various definitions of personality float around in the literature (Pervin, 1990). They differ as to their underlying theoretical assumptions as well as in terms of their usefulness in empirical work. Personality is the pattern of characteristics, thoughts, feelings and behaviours that differentiates one person from another and that persists over time and situations (Phares, 1991). According to Mann (1959), personality is the “most characteristic integration of an individual’s structures and activities”. It is a characteristic in dual sense because it is unique, thus differentiating an individual from all others, and it is fairly consistent representing the customary integration of a particular individual’s structure and activities. Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment (Allport, 1937). The individuals differ to a great extent in their enduring emotional, interpersonal, experiential, attitudinal & motivational styles and that put forth the foundation of personality dimensions.

Jung was another of the early psychoanalysts who was concerned with investigating human personality. Central to his theory of personality was the idea that it is not something that everyone has. Rather, he viewed it as something to strive for, only achieved after years of development. Personality is the individual’s adaptation to the demands of life combined with the greatest possible freedom for self-determination (Storr, 1998). He said "Personality is a seed that can only develop by
slow stages throughout life. There is no personality without definiteness, wholeness and ripeness” (Jung in Storr, 1998). Jung's definition of personality is therefore a little idiosyncratic and could perhaps be better served nowadays by the concept of self-actualisation. He defined the self as the "centre of gravity" of the personality, a point that is in balance between the conscious and the unconscious. Another writer who emphasised self-actualisation was Carl Rogers, the founder of person-centred counselling. Rogers' (1951) theory of personality was phenomenological (i.e. based on the interpretation of experience) and described a self-structure which consisted of a collection of beliefs the individual holds about himself or herself. He saw personality as existing in order to achieve goals and the basic striving of humans as to actualise, maintain and enhance the self (both physical and psychological). Similarly, Kelly (1955) described personality as an organization of constructs about the world and individual which guide cognition and behaviour; and the ‘self' as a collection of constructs created of relationships with other people.

There are researchers who see personality as a description of the consistencies of human nature. They look for general response patterns that are independent of the specific situation. For authors such as Pervin and John (2001), personality is the concept which brings together the characteristics that lie behind a person's typical patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving. Despite these differences in emphasis, authors do agree that any attempt at explaining human behaviour must be able to account for consistency and inconsistency, stability and change. In addition, their definitions highlight the importance of behaviour in the study of personality. In a causal scientific model of personality, behaviour is the variable that researchers usually wish to predict. Modern authors tend to see personality as the over-arching construct which can be invoked to explain behaviour. Westen's (1996) definition of
personality provides a good summary of the current position, which is less philosophical than many of the earlier authors and a lot more concerned with measurable phenomena. He defines personality as the "tendency to respond cognitively, affectively, or behaviourally in particular ways under particular circumstances". This brings together the various mental processes that make up personality: cognitions, emotions, volition and behaviour; as well as giving consideration to the environmental influences and context that surround the person.

Allport has identified fifty different definitions of the term categorized into five areas as Omnibus (viewing personality as the sum total, aggregate of qualities), Integrative and Configurational (which lay stress on organization of personal attributes), Hierarchical (specifying the levels of integration or organization of personality), Adjustment (emphasizing on the adjustment of the person to the environment) and Distinctiveness (laying stress on uniqueness of each personality).

Drawing from these approaches, Allport (1943) defined personality as the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to the environment. Allport added that traits are a lasting and stable response of the individual to different stimuli in the environment.

Similarly, Guilford (1959) defined personality as lasting and unique traits for the individual to be different from others. Costa & McCrae (1989) defined it as individual behaviour which reflects his/her unique characteristics such as timid, offensive, obedient and lazy. Personality displays modest continuity from childhood to adulthood, with the consistency in personality increasing with age as noted by Caspi and Roberts (2001). Personality is defined as a rather stable trait, or set of traits, of people that direct their behaviour in different situations (Semeij et al., 2005). It is the particular combination of emotional, attitudinal, and behavioural response patterns.
of an individual. It further refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving.

Steven and Mary (2000) defined personality as relatively stable pattern of behaviour and consistent internal state and explain a person’s behavioral tendencies. Personality can further be noted as the sum total of internal and external traits of an individual, which are relatively stable and which make the individual different from others. External traits are the observable behaviour that one can notice in an individual’s personality. The internal states represent the thoughts, values and genetic characteristics that we infer from the observable behaviour. Although definitions and explanations vary, Personality constitutes characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviors that make a person unique.

The early work in the structure of personality spins around attempt to classify & label enduring characteristics that describe an individual’s behaviour. Those characteristics, when they are exhibited in a large number of situations are called personality traits (Buss, 1989). They are psychological in nature, stable over time, and provide the reasons for behaviour. They reflect who we are in aggregate. Recent studies report that specific personality traits predict specific work related behaviour, positive attitudes & life happiness. These traits could further facilitate employee selection, matching people to jobs and in guiding career development decisions. Researches further indicate that effective leaders have identifiable personality traits. There were a number of early efforts to identify the primary traits that govern behaviour (Allport & Odbert, 1936). The identification of the personality traits relevant to the study of organization behaviour has been a tedious and cumbersome task for researchers over a long period of time. These efforts resulted in long list of traits that were difficult to generalize from & provided little practical guidance to
organization decision makers. One of the largest debates within the literature on personality psychology is how many independent factors of personality exist (Goldberg, 1995). However, the Personality experts further tried to condense the many personality traits that had been described over the years giving way to five abstract personality dimensions commonly known as Big Five Personality framework. The manifestation of Big Five Model has created a lot of interest in the role of personality in work, organizational behaviour and also relates it to various work place variables. In addition to the Big five Model, there are several other personality assessment instruments like Myers Briggs Type Indicator which is a personality inventory designed to identify individual’s basic preferences for perceiving and processing information. The MBTI classifies individuals into extroverts or introverts, sensing or intuitive, thinking or feeling, and judging or perceiving. These classifications are further combined into 16 personality types. Cattel’s 16 ‘source traits’ commonly known as 16PF put forth by Raymond B. Cattel in 1949 is another widely used personality assessment instrument that has shown reliability in test-retest situations, as well as having internal consistency. The 16PF is a personality assessment that measures a person’s complete personality on the basis of 16 different factors. The factors measure everything from how people think about things, to how they view rules and laws to how people behave in social situations and how open they are to disclosing information about themselves, to how emotional they are to others and to how they make decisions. There are 16 primary factors and five global factors. The primary factors are warmth (A), reasoning (B), emotional stability (C), dominance (E), liveliness (F), rule-consciousness (G), social boldness (H), sensitivity (I), vigilance (L), abstractedness (M), Privateness (N), apprehension (O), openness to change (Q1), self-reliance (Q2), perfectionism (Q3), and tension (Q4). Each of the
primary factors is given two levels to each factor: low or high. The global factors are derived from the original 16 primary factors and represent a more broad definition of personality than the primary factors. The global factors are extraversion (EX), anxiety (AX), tough-mindedness (TM), independence (IN), and self-control (SC). (Russell and Karol’s (2002) manual on Cattell’s 16 Personality Factors). However, the Big Five model has become the dominant framework for identifying & classifying traits. Its five factors—Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional stability, and Openness to experience—have been found to consistently describe personality. In recent years a remarkable body of research supports that five basic dimensions underlies all others & include most of the noteworthy divergence in human personality. In addition to providing a unifying personality framework, research on the Big Five also has found relationships between these personality dimensions & job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). These dimensions affect work related behaviour & job performance in varying degrees. Based on factor analysis, the Five-Factor Model of personality distinguishes five factors that together describe a person’s personality. The premise of the model is that the factors remain stable and consistent across time and situations and that each factor predisposes a person to behave in a certain way (Robertson & Callinan, 1998). The five-factor structure has been captured through analyses of trait adjectives, factor analytic studies of existing personality inventories, and expert judges’ categorizations of existing personality measures (McCrae & John, 1992).

1.10.1 Personality: Theories

Various theories have been propounded to explain the concept and constituents of personality. These are Type theory, Psychoanalytical theory, Socio-Psychological theory, Social Learning theory, Trait theory and Self theory. Type
theory groups people into identifiable categories. Kretschmer and Sheldon are credited with classifying personality on the basis of structure of body. Carl Jung divided all personalities into introverts and extroverts. However Jung pointed out that the introvert and extrovert typology turns out to be more in the nature of continuum than discretely separate types. Though type theories are simple as they are based on physical attributes or psychological factors, they fail to reveal all complexities of a personality.

Among various theories, trait theory is considered as one of the most accepted and a leading personality theory which captures the salient aspects that have high propensity to lead to certain behaviours. Traits determine a person’s variances in the trend to develop a steady pattern of feelings, thoughts and actions (Myers, 1998). A personality trait is understood as being an enduring attribute of a person that appears consistently in a variety of situations. Theories discussing the personality traits argued that a person’s behaviour can be explained on the basis of some specific personality traits. Two most important trait theories come from the work of Allport and Cattell. Allport based his theory on the distinction between common traits and personal dispositions. Cattell on the other hand identified two categories of traits namely surface traits and source traits. Trait theorists assume that a personality can be described by its position on a number of continuos dimensions or scales, each of which represents a trait. The trait theory is a multiple model of the type theory. Rather than classifying a person by just one feature, the trait theory classifies personality by a set of features. Trait theories give recognition to the continuity of personalities and have contributed to personality ratings and factor analysis techniques in behavioural sciences.
Psychoanalytical theory owes its origin to Sigmund Freud. Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Karen Horney and Eric Fromm made additional contributions. As noted by Freud (1963), personality is composed of three elements – Id, Ego, and super Ego. This Tripartite division of personality is known as the structural model of mental life. Id refers exclusively to the innate component of personality. It is the mental agency containing everything inherited, present at birth, and fixed in the individual’s constitution, especially instincts. It is raw, animalistic, unorganised, knows no laws, obeys no rules, and remains basic to the individual throughout life. The ego develops out of the Id because of the necessity of dealing with the real world. The super ego represents the internalised representation of the values and morals of the society as taught to the child by parents and others. Hence, psychoanalytical theory is based on the in-depth study of individual personalities. This theory gives an important insight into personality structure and the idea of conscious motivation.

The social learning theory of personality regards a situation as an important determinant of behaviour. It focuses on behaviour patterns and cognitive activities in relation to the specific conditions that evoke, maintain or modify them. The emphasis is on what an individual does in a given situation which is determined by personal variables such as competencies, cognitive strategies, outcome expectations, subjective value outcome and self regulatory systems and plans. The theory further assumes that behaviour is influenced by mentalistic concept namely the unconscious. Although social learning theory has been criticized for over-emphasizing the importance of situational factors in behaviour to the neglect of individual differences, it has made a major contribution towards clinical psychology and personality theory.

The humanistic approach to the study of personality includes a number of theories which share a common emphasis on man’s potential for self direction and
freedom of choice. They are concerned with self and the individual’s subjective experiences. Carl Rogers, one of the propounders of humanistic theory of personality believed that behaviour is utterly dependent upon how one perceives the world. This approach emphasizes self and its characteristics. This theory is also referred to as self theory because the best way for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself. Abraham Maslow who is regarded as the spiritual father of humanism in American psychology postulates man as a self–actualizer. His theory strongly advocates that an individual is an organised whole, that man has creative potential and his psychological health is most important.

Socio-psychological theory recognises the interdependence of the individual and society. Personality of the individual is dependent on his interaction with the society. According to propounders of this theory, social variables are the important determinants in shaping personality as compared to biological instincts which form the basis of psychoanalytical theories. Fromm emphasized the importance of social context, while Sullivan and Horney stressed interpersonal behaviour. Horney’s model suggests that human behaviour result from three predominant interpersonal orientations - complaint, aggressive and detached. The theory seems to be useful to managers in the organizations as they can take clue from this theory in shaping the behaviour of their employees.

Despite differences in terminology and emphasis, broad agreement can still be found among psychologists about what constitutes the personality. Personality can be defined as the pattern of conscious and unconscious mental functions, processes and characteristics that give rise to the ways people respond to their environment (Sutton, 2007).
1.10.2 Maddi’s Model of Personality

Maddi (1989) comprehensively defined Personality as a set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the behavior (thoughts, feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment. Maddi grouped all the personality theories under three categories namely conflict model, the self fulfilment model and the consistency model which explain the behaviour of individuals as seeking to reduce tensions, attaining intrapsychic rewards, or achieving cognitive consonance respectively. The conflict model of personality depicts individuals to be constantly in the grip of two powerful opposing forces and try to resolve the tensions there from. In contrast to this model, the self fulfilment model depicts one great, beautiful, positive force within the individual which drives him or her either to self actualize or aim at reaching perfection. The consistency model interlocks the person and the environment in the sense that all individuals have their own perception of who they are, what their abilities and strengths, and their weaknesses and drawbacks are. They seek feedback from the environment in order to check whether others perceive them in the same way they perceive themselves. This model explains behaviour as driven by the need to seek consistency and equilibrium.

1.10.3 The Shaping of Personality

Human personality development is a continuous process. How personality develops from infant to grown up stage has been described differently by different personality theorists. Although the stages of personality development may be found in the writings of ancient Greek, it was Freud who first formulated a meaningful stage theory of personality. He was the first psychologist to believe that childhood events might have a bearing on adult behavior and consciousness. Freud’s Stages of
Psychosexual Development are, like other stage theories, completed in a predetermined sequence and can result in either successful completion or a healthy personality or can result in failure, leading to an unhealthy personality. This theory is probably the best known as well as the most controversial, as Freud believed that we develop through stages based upon a particular erogenous zone. During each stage, an unsuccessful completion means that a child becomes fixated on that particular erogenous zone and either over or under-indulges once he or she becomes an adult. The first stage of development is Oral Stage (Birth to 18 months). During the oral stage, the child is focused on oral pleasures (sucking), too much or too little gratification can result in an Oral Fixation or Oral Personality which is evidenced by a preoccupation with oral activities. Personality wise, these individuals may become overly dependent upon others, gullible, and perpetual followers. On the other hand, they may also fight these urges and develop pessimism and aggression toward others. The second stage known as Anal Stage (18 months to three years), the child’s focus of pleasure in this stage is on eliminating and retaining feces. In terms of personality, after effects of an anal fixation during this stage can result in an obsession with cleanliness, perfection, and control (anal retentive). On the opposite end of the spectrum, they may become messy and disorganized (anal expulsive). In Phallic Stage (ages three to six), the pleasure zone switches to the genitals. Children can be observed obtaining gratification by examining and fondling their genitalia and expressing interest in matters of birth and sex. Latency Stage (age six to puberty) denotes repressed sexual urges and children interact and play mostly with same sex peers. This stage is very important for acquiring the knowledge and skills needed to get along in the workday world. The final stage of psychosexual development is the Genital stage (puberty to adulthood) when sexual urges are once again awakened.
Through the lessons learned during the previous stages, adolescents direct their sexual urges onto opposite sex peers, with the primary focus of pleasure is the genitals.

Among the neo Freudians, Erik Erikson gave a new dimension to the development of personality which he claimed was nothing more than a systematic extension of Freud’s psychosexual development. He maintained that children develop in a predetermined order. Instead of focusing on cognitive development, however, he was interested in how children socialize and how this affects their sense of self. Erikson’s Theory of Psychosocial Development has eight distinct stages, each with two possible outcomes. According to the theory, successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and successful interactions with others. The eight stages as given by Erikson are Trust vs Mistrust, Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt, Initiative vs. Guilt, Industry vs. Inferiority, Identity vs. Role Confusion, Intimacy vs. Isolation, Generativity vs. Stagnation, Ego Integrity vs. Despair.

Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist is credited with cognitive or conscious stages of personality development. He maintains that children go through specific stages as their intellect and ability to see relationships matures. These stages are completed in a fixed order with all children. He identified four stages of personality development. The first stage is Sensorimotor stage in which infants begins to understand the information entering their senses and their ability to interact with the world. During the preoperational stage, children learn how to interact with their environment in a more complex manner through the use of words and images. This stage is marked by egocentrism, or the child’s belief that everyone sees the world the same way that he/she does. The concrete operations stage is characterized by gradual decrease in centrist thought and the increased ability to focus on more than one aspect of a stimulus, intellectual understanding of the concept of conservation of mass,
irrespective of its shape. In the final stage, formal operations stage, children begin to
develop a more abstract view of the world. They are able to apply reversibility and
conservation to both real and imagined situations. They also develop an increased
understanding of the world and the idea of cause and effect.

Professor Chris Argyris of Harvard has identified specific dimensions of the
personality as it develops. He believed that the human personality rather than going
through distinct stages, progresses along a continuum from infancy to maturity as an
adult. At any stage people can have their degree of development plotted on
immaturity to maturity continuum according to the seven dimensions namely
Passivity vs Activity, Dependence vs Independence, Limited Behaviour vs Diverse
Behaviour, Shallow vs Deep interests, Short time vs Long time perspective,
Subordinate vs Superordinate position, Lack of self awareness vs Self awareness and
control. Argyris argues that healthy individuals tend to move from immaturity to
maturity.

1.10.4 Determinants of Personality

As personality represents a process of change and it relates to psychological
growth and development of individuals, it is important to know the factors affecting
the development of a personality. McClelland has categorized these factors into four
fundamental theories- traits (acquired propensity to respond), schema (beliefs, frame
of reference, major orientations, ideas and values), motives (inner drives), and self
schema (observation of one’s own behaviour). Scott and Mitchell have classified
various determinants into heredity groups, and cultural factors, both physiological and
psychological which play important role in human personality. These factors as such
can be broadly classified as biological factors, family factors, social factors, cultural
factors and situational factors. The study of biological contribution to personality can
be divided into three main categories namely Heredity, Brain and Physical features. Heredity is the transmission of qualities from ancestor to descendant through a mechanism lying primarily in the chromosomes of the germ cells. It predisposes to certain physical, mental and emotional states. Physical structures, reflexes, innate drives, intelligence and temperament is said to be inherited by all humans. Brain is also supposed to play role in shaping personality. An individual’s personality develops depending upon the structure of brain. An individual’s external appearance which is biologically determined has considerable influence on his personality. Mussen (1963) observed that a child’s physical characteristics may be related to his approach to the social environment, to the expectancies of others, and to their reaction to him which in turn may have impact on personality development. Family and social groups have most significant impact on personality development through socialisation and identification processes. Socialisation is a process through which an infant acquires, from the enormously wide range of behaviour potentialities, those behaviour patterns which are customary and acceptable according to the standards of his family and social groups. Identification process occurs when a person tries to identify himself with some person whom he feels ideal in the family. Culture determines attitudes towards independence, aggression, competition and cooperation. The culture group defines the range of experiences and situations an individual is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned. Migram suggest that situation plays a powerful role in human personality as situation exerts an important press on the individual. In certain circumstances, it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed, that determines his actions.
1.10.5 The Big Five: Concept

The Five Factor Model (FFM) describes five main factors of personality and has been proposed as a universal, cross-cultural structure of individual differences (McCrae and Costa, 1997). Tupes and Christal (1961) and Norman (1963) are commonly credited with discovering the Big Five. Only in the past two decades, however, has research on the Big Five traits become a serious area of investigation. Specifically, a robust set of five factors have been recovered from almost every major personality inventory and from analyses of more than 15,000 trait adjectives in English and those in many other languages (Goldberg, 1990). Furthermore, the structure has generalized across cultures, sources of ratings, and measures (John & Srivastava, 1999). Although acceptance of the classification is far from universal (Block, 1995; Eysenck, 1992), the Big Five has provided the most widely accepted structure of personality. The five factor model of personality is a hierarchical organization of personality traits in terms of five basic dimensions: Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism. These five relatively independent constructs altogether provide a meaningful classification for the study of individual differences in personality. The Big Five Model demonstrates that the human personality comprises of five reasonably self-determining dimensions which gives a significant and complete taxonomy for reviewing the individual’s dissimilarities (McCrae & Costa, 1987). The emergence of the Five-Factor Model of personality (Norman, 1963) or the “Big Five” (Goldberg, 1990), provided a clear conceptual and measurement framework for research into personality (Robertson & Callinan, 1998). Its five factors—extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience have been found to consistently describe personality for various samples (Hofstee et
al., 1997; McCrae & Costa, 1997). Costa and McCrae have contributed substantially to develop the elements of big five personality. An inventory have been developed to evaluate the dimensions of five traits by using five strong elements of the ranking, side by side they also used the inventory and the model in a multiple studies which lead to the belief that the Big Five traits are universal. McCrae and Costa (1985) argued that the Big Five Model is not dependent on one personality theory rather it incorporate the scales that uses different theoretical angles. It has also been identified that Big Five traits are the essential and appropriate factors that explains the personality configuration globally.

1.10.6 The Big Five Personality Traits: Explained

**Extraversion** refers to the extent to which a person is outgoing and talkative and is associated with behaviours such as being sociable, gregarious, assertive, and active (McCrae & Costa, 1985). It implies to seek simulation and enjoy the company of other people. Highly extravert people are often perceived as being dominant and therefore as leaders (Barry & Stewart, 1997). They tend to be effective as managers and they demonstrate inspirational leadership behaviours. (Bauer et al., 2006) Extraverts do well in social situations. They have an easier time than introverts when adjusting to a new job. They actively seek information and feedback and build effective relationships, which helps them adjust. (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) Interestingly, extraverts are also found to be happier at work, which may be because of the relationships they build with the people around them and their easier adjustment to a new job( Judge et al. 2002). However, they do not necessarily perform well in all jobs especially in jobs depriving them of social interaction. They tend to be effective in jobs involving sales( Barrick and Mount, 1991). However, they are not necessarily model employees. They tend to have higher levels of absenteeism at work,
potentially because they may miss work to hang out with or attend to the needs of their friends (Judge et al., 1997). They are sensitive to monotony (Thiffault & Bergeron, 2003) and they demonstrate significantly poorer performance on vigilant tasks (Koelega, 1992). Highly extroverted employees likely use their stable, coolheaded, optimistic and aggressive manner to react to customer’s requests, which results in work completion and customer satisfaction. Barrick & Mount (1991) described Extraverts as expressive, outgoing, companionable, gregarious, chatty, confident and determined persons. Extraverts have a tendency to be spontaneous, communicative, energetic, positive, and enthusiastic (Goldberg, 1990; Watson & Clark, 1997). They are longing for admiration, social acknowledgement, control and command (Costa & McCrae, 1992). If compared with other five traits, extraverts are completely associated with emotional commitment (Erdheim et al., 2006). Extraverts are capable of practicing affirmative emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992) which in turn lead to job gratification (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000). Extravert individuals are emotionally firm and sure that’s why they possess contented personality (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998) and this blissful personality is the key feature of contented life and job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002). Extraverts are also effective analyst of job performance for professions like administrations, social relations and sales (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Such people often use their working environment to represent a key facet of their lives that enables them to meet their aspirations and exhibit their talents (Hurley, 1998).

Agreeableness refers to the extent to which a person is cooperative and friendly. Highly agreeable persons display behaviours such as being courteous, flexible, trusting, good-natured, forgiving, soft hearted, and tolerant (McCrae & Costa, 1985). Digman (1990) defines the features of Agreeable people as self-
sacrifice, helpful, nurturance, gentle, and emotional support at one end of the dimension, and enmity, indifference to others and self-interest on another end. People with this personality type are generally easy to get along with (Hough, 1992). According to Barrick and Mount (1991), Agreeableness consist of traits such as being polite, flexible, naive, helpful, supportive, merciful, kind, and open-minded. They are salient in situations that involve interaction or cooperation with others (Barrick and Mount, 1991). They are less aggressive, emotionally stable, trustworthy and compliant (Clarke & Robertson, 2005). Agreeable employees are cooperative and forgiving, tend to follow rules and act courteously to get ahead. They are also less likely to retaliate when other people treat them unfairly (Skarlicki et al., 1999). This may reflect their ability to show empathy and to give people the benefit of the doubt. Agreeable people may be a valuable addition to their teams and may be effective leaders because they create a fair environment when they are in leadership positions (Mayer et al., 2007). At the other end of the spectrum, people low in agreeableness are less likely to show these positive behaviours. Moreover, people who are disagreeable are shown to quit their jobs unexpectedly, perhaps in response to a conflict with a boss or a peer (Zimmerman, 2008).

**Conscientiousness** refers to the extent to which a person is self-disciplined and organized. Associated behaviours are being careful, thorough, responsible, organized, planful, hardworking, achievement oriented, and persevering (McCrae & Costa, 1985). It is the degree to which a person is organized, systematic, punctual, achievement-oriented, and dependable. Conscientiousness is the one personality trait that uniformly predicts how high a person’s performance will be across a variety of occupations and jobs (Barrick & Mount, 1991). In fact, conscientiousness is the trait most desired by recruiters, and highly conscientious applicants tend to succeed in
interviews (Dunn et al., 1995). Once they are hired, conscientious people not only tend to perform well, but they also have higher levels of motivation to perform, lower levels of turnover, lower levels of absenteeism and higher levels of safety performance at work (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Finally, it seems that conscientiousness is a valuable trait for entrepreneurs. Highly conscientious people are more likely to start their own business compared with those who are not conscientious, and their firms have longer survival rates (Certo & Certo, 2005). Highly conscientious individuals can be detail-oriented rather than seeing the big picture. Conscientiousness is the tendency to show self-discipline, to be dutiful and to strive for achievement and competence. Its components also include self-discipline, consultative, competent, orderly, dutifulness and thoroughness. People who are high in this factor are always thorough in decision-making style (Clarke & Robertson, 2005), follow rules and regulations (Arthur & Doverspike, 2001), are interested in goal targeting and systematic approach, are always interested in providing adequate cost-benefit analysis and contingency planning (West et al., 1993) and are less vulnerable to cognitive failures. Low conscientiousness, on the other hand, suggests that the employee tries to meet only immediate demands, does not care about prospective results, lacks a sense of goals, mistakenly observes rules (Arthur & Doverspike, 2001) or standards and performs tasks poorly (Wallace & Vodanovich, 2003). Conscientiousness contains traits like diligent, attentive, vigilant, comprehensive, responsible, systematized and determined (Barrick & Mount, 1991). High conscientiousness personalities are logical, reliable, and risk averter (Goldberg, 1990). These persons are responsible, reliable, determined, cautious, and thorough, who focus on success which is also very significant characteristic for performing work tasks (Barrick & Mount, 1991, 1993).
Neuroticism refers to the degree to which a person is anxious, irritable, temperamental, and moody. Neuroticism is the opposite of emotional stability and is associated with behaviours such as being depressed, angry, embarrassed, emotional, worried and insecure (McCrae & Costa, 1985). It is a tendency to experience unpleasant emotions relatively easily. Its components are anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness and impulsiveness. It is perhaps the only Big Five dimension where scoring high is undesirable. People high on Neuroticism have a tendency to have emotional adjustment problems and habitually experience stress and depression. People very high in Neuroticism experience a number of problems at work. For example, they have trouble forming and maintaining relationships and are less likely to be someone people go to for advice and friendship (Klein et al., 2004). They tend to be habitually unhappy in their jobs and report high intentions to leave, but they do not necessarily actually leave their jobs (Judge et al., 2002). People who are high in this factor are faced with effect of decreasing cognitive and performance capacities (Mathews et al., 1991), they have increasing probability of errors, they are more distracted from the task at hand (Hansen, 1989), they have the tendency to experience greater stress symptoms, they tend to be pre-occupied with their anxieties and worries and there is also evidence that they do not seek active control of the environment (Judge, 1993). Being high in Neuroticism seems to be harmful to one’s career, as these employees have lower levels of career success. Finally, if they achieve managerial jobs, they tend to create an unfair climate at work (Mayer et al., 2007). "Neuroticism signifies variances of individual tendency to experience suffering and is defined as emotionally insecure and uneven" (McCrae & John, 1992). People high on Neuroticism possess traits such as being annoyed, stressed, sulky, unsociable, nervous, embarrassed, uncertain, doubtful, unconfident, fearful, and dejected (Barrick
& Mount, 1991, 1993). They have no belief and faith on others (Goldberg, 1990), and have no social expertise to handle the situations that claim to take control (Judge, Locke & Durham, 1997). Again, they also lack confidence and self-image (McCrae & Costa, 1991). Negative affectivity is linked with Neuroticism (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). In contrast, people who are low on Neuroticism—those who have a positive affective disposition—tend to experience positive moods more often than negative moods. They tend to be more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their companies (Connolly and Viswesvaran, 2000). Thus, it seems that low Neuroticism is a strong advantage in the workplace.

**Openness to experience** describes the extent to which a person is curious, original, imaginative, intellectual, creative, open to new ideas, unconventional and broadminded. Highly open people can be described as being cultured, original, intelligent, and artistically sensitive (McCrae & Costa, 1985). They have positive disposition towards learning (Salgado, 2002). Openness to experience also suggests an attraction to new ideas, concepts, actions, or feelings (Niehoff, 2006). They also have an advantage when they enter into a new organization. Their open-mindedness leads them to seek a lot of information and feedback about how they are doing and to build relationships, which leads to quicker adjustment to the new job (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). When given support, they tend to be creative (Baer & Oldham, 2006). Open people are highly adaptable to change, and teams that experience unforeseen changes in their tasks do well if they are populated with people high in openness (LePine, 2003). Persons with higher levels of openness are likely to achieve greater efficiency at work, because they pursue opportunities to learn new perspectives and deal with ambiguous situations. Furthermore, an employee with an open personality should tend to be task based, constantly searching for new methods
to complete his or her work (Stewart & Nandkeolyar, 2006), which again should strengthen working efficiency. "Openness to Experience is correlated to technical and innovativeness, deviating approach, and political moderation" (Judge et al., 2002; Feist 1998). Persons who are extraordinary in openness to experience have the propensity to better suite other dimensions (Costa & McCrae, 1988) Openness to Experience is also referred to as ‘double-edged sword’ because it prompts personalities to have intense good feelings as well as intense bad feelings (DeNeve and Cooper, 1998). It represents the influence of openness directed towards affective responses such as subjective well-being (Judge et al., 2002). Compared with people low in openness, they are also more likely to start their own business (Zhao & Seibert, 2006). The potential downside is that they may also be prone to becoming more easily bored or impatient with routine.

The Big Five traits as described by Goldberg (1990) are shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>Curious, original, intellectual, creative and open to new ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consciousness</td>
<td>Organized, systematic, punctual, achievement oriented, and dependable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>Outgoing, talkative, sociable, and enjoys being in social situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>Affable, tolerant, sensitive, trusting, kind, and warm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>Anxious, irritable, temperamental, and moody.</td>
</tr>
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*Fig. 1.3: Big-Five Personality Traits*

1.11 JOB ATTITUDES

How we behave at work often depends on how we feel about being there. Therefore, making sense of how people behave depends on understanding their work attitudes. An attitude refers to our opinions, beliefs, and feelings about aspects of our environment. We have attitudes towards the food we eat, people we meet, courses we take, and things we do. Allport (1935) defined an attitude as a mental or neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence on the individual’s response to all objects and situations to which it is related. Work attitudes refer to the positive or negative evaluations that employees hold about various facets of their work environment. At work, three job attitudes have the greatest potential to influence how we behave. These are job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment.

1.11.1 Job Satisfaction

Organizations strongly desire job satisfaction from their employees (Oshagbemi, 2003). A satisfied workforce is essential for the success of organizations and their businesses. Dissatisfied employees make organizations dysfunctional in businesses, damaging their financial performance. Due to important role of human resource on organizational performance, organizations try to keep employees satisfied. Satisfied employees would produce superior performance in optimal time which leads to increase profits. When employees are satisfied with their work, they would be more creative and innovative and offer advances that allow company to evolve positively over time with changes in market conditions. On the other hand, a lack of job satisfaction results in a low level of employee commitment that, in turn, affect performance and the achievement of organizational goals. Farrell and Stamm (1988) concluded that high employee satisfaction will reduce the happening of the
absenteeism, accident, and employee stress, improve employee satisfaction with life and thus increase productivity and profits. Employees’ job satisfaction in organizations and institutions has been given close attention by researchers since mid-20th century after the emergence of Maslow’s theory of need hierarchy in 1943.

Job Satisfaction is the extent to which an employee is content or happy with various aspects of her/his job. It is a subjective evaluation of work by the employees, as reflected in their decision to accept a job and staying therein. It results in hard work put in by the employees for performing their jobs (Clark, 1998). The study of job satisfaction started with Mayo’s study of productivity at the Western Electric Hawthorne plant at Chicago in 1933. Since then job satisfaction has been studied by many researchers including Mobley et al. (1979); Price and Mueller (1981); Bluedorn (1982) and Mowday et al. (1982) among others.

Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as “complex emotional reactions to the job”. It refers to a positive feeling about one’s job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics. It is a pleasurable emotional state that results from an individual appraisal of one’s job. Porter et al. (1974) viewed job satisfaction as the sum total of individual’s met expectations. Job Satisfaction has also been defined as the extent of the positive affective orientation towards a job (Blegen and 1987). According to Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), job satisfaction represents a person's evaluation of the job and the work context. Spector (1997) defined Job Satisfaction as the liking or disliking behavior of the employee towards the job. It is an affective, cognitive or attitudinal response to work with significant organizational outcomes. He considered job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable which reveals the extent to which an individual likes his job and it is always positively related to job performance. According to Spector, Job satisfaction basically depends on rewards,
other people, nature of work and organizational context. Oshagbemi (2000) defines Job Satisfaction as “an emotional response that occurs as a result of the interaction between the worker’s values concerning his/her job and the profits he/she has gained from his/her job”. Job satisfaction has been also defined as the extent to which an employee has favorable or positive feelings about work and work environment (DeNobile, 2003). It refers to the feelings people have towards their job. Robbins (2003) defines job satisfaction as the general attitude of an individual towards his/her job. It is the pleasurable state that the worker attains from his job and job experience (Tantiverdi, 2008). Studies have shown that employees at higher positions have greater job satisfaction than those at lower positions and employees who receive higher incentives show higher satisfaction (Schermerhorn et al., 2003)

Job satisfaction can be defined either as the overall or general job satisfaction of an employee or as the satisfaction with certain facets of job such as the work itself, co-workers, supervision, pay, working conditions, company policies, procedures and opportunities for promotion (Smith et al., 1969). Accordingly it may be measured either as the general or overall satisfaction of an employee with the job or it may be measured as the satisfaction of an employee with the various work facets such as work itself, pay, promotion, supervisor, peers. Dong (2006) links job satisfaction to two factors- situational (extrinsic) and personal (intrinsic). Situational factors include pay, opportunities for promotion, working conditions and job characteristics such as task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy and feedback (Heller et al., 2002). Personal factors include personal disposition, traits, self esteem, motivation and emotion (Dorman and Zapf, 2001). Employees with high job satisfaction exhibit high energy, pleasurable engagement, and enthusiasm while employees with
dissatisfaction show distress, unpleasant engagement, and nervousness (Heller et al., 2002).

Luthans (2005) identified three dimensions to job satisfaction. According to the first dimension, job satisfaction cannot be observed directly but only inferences can be made about it from the behaviour of the employees. The second dimension signifies that it is determined by the extent to which employees needs or expectations are fulfilled by their jobs. Finally, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes. For the organizations, job satisfaction of its workers means a workforce that is motivated and committed to high quality performance. It is an area of concern for both managers and researchers because it significantly affects major outcomes such as performance, productivity, absenteeism and employee turnover.

1.11.2 Job Involvement

Job involvement measures the degree to which people identify psychologically with their job & consider their perceived performance level important to self worth. Individuals have been described as job involved if they view it as important to their life interest (Dubin, 1956) and perceive performance as central to their self-esteem (Gurin et al., 1960). As stated by Dubin (1956) (as cited in Saleh and James, 1976), job involvement is the degree to which a job situation is central of life interest. It reflects the significance individuals attach to having and performing work (Elloy and Terpening, 1992). Therefore, work involvement constitutes an important motivational variable that is of interest to organizations, especially in the new economy, which imposes the need for full mobilization of the human resources (Gore, 2001). Vroom (1962) describes a person as ego-involved in a job by the level of his self-esteem which is affected by his perceived level of performance.
Other conceptual way of describing job involvement is the “degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work” or “the importance of work in his total self image” (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Such a psychological identification with work may result partly from early socialization training during which the individual may internalize the value of goodness of work. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) emphasized that during the process of socialization, certain work values are injected into the individual that remains even at the later stage in the form of attitude towards job. A fully involved employee would be more willing to perform or perform better than an employee that only engages in his job. In other words, job involvement may influence the employee and organizational outcomes (Ishfaq and Talat, 2011).

Mckelvey and Sekaran(1977) defined job involvement as “the merging of a person’s ego identity with his or her job”. According to Mckelvey and Sekaran (1977), individual often have a strong desire to satisfy the need for ego identity and development in their job. Rabinowitz et al. (1977) stated that an individual who have strong work ethic would probably be highly “job involved”. Rabinowitz et al. also mentioned that job involvement is an individual difference variable. Either primarily an attribute of the person or a response to the work environment. Some employees might require a number of needs, values or traits that led them to become involved in their jobs (Rabinowitz et al., 1977).

Kanungo (1982) defined Job Involvement as a simple and distinct identification with a job or work. It is the extent to which an individual is generally interested in, identifies with, and is pre-occupied with one’s work in comparison to other aspects of one’s life. He viewed job involvement as a catalyst to satisfy the individual present’s needs. In one of his research, he referred job involvement as an individual’s psychological commitment or identification to his or her job. Kanungo
stated that positive state of involvement would imply a relatively complete state of engagement in self aspect of the job where as a state of alienation implied a loss of individuality and separation of the self from the work environment. It is a cognitive state of psychological identification either in the context of a particular job or with work in general. Kanungo further pointed out that job involvement depends on employee’s perceptions of the job’s potential to satisfy their extrinsic and intrinsic needs.

According to Freeman et al. (2000), in an organization, employees who are truly involved in their jobs are likely to perceive the industrial relations more positively and have greater trust towards the company. Job involvement can also be defined as the enthusiasm of a person towards his or her job (Pollock, 1997). Pollock believed that people who like and are interested with their jobs are more likely to perform their works effectively and productively compared to those who dislike their current jobs. If the employees could be engendered with the feeling of importance of their contributions to their tasks on hand, a feeling of pride would arise and involvement in producing the products and services would be increased (Nelson, 1993). Mudrack (2004) explained that highly involved people have the tendency of not to give up easily, they might feel almost like a moral obligation to be involved with their jobs, and might tend to be set in their way. In this sense, these highly involved people would do whatever they could to overcome the difficulties they face at their work because the moral obligation would drive these people committed to involve in their jobs.

Elankumaran (2004) mentioned that an individual involved in his/her job would care about the tasks to be undertaken; thus in order to improve the degree of job involvement of an individual, he/she must have a realistic view of what work
values determined it from the individual stand point. Hung (2008) stated that job involvement is one’s cognitive needs’ fulfilment, which assists him or her to work harder and boost up his or her performance. Job involvement is a key aspect in the lives of the people on the job.

According to the latest job involvement’s research, Uygur and Kilic (as cited in Khalid and Rashid Rehman, 2011) described job involvement as motivation to carry out work and it is highly compatible between personal and organizational goals, which stimulates motivation among the employees to generate positive work outcomes. Undoubtedly, there are many factors contributing to the employees’ job involvement, where the most general factors are employee’s motivation, employees’ personality, training and job characteristics. As regards Rabinowitz et al. (1977), job involvement is less likely to be influenced by organizational factors but more likely to be influenced by personal characteristics.

1.11.3 Organizational commitment

Organizational Commitment can be defined as the degree to which employee identifies with its organization & wishes to maintain membership with it. It is the emotional attachment people have towards the company they work for. A highly committed employee is one who accepts and believes in the company’s values, is willing to put out effort to meet the company’s goals, and has a strong desire to remain with the company. People who are committed to their company often refer to their company as “we” as opposed to “they” as in “in this company, we are very happy”. The way an employee refers to the company indicates the type of attachment and identification he has with the company. There is a high degree of overlap between job satisfaction and organizational commitment because things that make us happy with our job often make us more committed to the company as well. Companies
believe that these attitudes are worth tracking because they often are associated with outcomes that are important to the controlling role, such as performance, helping others, absenteeism, and turnover. Organizational commitment is considered to be an individual’s affirmative alignment towards the organization. It explains an employee’s identification with the organization and his/her desire to continue his association with the organization to fulfil the organizational goals. In times of intense competition, it is highly desirable to retain a competent workforce as they are responsible for multiplying productivity, efficiency and effectiveness, and hence organizational commitment is one factor which is very important and worth developing in employees.

Reference to organizational commitment was first found in workplace literature starting in the 1960s. During this time, commitment was studied primarily as behaviour (Klein et al., 2009) and operationalized as loyalty, reaction to rewards and commitment to future actions. In 1980s commitment research was expanded to include proposed relationships with other constructs such as job satisfaction and turnover. The construct was also expanded to include areas such as commitment to multiple targets, cognitive aspects of commitment, and multiple bases of commitment (Klein, et al., 2009).

Despite the plethora of studies on organizational commitment, there has been lack of consensus on its definition (Reichers, 1985; Meyer and Allen, 1991; and Jaros et al, 1993). There are differences among the scholars (Jaros et al., 1993; Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett et al., 1994; Iverson & Roy, 1994; Cohen & Kirchmeyer, 1995) regarding the definition of organizational commitment. The dimensionality of OC has also added to the confusion surrounding the definitions and conceptualisation of OC (Meyer and Allen, 1997). There are very few studies conducted to explore different
perspectives of organizational commitment (Dunham et al., 1994). The attitudinal perspective is one of the highly explored variables in behavioural studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Some research studies have conceptualised OC as either attitudinal or behavioural (Becker, 1960; Mowday et al., 1982 and Wiener, 1982) while others have shown it to be multidimensional in nature (Reichers, 1985; and Allen and Meyer, 1990). Staw (1980) also stated that while examining the organizational commitment one should view the organizational commitment through the perspective of organizational behaviour (attitudinal view) and through the perspective of social psychology (behavioural view). While multiple definitions of organizational commitment have been proposed, they all consider commitment as a psychological state that describes an employee’s relationship with their organization and a propensity to continue the relationship with the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997). The differences between the constructs are primarily concerned with the psychological base being described. Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment to address these differences.

According to Porter (1968), Organizational commitment refers to the readiness of an employee to apply elevated levels of hard work on behalf of the organization, acceptance of its key goals, standards, principles, ethics and values and a sturdy aspiration to stay with the organization. Raju and Srivastava (1984) and Mowday (1998) described organizational commitment as a factor that promotes attachment of an individual to the organization. Employees are regarded as committed to the organization if they willingly continue their association with the organization and undertake considerable efforts to reach organizational goals. OC is considered as potential force or motivating force for directing membership, inspiring adequate role performance and encouraging innovative and spontaneous behaviour. Kanter (1968)
proposed three different commitments such as continuance, cohesion, and control commitment.

The three factor model as described by Meyer and Allen (1984) combined sub-factors of commitment such as affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. Affective commitment is the emotional attachment to an organization. It refers to the positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in the work organization (Meyer and Allen, 1984). Continuous commitment is defined as the extent to which employees feel committed to their organizations by virtue of the costs that they feel are associated with leaving (Meyer and Allen, 1984). Normative commitment refers to commitment based on a sense of obligation to the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1996). A person could feel any combination of these three commitment components in various degrees. The notion of organizational commitment has been acknowledged considerably both from the scientists of the behavioural studies and from the managers. Three basic forms of commitment as defined by various researchers are discussed hereunder.

According to Hartmann and Bambacas (2000), affective commitment refers to the sense of affection and feelings of attachment to the organization and has been associated with work experiences, individual traits and organizational structures. It refers to an employee’s emotional attachment to an organization. Employees who possess a strong level of affective commitment continue to stay at an organization because they want to. The concept of affective commitment has its roots in several earlier conceptualizations of commitment. Kanter (1968) described commitment as “the attachment of an individual’s fund of affectivity and emotion to the group,” while Buchanan (1974) referred to “a partisan affective attachment to the goals and values of the organization”. Mowday et al. (1979) defined it as “the relative strength of an
individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization”. Meyer and Allen (1997) have reviewed the antecedents and found that job challenge, degree of autonomy, variety of skills used, role ambiguity, role conflict, participation in decision making, fairness of policies and treatment, personal fulfilment, employee manager relationship and personal competence play an important role in the development of affective commitment. Mowday et al. (1982) have identified four categories of antecedents to Organizational Commitment: personal characteristics, role related characteristics, structural characteristics and work experiences. Though vast range of variables has been identified as antecedents of affective commitment, they are typically organised into three broad categories as organizational characteristics, individual characteristics, and work experiences. Organizational characteristics such as decentralization have been shown to be associated with the development of affective commitment. Researches indicate that individual characteristics as antecedents of affective commitment are primarily divided into two categories, demographic differences and dispositional differences (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Demographic differences such as age, gender, marital status, education level, and organization tenure have all been investigated with no definitive result (Meyer & Allen, 1997) as have certain dispositional differences such as perception of competence.

Continuance commitment refers to consciousness of the costs related to parting with the organization or job (Meyer et al., 1993). Employees with elevated level of continuance commitment stay with the organization as they are aware of the need, risks, sacrifices, and low options associated with leaving. Continuance Commitment in the Meyer and Allen model posits that individuals are aware of the costs of leaving an organization and they then stay at the organization because they
are not able to leave (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Development of continuance commitment involves the evaluation of two types of information, investments and alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees who possess this form of commitment continue to work productively as a result of cultural familiarity and organizational ethics that direct their behaviour; they remain with the organization not out of loyalty or natural beliefs but because they have no job alternatives or are too interested in the organization to leave. The concept of continuance commitment also has roots conceptually in previously defined explanations of commitment. Becker (1960) proposed a definition of commitment that was rooted in a type of cost analysis between investments in and cost of leaving work. Kanter (1968) also proposed it to be "profit associated with continued participation and cost of leaving." Investments are those actions that an individual takes that link them to the organization because of what might be forfeited if they are not committed. Examples of investments include time, money, effort, and even organizational citizenship behaviours. The perception that there is an investment that would be lost if an individual left the organization leads to the development of continuance commitment. The second type of information that is evaluated that leads to the development of continuance commitment is that of alternatives, specifically in terms of alternate work opportunities. Perceptions of alternatives can be based on external factors such as job market conditions or the economy. They can also be based on internal factors such as perceived ability to get another job and perceived competence in the field (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Normative commitment refers to a sense of requirement to continue employment. Employees with elevated level of normative commitment believe that they have to remain in the organization or job as they feel it as right (Meyer et al., 1993). It is the level to which a person is psychologically associated with the
organization through internalisations of its vision, goals, objectives, principles, values and missions. According to Wiener (1982), normative commitment is the result of a combination of internalized experiences resulting from cultural and early organizational socialization experiences. It is a desire to stay with an organization based on a sense of duty, loyalty or moral obligations. Normative commitment has been described as "behaviours that are socially acceptable that exceed formal authority" (Wiener & Gechman, 1977) or "the moral obligation to stay with the company" (Marsh and Mannari, 1977). Normative Commitment describes individuals who stay in an organization because it is "the right and moral thing to do" (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The development of Normative Commitment is thought to evolve from pressure that individuals feel from their interactions within an organization and their internalization of those feelings. The internalization can be based on a belief about the appropriate level of loyalty that is supported by the organizational culture (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Riketta (2002) while identifying the reason of high level of research interest in attitudinal perspective pointed out that the organizational commitment has a great impact on almost all the behaviours related to the organizations like; staying with the organization, attendance and performance, etc. These findings of Riketta (2002) are in line with the work of Matheiu & Zajac (1990); Meyer & Allen (1997); Mowday et al. (1982) and Randall (1990).

1.12 WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Work Family Conflict shall be another variable under study. It is defined as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role”
(Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Work-family conflict and family-work conflict are defined as “forms of friction in which role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respects” (Cinamon & Rich, 2002).

Researchers suggested that work-family conflict and family-work conflict are distinct but related forms of role conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-family conflict is defined as conflict that arises due to work responsibilities interfering with family responsibilities; family-work conflict is defined as conflict that arises due to family responsibilities interfering with work responsibilities. Netemeyer et al. (1996) described work-family conflict as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family-related responsibilities” (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Similarly, family-work conflict is described as “a form of inter-role conflict in which general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the family interfere with performing work-related responsibilities” (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Work-family conflict can arise as a result of demands at work making it more difficult to accomplish tasks associated with one’s family. Tasks related to family can include childcare, the care of an aging parent, household responsibilities, as well as additional responsibilities that may arise as a result of one’s role within the family. Work related tasks encompass hours of paid work, and can additionally include overtime work, work related travel, and work obligations that are fulfilled at home. Work-family conflict can also be thought of as a form of conflict in which, “role pressures associated with membership in one organization are in conflict with pressures stemming from membership in other groups” (Kahn et al., 1964). From a work-family perspective, this type of conflict reflects the degree to which work demands interfere with family responsibilities. Similar to work-family conflict, family-work conflict occurs when responsibilities
associated with one’s family roles interfere with work related demands. The demands of a role can be thought of as the responsibilities, requirements, expectations, duties, and commitments associated with the given role. In the case of family-work conflict, demands associated with family, such as childcare or the care of an aging parent, interfere with work demands. Conflict results in an incompatibility between role demands in both work and family domains. In other words, “participation in the family (work) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the work (family) role” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Work-family conflict is common and detrimental for workers and organizations. It negatively affects the different members of the work organization as well as members of the family. Consequences of work-family conflict as identified in research studies are poor work performance and decrease in productivity due to tardiness, absenteeism, excessive use of the telephone, absence in meetings, difficulty in concentrating leading to higher turnover, lower commitment, and poorer work morale. It is associated with dissatisfaction and stress at work and home (Frone, Yardley, and Markel, 1997), negative health outcomes (Frone, Russell, and Cooper, 1997), absenteeism and employee turnover (Glass and Estes, 1997). The experience of work family conflict and role strain have also been found to be related to poor physical health, increased depression, physical ailments, increased somatic complaints, hypertension, lower energy levels, lower life satisfaction, lower quality of family life. The research of Duxbury and Higgins (2001) has shown that work and family conflicts are both an issue for the employer and the employee and that the inability to have this resolved will lead to outcomes of marital problems, reduced family and life satisfaction, and as such will affect the general health and wellbeing of the employees due to stress, burnout, and depression. The meta-analyses by Allen et
al. (2000) and Kossek and Ozeki (1998) found a negative relationship between work-family conflict and marital satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. Hence research evidence strongly suggests that work-family conflict is related to employee health and well-being and also to a couple of negative outcomes at work place.

Individuals experiencing work-family conflict, however, do not wait passively for work family conflict to decrease. Rather, they look for ways to satisfy the demands of work and family while minimizing work-family conflict (Barnett and Lundgren 1998; Kossek et al. 1999; Moen and Wethington 1992; Voydanoff 2002). Eliminating work-family conflict is the responsibility of both the organization and its employees. Keith H. Hammonds (1996) quoted Ellen Galinsky saying that “Companies are seeing they have all these programs (i.e. work-family policies), but people are still really stressed out”. Certainly, employees bear some responsibility for determining their own family balance. But the companies can help the employees in managing the conflict. Companies that recognize the need and adapt work to peoples’ lives will win workers’ loyalty and with that a competitive edge.

1.13 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

Further, stress is another serious health problem within many occupational groups with possible implications for work performance and safety. Certain characteristics of the work of aircrew are assumed to be particularly stressful. It includes shift and night work, a high responsibility for safety, the fact that errors and mistakes may have disastrous consequences and most importantly unwearingly managing in case of any emergencies. Several studies have examined stress and various physiological stress reactions in this occupational group. However, so far very few studies have examined stress within this occupational group with reliable
and valid measures of the construct. In the present context, it seems logical to include this facet in our research.

Stress, an integral part of human existence, is said to have an immense influence over the lives of individuals and effectiveness and efficiency of the organization where they work. Stress can be defined as an imbalance between an individual’s perceived environmental demands and their perceived ability to deal with these demands, and is generally thought to be subjective in nature, rather than objective (McGrath, 1970; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The term stress is derived from the Latin word *stringere*, which means ‘to draw tight’, and was used in this way in the 17th century to describe a hardship or an affliction (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997). Later in the 18th century the term stress referred primarily to an individual’s ‘force, pressure, strain or strong effort’. It was these early definitions used in physics and engineering that began to influence the notion that stress may affect individuals, where forces are seen to exert pressure on an individual, producing strain (Hinkle, 1977).

Selye (1976) defined stress as a non specific response of the body to any demands made upon it. Stress is a psychological reaction to problems, threats, opportunities and challenges faced by an individual when the outcome is both important and uncertain. Stress is inevitable in human lives (Pestonjee, 1999). It is a dynamic condition that arises when an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand for which the outcome is perceived to be important and uncertain (Robbins & Sanghi, 2006). The organizational and work related factors do not lead to stress unless perceived as stressful by the individual employees. The subjective perception of individual is dependent on various psychological and biological factors which differ from individual to individual (Swanson & Power,
Individual differences in personality, demography and consequent work performance mediate between the objective environment and its subjective experience leading to varied levels of stress for different individuals. The individual employees would differ in the way they react to stress and use various psychological, demographic, and other factors do play a crucial role to adjust the level of stress among the employees.

Harrison (1976) argues that stress results from a lack of conformity between a person and his/her environment i.e. when a person is not able to cope with the constraints or demands encountered. In his theory of person-environment fit, Harrison emphasised that there are two kinds of fit between an individual and their environment: the extent to which the skills and abilities of the individual match the demands required of them and the extent to which the environment matches the individual’s needs. Harrison suggested that when a misfit of either of these two measures of P-E fit arises, health strains will result. Thus, in this model stress is not defined in terms of the environment or the individual, but rather in terms of the degree of misfit between them. Further Stress process was viewed as being relational, as a result of a transaction between the individual and the environment, where stress will arise when the demands encountered by an individual are appraised or perceived as exceeding the resources available to them, threatening their well-being (Lazarus, 1966, 1990; Lazarus & Launier, 1978). This transactional theory of stress emphasises identifying processes that link the individual to the environment. In this approach, the emphasis is on the ‘transaction’ – that is, realising that stress does not rely solely on the individual or the environment but that it is an ongoing process that involves the individual transacting with their environment (Cooper et al., 2001). The Transactional
model of stress as proposed by Lazarus (1966), suggest that stress results from the transaction or the interaction between the individual and the environment.

The amount of stress present in a job is related to employee satisfaction and commitment. Stressors range from environmental ones (noise, heat, inadequate ventilation) to interpersonal ones (organizational politics, conflicts with co-workers) to organizational ones (pressure to avoid making mistakes, worrying about the security of the job). Some jobs, such as intensive care unit nurse and military fighter pilot, are inherently very stressful. Another source of stress has to do with the roles people are expected to fulfil on and off the job. Role ambiguity is uncertainty about what our responsibilities are in the job. Role conflict involves contradictory demands at work; it can also involve conflict between fulfilling one’s role as an employee and other roles in life, such as the role of parent, friend, or community volunteer. Generally speaking, the higher the stress level, the lower job satisfaction tends to be. But not all stress is bad, and some stressors actually make us happier!

Stress has been found to be a strong predictor of personal and work related outcomes. It can be defined as a physiological and psychological reaction to relatively excessive demands made on a person. It can be classified into two broad categories as personal stress and occupational stress. Kahn et al. (1964) was the first to describe organizational stress in general and role stress in particular. Cooper and Marshall (1978) identified over 40 interacting factors which could be identified as sources of work stress. They grouped these into categories and proposed six major causes of stress at work. These six major categories are identified as factors intrinsic to the job, role in the organization, relationships at work, career development, organizational structure and climate, organizational interface with outside.
Consensus emerges in much of the literature as to what the major consequences (or outcomes/strains) of occupational stress are. Most researchers agree that strains can be classified into three major types: psychological, physical, and behavioural. The first major type of strain resulting from stressors is that of psychological strain (also referred to as psychological health). Harrison (1978) posed that strain refers to the deviation from normal responses and that psychological strain included responses such as job dissatisfaction, depression, lowered self-esteem and unsolved problems. The second major strain resulting from exposure to stressors is that of physical strain which is hypothesised to manifest in symptoms such as high blood pressure, changes in blood eosinophils, and elevated serum cholesterol (Harrison, 1978). Finally, the third classification of strain is that of behavioural strain. Quick et al. (1986) suggest that behavioural changes are among the earliest and most easily recognised signs of increases in stress. Research has associated increased cigarette smoking, increased alcohol and recreational drug abuse, violence, stuttering, overeating, and frequent utilisation of health care services as symptoms of behavioural strain (Harrison, 1978; Quick et al., 1986; Edwards et al., 1998). Understanding, preventing and managing stress is extremely important for promoting human well being and enhancing individual and organizational effectiveness.

1.14 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

1. **Aviation Industry:** Aviation is the practical aspect or art of aeronautics, being the design, development, production, operation and use of aircraft, especially heavier-than-air aircraft (Wikipedia, 2014). Aviation industry or business comprise of the companies involved in air transport (Collinsdictionary.com, 2014).
2. **Professional**: According to MacMillian Dictionary, a professional is someone who has special skills or qualifications. He is the one who is engaged in a given activity as a source of livelihood or as a career (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2014). For the purpose of present study, professionals refers to the employees who have acquired special skills and expertise to enable themselves to work in Aviation Industry (e.g. Air Crew including Pilots, Navigators, Flying Stewards, Air hostesses, In flight technicians and engineers; Ground view services such as Air traffic controlling, cargo handling, security management, customer relationship management, airport services, aircraft maintenance and other support services; administrative services such as finance, accounts, marketing, HR services, IT services and public relations).

3. **Job Attitudes**: According to Judge et al. (2012), Job attitudes refer to set of evaluations of one’s job that constitute one’s feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one’s job (Wikipedia, 2014). It refers to positive or negative evaluations that employees hold about various facets of their work environment. For the purpose of present study, three job attitudes that have the greatest potential to influence the behaviour of employees have been identified and used namely job satisfaction, job environment and organizational commitment.

### 1.15 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The fundamental objective of this study is to determine the relationship between personality and job attitudes in Aviation Industry. A better understanding of the personality profiles and work place attitudes of professionals entering civil aviation may help develop better selection, training, and safety programs for the civil aviation industry. Use of personality measures in the selection of professionals in
aviation will definitely reap potential benefits. Even if personality criteria are not formalized, self-selection together with formal selection will ultimately result in increased homogeneity of people belonging to the same organization in terms of personality. The present research makes a contribution by way of adding new knowledge to the application of personality theory to aviation employees’ work attitudes which in turn can pave the way for better management of human assets in this budding industry. Application of the results would definitely throw light on this relatively unexplored section of civil aviation industry which offers career opportunities that suit many interests and backgrounds but at the same time search for amalgam of certain personality traits along with a skill set that best suit the challenging and unique work environment. It is further anticipated that the study would provide worthy information not only to academic community, but also to practitioners that would facilitate them to make knowledgeable managerial decisions. Hence, the study exploring the relationship between specific personality traits and work attitudes boast ample implication in the mounting industry. Although a great deal of effort within the aviation community has been focused on ensuring technical expertise, research on the role of positive job attitudes in this inimitable industry is quite meagre. Looking into the significance of Human capital for this industry, the present study explores this esoteric facet of Indian Aviation industry.

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