CHAPTER-I
INTRODUCTION

The industrial world is becoming increasingly globalised day-by-day. In order to meet the challenges posed by the competitive economies world over, effective and the efficient management of human resources has gained more importance than before not only to compete but also to survive and sustain. Organizations are aiming at optimal use of their resources to enhance productivity and competitiveness, besides interventions like diversification, new technology by equalization and introduction of new systems. In such circumstances, it has been observed by the researchers that eventually much of the results depend upon human inputs. Thus, a critical issue in work settings that has been agitating the mind of all concerned including behavioural scientists, economists, management practitioners and also floor managers is to get maximum output with available human potential at work place. Behavioural scientists have been concentrating on certain psychological attributes and work relevant behaviours.

The quality and quantity of work performance have been the point of prime importance for behavioural scientists. In recent years, with accumulating research in the field of organizational behaviour, serious attempts have been conducted on the development of conceptual models seeking explanation for a number of important and complex work related behaviours. It has amply been demonstrated that up-gradation of infrastructure, tools and machinery alone does not work until the human behaviour related factors are not taken into account. It has well been realized that desired goal/output can only be obtained if individuals perform the tasks entrusted to them at workplace and possess desired personal attributes, attitudes and other perceived
organisational factors. The entire problem revolves around understanding, explaining, predicting and changing human behaviour in the organizational context. Organizational behaviour approach demands that understanding of employees’ complex behaviour needs/requires empirical research before application can be made for managing people effectively. Since its inception, the micro side of organizational behaviour has considered individual performance as primary dependent variable which is affected by many psychological factors like self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, emotional intelligence, job involvement, job satisfaction and perceived organisational climate.

1. **Job Performance:**

   Job Performance is a widely used, discussed and researched term in the areas of Human Resources Management, Industrial and Organisational Psychology. It refers to whether an individual performs well in his job or not. Performance is a very important issue for an individual, organisation and nation as well. Low level of performance results in to non-achievement of organizational goals and is regarded as a personal failure. On the contrary, carrying out jobs by performing at a high level is a source of satisfaction to an individual, achievement of targets for the organisation and production for the nation ultimately gives feelings of mastery and self-importance. High level of job performance is recognized in the organization by way of rewarding with financial and other promotional benefits. Performance is a major, although not the only, prerequisite for future career development and success in the labour market. Although there might be exceptions, high performers get promoted more easily within an organization and generally have better career opportunities than low performers (VanScotter et al., 2000). Showing high performance when accomplishing tasks results in satisfaction, feelings of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997 and Kanfer, 2005).
High performing individuals get promoted, awarded and honoured. Career opportunities for individuals who perform well are much better than those of moderate or low performing individuals (VanScotter, 2000).

Job performance is an important dependent variable of interest to educators, business houses, the government and society at large. Researchers and businesses are just now reaching consensus on common definitions and conceptualizations of individual level job performance.

Viswesvaran (2000) pointed out that job performance is the core construct of today’s work-setting which is making it an important research problem. As such, knowing details of the concept has gained importance. Study of job performance explains that how employees are working, what kind of training programs should be prescribed for them? Most of the placement decisions depend on the job performance.

Smith (1976) has deliberated upon some of the problems with various definitions of job performance and stressed that an accurate measure of job performance includes the direct observation of behaviour. It is those behaviours that are related to the goals of the organization. Job performance should be defined in terms of behaviours rather than results because results-based measures are not always functional to the organization as employees may try to maximize results at the expense of other things (Murphy, 1989). Performance is a set of outcomes produced during a certain period of time and does not refer to traits and other personal characteristics of the performer (Romanoff, 1989). Performance is those actions and behaviours which are under the control of the individual that contribute to the organization’s goals and that can be measured according to the individual’s level of proficiency (Campbell, 1990). Job performance is also defined as the degree to which
an individual executes his or her role with reference to certain specific standards set by the organizations (Nayyar, 1994).

Individual performance is dynamic in nature. Variations in individual performance are noticed with the passage of time that occur due to learning experiences, other long-term and temporary changes in cognitive and behavioural aspects of individuals. Learning brings changes in the performance of an Individual but performance changes over time are not consistent across individuals. A difference is noted between a transition stage (when individuals are new in a job and when the tasks are novel) and a maintenance stage (when the knowledge and skills needed to perform the job are learned and when task accomplishment becomes automatic) while identifying the processes underlying changes of job performance, (Murphy, 1989). During early phases of skill acquisition, performance relies largely on ‘controlled processing’, the availability of declarative knowledge and the optimal allocation of limited attentive resources, whereas later in the skill acquisition process, performance largely relies on automatic processing, procedural knowledge and psychomotor abilities (Ackerman, 1988 and Kanfer and Ackerman, 1989). Cognitive ability remains highly relevant during the transition phase whereas during maintenance stage, it becomes less important and dispositional factors like motivation, interests and values become more significant. Performance initially increases with increasing time spent in a specific job and later reaches a plateau (Avolio et al., 1990; McDaniel et al., 1988; Quinones et al., 1995).

Kanfer (1990), Borman and Motowidlo (1993), Campbell et al. (1993) and Roe, 1999 have stated that performance can be understood on the basis of differentiation between the aspects of an action i.e., the behavioural aspect and the outcome oriented aspect.
The behavioural aspect refers to what people do while at work, the action itself (Campbell, 1990). Performance encompasses specific behaviours like sales conversations with customers, teaching statistics to undergraduate students, programming computer software, assembling parts of a product. This concept implies that only such actions that can be scaled or counted are regarded as performance (Campbell et al., 1993). This explanation describes that any behaviour cannot be counted under the performance concept, rather such behaviour which is relevant for the organizational goals: “Performance is what the organization hires one to do and do well” (Campbell et al., 1993). Hence, performance is not defined by the action itself but by the judgmental and evaluative processes (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Further, only actions which can be scaled, i.e., measured are considered to constitute performance (Campbell et al., 1993).

The outcome aspect refers to the consequence of the behaviour of an individual. The outcome aspect is affected by other determinants rather than the behavioural aspect. For example, a teacher who provides an excellent statistics lesson which fulfils all learning requirements (behavioural aspect) might not provide students with knowledge (outcome aspect) if students’ lack motivation or the cognitive abilities.

Performance is also a multi-dimensional concept (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Task performance refers to such actions that are part of the formal reward system and addresses the requirements as specified in job descriptions (Williams and Karau, 1991). These actions of an individual contribute to an organization’s performance.
Task performance consists of activities that transform materials into the goods and services produced by the organization to allow for efficient functioning (Motowidlo et al., 1997). It covers the fulfilment of the requirements that are part of the contract between the employer and employees.

Contextual performance refers to a behaviour that does not directly contribute to organizational performance but supports the organizational, social and psychological environment. It indirectly contributes to an organization’s performance by facilitating task performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) specified five categories of contextual performance: (i) volunteering for activities beyond a person's formal job requirements, (ii) persistence of enthusiasm and application when needed to complete important task requirements, (iii) assistance to others, (iv) following rules and prescribed procedures even when it is inconvenient and (v) openly defending organization objectives.

Further, there are three basic differences between task and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo et al., 1997 and Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999): (1) Contextual performance activities are comparable for almost all jobs, whereas task performance is job specific, (2) Task performance is predicted mainly by ability whereas contextual performance is mainly predicted by motivation and personality, (3) Task performance is in-role behaviour and part of the formal job-description whereas contextual performance is extra-role behaviour and discretionary, i.e., not enforceable and often not rewarded by the formal reward systems directly or indirectly considered by the management.

Campbell et al. (1993) initially did not include adaptive performance. However, due to changing and dynamic work environments, the need for adaptive employees has become increasingly important. Pulakos et al. (2000) presented an
eight-dimensional taxonomy of adaptive performance: (1) Handling emergencies or crisis situations; (2) Handling work stress, (3) Solving problems creatively, (4) Dealing with uncertain and unpredictable work situations, (5) Learning work tasks, technologies and procedures, (6) Demonstrating interpersonal adaptability, (7) Demonstrating cultural adaptability and (8) Demonstrating physically oriented adaptability. These dimensions of adaptive performance exist across different types of jobs. Performance has also been studied on the basis of various perspectives. Generally, level one can differentiate between three different perspectives of performance: (1) Individual differences perspective, (2) Situational perspective and (3) Performance regulation perspective.

Individual Differences Perspective focuses on performance difference between individuals and identification of the underlying factors which means that differences in performance between individuals can be explained by individual differences in abilities, personality and motivation. Situational Perspective refers to factors in the individuals’ environment which either stimulate and support or hinder performance. The situational perspective encompasses approaches which focus on workplace factors but also specific motivational approaches which follow. Performance Regulation Perspective refers to focusing on the performance process itself and conceptualizing it as an action process.

2. Personal Attributes:

2.1 Self-esteem:

Self-esteem is a term used to reflect a person's overall emotional evaluation of his or her own worth. It is a judgment of oneself as well as an attitude toward the self. Self-esteem encompasses beliefs, i.e., "I am competent," "I am worthy" and emotions such as triumph, despair, pride and shame.
Self-esteem is a disposition that an individual has which represents his judgment of his own worthiness. In the mid-1960s, Morris Rosenberg and social-learning theorists defined self-esteem as personal worth or worthiness. Nathaniel Branden in 1969 defined self-esteem as "the experience of being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and being worthy of happiness". Branden further says that self-esteem is the sum of self-confidence (a feeling of personal capacity) and self-respect (a feeling of personal worth). It exists as a consequence of the implicit judgment that every person has of his ability to face life's challenges, to understand and solve problems and his right to achieve happiness and be given respect.

Self-esteem is the evaluative aspect of the self-concept that corresponds to an overall view of the self as worthy or unworthy (Baumeister, 1998). This is embodied in classic definition of self-esteem Coopersmith (1967) which describes it as the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval and indicates the extent to which an individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy.

In short, self-esteem is a personal judgment of the worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds towards himself. Self-esteem is an attitude about the self and is related to personal beliefs about skills, abilities, social relationships and future outcomes.

It is important to distinguish self-esteem from the more general term self-concept, because the two terms often are used interchangeably. Self-concept refers to the totality of cognitive beliefs that people have about themselves; it is everything that is known about the self and includes things such as name, race, likes, dislikes, beliefs, values and appearance descriptions, such as height and weight. On the other hand, self-esteem is the emotional response that people experience as they contemplate and
evaluate different things about themselves. Although self-esteem is related to self-concept, it is possible for people to believe objectively positive things (such as acknowledging skills in academics, athletics or arts) but continue to not really like themselves.

Self-esteem is a personal evaluation reflecting what people think of themselves as individuals. Self-esteem refers to an individual’s overall self-evaluation of his/her competencies (Rosenberg, 1965). It is self-evaluation and descriptive conceptualization that individuals make and maintain with regard to themselves. Self-esteem reflects the degree to which an individual sees himself as a competent, need-satisfying individual (Korman, 1970).

Individuals high in global self-esteem agree with statements like “I am a person of worth, on an equal plane with others” and “I am satisfied with myself”. The self-esteem construct is usually conceptualized as a hierarchical phenomenon. As such, it exists at different levels of specificity, commonly seen in terms of global and task or situation-specific self-esteem (Simpson and Boyle, 1975). As a multifaceted conceptualization of the self, scholars generally agree that self-esteem may also develop around a number of other dimensions (e.g., the social, physical, academic and moral-self).

**Organization-Based Self-Esteem**

Pierce et al. (1989) introduced the concept of organization-based self-esteem. *Organization-based self-esteem* (OBSE) is defined as the degree to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable, significant and worthy as an organization member. It is a self-evaluation of one’s personal adequacy (worthiness) as an organizational member. It reflects the self-perceived value that individuals have of themselves as important competent and capable within their employing
organization-employees with high organization-based self-esteem have come to believe that “I count around here”. Consistent with Korman’s view of self-esteem (1966, 1970 and 1976) people with strong organization-based self-esteem have a sense of having satisfied their needs through their organizational roles.

The literature on the origin of global self-esteem (Brockner, 1988 and Korman, 1970, 1971 and 1976) suggests that self-esteem is affected by several forces (forces similar to those that give rise to self-efficacy: Bandura, 1982). These determinants can be categorized as (1) the implicit signals sent by the environmental structures to which one is exposed, (2) messages sent from significant others in one’s social environment and (3) the individual’s feelings of efficacy and competence derived from his/her direct and personal experiences. Building upon this work, Pierce et al. (1989) reasoned that the determinants of organization-based self-esteem are similar, yet grounded in one’s work and organizational experiences.

Korman (1971) noted that in mechanistically designed social systems people tend to develop low levels of self-esteem. Mechanistic organizations achieve a high level of system-imposed control through a division of labour, rigid hierarchy, centralization, standardization and formalization. Such social system structuring promotes the development of belief systems that are consonant with the inherent mistrust in the abilities and willingness of people to self-regulate.

Building upon Korman’s work, Pierce et al. (1989) theorized that any form of system-imposed behaviour control, or external control system, carries with it an assumption about the incapability of individuals to self-direct and self-regulate. One consequence of a highly structured and controlled system is likely to be the suggestion to employees that they are not competent within the organizational context. By way of contrast, complex job designs, non-routine technologies,
organically designed and high involvement social systems lead to higher levels of self-esteem because they are less structured, tend to see people as a valuable organizational ‘resource’ and provide them with greater opportunities to self-regulate and express themselves in their organizational roles.

A major source from which self-esteem emerges is the social messages received and internalized that come from meaningful and significant other sources (Baumeister, 1999 and Brockner, 1988). In this sense an individual’s OBSE is, in part, a social construction, shaped and moulded according to the messages about the self transmitted by role models, teachers, mentors and those who evaluate the individual’s work. Once these messages are internalized and integrated into the person’s conceptualization of and evaluation of the self, they become a part of the self concept. Finally, it has been suggested that self-esteem finds part of its origin in direct and personal experiences (Brockner, 1988 and Korman, 1970, 1976). Individuals who come to feel efficacious and competent, derived from their own experiences (e.g., successful completion of a project) come to hold positive images of themselves. Generally speaking, experiences of success in an organization will bolster an individual’s organization-based self-esteem while the experience of failure will have the opposite effect.

2.2 Self-efficacy:

Self-efficacy stems from Bandura's (1997) Social Learning Theory and is "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and to execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments". Self-efficacy is an individual’s own judgments of his competence to complete an action. Neither self-confidence nor self-esteem conveys the richness of self-efficacy. Whereas self-confidence is a person's assurance of an outcome, good or bad; and, self-esteem is a person's estimate of his or her own worth;
self efficacy is assuredness of a positive outcome. Neither of the two terms comes as close to the concept of self-efficacy and the potential impact of this factor on a person’s emotions, actions, thoughts and motivation (Bandura, 1997).

Self-efficacy is a person's conviction about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and course of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). A person's belief about his abilities have an influence on the outcome of his actions. People tend to avoid activities and situations they believe they are likely to fail. They also tend to adjust level of effort expended based upon their expectations of the outcome. Bandura (1986) contends that people’s behaviour is better predicted from their beliefs than from the actual consequences of their actions. A person with strong self-efficacy, when faced with task failure and frustrations, is more likely to recover quickly, to demonstrate persistence and to employ creative problem solving when faced with challenges. Such individuals believe they will find a way-out if they work hard enough.

Research within organizations has demonstrated that self-efficacy is strongly related to performance (Bandura, 1999 and Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). Research has shown that self-efficacy affects peoples' thoughts, actions, levels of motivation and perseverance and susceptibility to stress and depression. In light of what has been recognized about the challenges of transformation in an organization, the impact of a trait like self-efficacy seems intuitive. The importance of self-efficacy for managers means developing motivated employees. Task specific self efficacy is increased through successful performance, but management could also structure successful repetitious and progressively more difficult mastery experiences for employees, so that they learn that they can “do it” (Eden and Yaakov Zuk, 1995 and McNatt and Judge, 2004).
People generally avoid tasks where their self-efficacy is low, but will engage in tasks where their self-efficacy is high. People with a self-efficacy significantly beyond their actual ability often overestimate their ability to complete tasks, which can lead to difficulties. On the other hand, people with a self-efficacy significantly lower than their ability are unlikely to grow and expand their skills. The ‘optimum’ level of self-efficacy is a little above ability, which encourages people to tackle challenging tasks and gain valuable experience.

Individuals with high self-efficacy in a task are likely to make more efforts and persist longer than those with low efficacy. Stronger the self-efficacy or mastery expectations, the more active efforts are. On the other hand, low self-efficacy provides an incentive to learn more about the subject. As a result, someone with a high self-efficacy may not prepare sufficiently for a task. Low self-efficacy provides an incentive to learn more about the subject. As a result, someone with a high self-efficacy may not prepare sufficiently for a task. Low self-efficacy can lead people to believe tasks that are harder than they actually are. This often results in poor task planning as well as increased stress. Observational evidence shows that people become erratic and unpredictable when engaged in a task in which they have low self-efficacy. On the other hand, people with high self-efficacy often take a wider overview of a task in order to take the best route of action. People with high self-efficacy are shown to be encouraged by obstacles to make a greater effort. Self-efficacy also affects how people respond to failure. A person with a high self-efficacy will attribute the failure to external factors, whereas person with low self-efficacy will attribute failure to low ability. For example; a person with high self-efficacy in regards to mathematics may attribute a poor result to a harder than usual test, feeling sick, lack of effort or insufficient preparation.
Self-efficacy arises from the gradual acquisition and complex cognitive, social, linguistic and/or physical skills through experiences. The relationship between self-efficacy and performance is cyclical one. Efficacy-performance cycles can spiral upward toward success or downward toward failure. Wood and Bandura (1989) postulated that a person’s self-efficacy expectation concerning the ability to successfully perform a given task is reliable predictor of whether a person will attempt the task, how much effort he or she will spend and how much the person will exert in pursuing the task in the face of unforeseen difficulties.

2.3 Locus of Control:

Locus of control is a term in psychology that refers to a person’s belief about what causes the good or bad results in his life, either in general or in a specific area such as health or academics. Understanding of the concept was developed by Rotter in 1954, and has since become an important aspect of personality studies.

Individuals vary in terms of how much responsibility they take for their behaviour and its consequences. Rotter, a personality researcher identified a dimension and personality he labelled “Locus of control” to explain these differences. He proposed that people tend to attribute the cause of their behaviour primarily either themselves or environmental factors (Rotter, 1954). This personality trait produces distinctly different behaviour patterns. People who believe they control the events and consequences that affect their lives are said to possess an internal locus of control. such a person tends to attribute positive outcomes. On the other side of this personality dimension are those who believe their performance is the product of circumstances beyond their immediate control. these individuals are said to possess an external locus of control and tend to attribute outcomes to environmental courses such as luck or fate. External tend to be more anxious than internals (Spector, 1982).
Locus of control is the framework of Rotter’s (1954) social learning theory of personality. Lefcourt (1976) defined perceived locus of control as “Perceived control as a generalized expectancy for internal as opposed to external control of reinforcements”.

Work in this field led psychologists to suppose that people who were more likely to display typical expectancy shifts were those who more likely to attribute their outcomes to ability, whereas those who displayed atypical expectancy would be more likely to attribute their outcomes to chance. This was interpreted as saying that people could be divided into those who attribute to ability (an internal cause) versus those who attribute to luck (an external cause).

Internals were believed by Rotter (1966) to exhibit two essential characteristics—high achievement motivation and low outer-directedness. This was the basis of the locus of control scale proposed by Rotter in 1966; although this was actually based on Rotter’s belief that locus of control is a unidimensional construct. Since 1970, Rotter’s assumption of arguing that different dimensions of locus of control, such as belief that events in one’s life are self-determined, are organized by powerful others and are chance-based, must be separated. Weiner’s early work in the 1970s, suggested that, more-or-less orthogonal to the internality-externality dimension, we should also consider differences between those who attribute to stable causes, and those who attribute to unstable causes. This meant that attributions could be to ability (an internal stable cause), effort (an internal unstable cause), task difficulty (an external stable cause) or luck (an external, unstable cause). Such at least were how the early Weiner (1980) saw these four causes, although he has been challenged as to whether people do see luck, for example, as an external cause, whether ability is always perceived as stable and whether effort is always seen as
changing. Indeed, in more recent publications. Weiner (1980) uses different terms for these four causes – such as “objective task characteristics” in place of task difficulty and “chance” in place of luck. It has also been notable how psychologists since Weiner have distinguished between stable effort and unstable effort – knowing that, in some circumstances, effort could be seen as a stable cause, especially given the presence of certain words such as “industrious” in the English language.

Internals who believe that they can influence outcomes through their own abilities, efforts, skills and characteristics are designated as of internal orientation. Internals believe that their hard work would lead them to obtain positive outcomes. They also believe that every action has its consequence, which makes them accept the fact that things happen and it depends on them if they want to have control over them.

Externals perceive that outcomes are contingent upon external forces. They attribute outcome of events to external circumstances. Individuals who have external locus of control believe that many things that happen in their lives are out of their control. They believe that their own actions are a result of external factors that are beyond their control.

People who have external locus of control have four types of beliefs which include the following: powerful others such as doctors, nurses, fate, luck and a belief that the world is too complex to predict its outcomes. People who have external locus of control tend to blame others for the outcomes rather than themselves. Wortman et al. (1973) and Luginbuhl et al. (1975) found that individuals tend to attribute success to internal factors (ability and efforts) and their failures to external factors (luck and task difficulty). Weiner (1970) pointed out that attributions to ability versus luck differ as the former one is an attribution to a stable cause while the latter is an attribution to an unstable cause. According to him the attribution theory assumes that
individuals try to determine why people do what they do, i.e., attribute causes behaviour. There is a three stage process which causes an attribution. (1) The person must perceive or possibly observe the behaviour, (2) to try and figure out if behaviour was intentional and (3) to determine if the person was to perform that behaviour.

Further, there is another type of control that involves a mix among the internal and external types. Individuals that have the combination of the two types of locus of control are often referred to as Bi-locals (Balanced). People that have Bi-local characteristics are known to handle stress and cope with their diseases more efficiently by having the mixture of internal and external locus of control. Individuals who have this mix of locus of control can take personal responsibility for their actions and the consequences thereof while remaining capable of relying upon and having faith in outside resources; these characteristics correspond to the internal and external locus of control, respectively.

2.4 Emotional Intelligence:

The concept of Emotional Intelligence consists of two component terms, i.e., intelligence and emotion. Intelligence refers to abilities such as the "power to combine and separate" concepts, to judge and to reason and to engage in abstract thought. Emotion is the affective sphere of mental functioning, which includes the emotions themselves, moods, evaluations and other feeling states, including fatigue or energy. Emotion is an integral and inseparable part of everyday organizational life. One of the rapidly growing areas of interest with regard to emotional intelligence is its role in the workplace. The experience of work is full of emotions. Thorndike (1920) introduced the concept of “social intelligence” and defined it as “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls-to act wisely in human relations” germinated the seed of the EI concept.
The exhibit shows the chronological evolution of the concept.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Concepts</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1677</td>
<td>Spinoza</td>
<td>Emotions + Intellect=Cognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>Thorndike</td>
<td>Social Intelligence</td>
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<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>Wechsler</td>
<td>Non-Intellective Intelligence</td>
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<td>1948</td>
<td>Leeper</td>
<td>Emotional Thought</td>
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<td>1949</td>
<td>Manguss and Woodward</td>
<td>Emotional Factors</td>
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<td>1960</td>
<td>Mower</td>
<td>Emotional as higher order intelligence</td>
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<td>1960</td>
<td>Lum</td>
<td>Motivation and Self-Sufficiency</td>
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<td>1977,1981</td>
<td>Sharma</td>
<td>Non-intellectual and Personality Factors</td>
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<td>1993</td>
<td>Gardner</td>
<td>Multiple intelligence</td>
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<td>1985</td>
<td>Stenberg</td>
<td>Practical intelligence</td>
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<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Salovey and Mayer</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
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<td>1995</td>
<td>Goleman</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
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<td>2000</td>
<td>Saarni</td>
<td>Self-sufficiency</td>
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<td>1985</td>
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<td>1998</td>
<td>Goleman</td>
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<td>2001</td>
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<td>Emotional Fitness</td>
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<td>2001</td>
<td>Chadha and Singh</td>
<td>Emotional Competence, Emotional Maturity and Emotional Sensitivity</td>
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As a result of the growing acknowledgement of professional for the importance and relevance of emotions to work outcomes, the research on the Goleman (1998) best seller Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ that the term became widely popularized and the Time magazine article (Gibbs, 1995)
highlighted Goleman’s book and was the first in a string of mainstream media interest in emotional intelligence.

The term emotional intelligence looks for human cognitive abilities beyond traditional academic intelligence (Zeidner et al., 2004). Researchers have categorized their definition based on either an ability model or mixed model. Mayer and Salovey (1997) have supported ability model stating that emotional intelligence is defined as “the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth”. As such, the ability model states that emotional intelligence is a set of abilities that involves perceiving and abstract reasoning with information that emerges from feelings (Mandell and Phewanti, 2003).

Emotional intelligence is “the capacity to reason about emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the ability to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth”.

The mixed-model pioneered by Goleman (1995) described the emotional intelligence “as the ability to recognize and regulate emotions both within the self and within others” and also as “An array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”.

In view of above, emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote
emotional and intellectual growth. This definition combines the ideas that emotion makes thinking more intelligent and that one thinks intelligently about emotions, both connect intelligence and emotion.

Emotional intelligence is primarily focused on the complex, potentially intelligent tapestry of emotional reasoning in everyday life. For most healthy individuals, we assume that emotions convey knowledge about a person's relationships with the world. For example; fear indicates that the person is facing a relatively powerful or uncontrollable threat. Happiness typically indicates one's harmonious relations with others and anger often reflects a feeling of injustice. According to this view, there are certain generalities and laws of emotions. These general rules and laws can be employed in recognizing and reasoning with feelings. For example, certain universals of emotional expression exist and people should be able to recognize them. Emotional reasoning therefore extends into questions about relationships. For example, an insulted person might feel anger, or if the person was insecure and nonassertive, might feel shame, humiliation—or repressed anger. Recognizing these reactions requires some form of intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions as well as in ourselves and in our relationships. Freedman (2003) described emotional intelligence as a way of recognizing, understanding and choosing how we think, feel and act. It shapes our interaction with others and our understanding of ourselves. It affects majority of our daily routine actions.

Emotional intelligence has also been defined as the ability of the individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from inner self immediate environment. Emotional intelligence constitutes
three psychological dimensions, i.e., Emotional sensitivity, emotional Maturity and emotional competency (Singh, 2003).

Emotional Sensitivity involves understanding threshold of emotional arousal, managing the immediate environment, maintaining rapport, harmony and comfort with others, letting others feel comfortable in your company. It also involves being honest in interpersonal dealings, interpreting emotional cues truthfully, realizing communicability of emotions, moods and feelings and having an insight into how others evaluate and relate to you. Emotional Maturity involves evaluating emotions of oneself and others, identifying and expressing feeling, balancing state of heart and mind, adaptability and flexibility, appreciating other’s point of view, developing others, delaying gratification of immediate psychological satisfactions. Emotional Competency involves the capacity to tactfully responding to the emotional stimuli elicited by various situations, having high self-esteem and optimism, communication, tackling emotional upsets such as frustrations, conflicts and inferiority complexes, enjoying emotions, doing what succeeds, ability to relate to others, emotional self-control, capacity to avoid emotional exhaustion such as stress, burnout, learning to avoid negativity of emotions, handling egoism.

3. Work related Attitudes:

Many organizational variables and intrapersonal factors like job attitudes, effort, abilities and traits of the individual, characteristics of the individual and work environment considerably influence and moderate the performance of employees in an organization. Among these factors, job attitudes such as Job Satisfaction (Locke, 1976); Job Involvement seem to play a central role in influencing employee performance at work place.

An employee’s work attitudes influence his/her job-oriented behavior (Ajzen
and Fishbein, 1980). It is also said that the performance of the employee depends much on his/her behaviour (Mitchel and Larson, 1987) the attitudes of the employee are translated into the job performance through his/her behavior in the organization.

A number of research outcomes have proved that there is a positive correlation between the job attitudes and the job performance (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955 and Vroom, 1964).

Workplaces attitudes are the feelings and beliefs that determine how employees will recognize their environment, commit themselves to intended actions and ultimately the behaviour. Attitudes form a mental set that affects how we view something. It has an impact on how we view and judge our surroundings at work. Managers of organizational behavior are vitally interested in the nature of the attitudes of their employees toward their Jobs; toward their careers and toward the organization itself. Job attitudes of the employees are the most important to achieve individual and organizational objectives through performance. Attitudes such as involvement and satisfaction contribute to increase the performance of the employees which is proved by various research studies (Vroom, 1964).

3.1 Job Involvement:

In general, job involvement is considered as internalization of values about goodness or importance of work in the interest of the person, hence it measures the ease with which the person can further be socialized by an organization.

Allport (1947) defined job involvement as the situation in which an individual engages the ‘status seeking motive’ in his work. When job performance is central to the worker then it is ‘ego involved performance’. Work is very important part in his life when he remains involved in his job and is accordingly, affected a lot by his job climate, co-workers and the whole organization.
Job involvement is a general cognitive state of psychological identification with the job. It is the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance of work in his total self-image and the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-esteem (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Job involvement is the degree to which a person perceives his total work situation to be an important part of his life and to be central to him (Lawler and Hall, 1970).

Job involvement is different from work involvement. Job involvement is a belief descriptive of the present job and tends to be a function of how much the job can satisfy one's present needs whereas the Work involvement is a normative belief about the value of work in one's life which is historically caused (Kanungo, 1982).

Job involvement in two concepts, viz., (a) Performance self-esteem contingency, (b) Component of self-image. Performance self-esteem contingency refers the extent to which self-esteem is affected by the level of performance. The definition provided by Vroom (1962) stressed that involvement exists when a person's feelings of esteem are increased by good performance is similar to the meaning of this concept. Component of self-image refers to the degree to which job situation is central to the person and his identity. It is in line with the definitions as suggested by Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Lawler and Hall (1970). Further, Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) also described job involvement on the basis of three theoretical perspectives. These are (a) Job Involvement as an Individual Difference, (b) Job Involvement as a Function of the Situation and (c) Job Involvement as an Individual-Situation (Person-Environment interaction).

Job Involvement means that an individual who has internalized the traditional values of the Protestant work ethic will probably be more job-involved regardless of the situational context within which he might be employed. So, it is concerned about
the moral character of work and a sense of personal responsibility. Protestant work ethic is the oldest work commitment concept reviewed, with origins dating back to the 1905 publication of *The Protestant Ethic and Spirit of Capitalism* by Max Weber (Morrow, 1993). The value orientation toward work is learnt early in the socialization process. Since the values are interjected into the self, so the nature of a particular job, such as work stress, would not change the levels of job involvement of an employee (Lodahl, 1964).

Job Involvement as a Function of the Situation means that job factors can influence the degree of job involvement of an employee (Vroom, 1962). A person becomes ego-involved in his work situation when his performance is perceived to be relevant to certain aptitudes, abilities or other attributes that are central to his self-concepts. Vroom's assertion demonstrated the roles played by an organization situational factors that would influence an individual's job involvement. Increasing opportunities for the incumbents to make more job decisions, enhancing their feeling of achievement and self-determination, giving freedom to set one's own work place and finally to let them taste more feeling of success may strengthen the incumbents’ feeling of job involvement.

Job Involvement as an Individual-Situation (Person-Environment interaction) means that job involvement is a function of the interaction between individual and his job environment (Lawler and Hall, 1970). People probably do differ in the degree to which they are likely to become involved in their jobs as a function of their backgrounds and personal situations. With this perspective, an individual may state his own particular desires for job characteristic, such as autonomy, skill variety and feedback. If an individual's desires for job characteristics are not fulfilled, a low level of job involvement may come up.
The variables of both personal characteristics and job characteristics have been observed as potential sources of determinants of job involvement.

(i) Personal Characteristics:

The level of the nurses’ job-involvement was positively correlated with age (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). There is a significant positive correlation between age of the employees and job involvement (Schwyhart and Smith, 1972).

In another study on perceived leadership behavior and employee confidence in the leader as moderated by job involvement, 113 civil service and military employee were assessed. The positive correlation between age factor and job involvement was demonstrated. (Jones et al., 1986)

In a study regarding the factor of sex, it was found that men might be more job-involved than women, possibly due to traditional sex role socialization. Most women have other roles to fulfill apart from job-engagement and it might affect their level of job involvement (Siegel, 1969).

Studies relating to the correlations between education and job involvement also showed mixed results. In a sample of 2530 employees of six Midwestern manufacturing companies, no direct relationship between education and job involvement was found (Siegel and Ruh, 1973). Even there was no relationship between years of education or highest degree obtained and job involvement. Other personal characteristics including marital status and tenure of services have also been tested upon for their relationship with job involvement.

(ii) Job Characteristics:

Four job predictors i.e., job satisfaction, job motivation, participation in decision-making and satisfaction with supervision may affect the levels of job involvement (Knoop, 1986) whereas in another study it has been found that there are
five factors like *skill and skill change, types of skill, management control systems, employee participation and job security* which can predict job involvement.

### 3.2 Job Satisfaction:

The study of job satisfaction enriches management with a range of information pertaining to job, employee, environment etc. which enables it in decision making and correcting the path of organizational policies and behavior. It indicates the general level of satisfaction in the organization about its programme, policies etc. It is a diagnostic instrument for knowing employees’ problems, effecting changes and correcting them with least resistance. It strengthens the communication system of the organization and management can discuss the result for shaping the future course of action. It helps in improving the attitudes of employees towards the job and facilitates integration of employees with the organization. It inspires sense of belongingness and sense of participation leading to the overall increase in the productivity of the organization. It helps unions to know exactly what employees want and what management is doing. Thus, it facilitates mutual settlement of grievances and other unwanted situations. It facilitates in determining the training and development needs of both the employees and the organization (Shah, 1990).

In 1935, Hoppock conducted a study that focused explicitly on job satisfaction that is affected by both the nature of the job and relationships with co-workers and supervisors. On the basis of his study he published a book on job satisfaction and described job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause any person to truthfully say that I am satisfied with my job.

Job satisfaction is a set of favorable or unfavorable feelings and emotions with
which employees view their work. It is an affective attitude - a feeling of relative like
or dislike toward something (Newstrom and Davis, 2001). Job satisfaction studies
focus on the various parts that are believed to be important, since these Job - related
attitudes influence an employee to behave in certain way (Hoppock, 1935 and
Hertzberg, 1957).

Locke (1976) explained job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional
state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". It is assessed at
both the global level (whether or not the individual is satisfied with the job overall),
or at the facet level (whether or not the individual is satisfied with different aspects of
the job).

Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as the extent to which people like or
dislike their jobs. Weiss (2002) has argued that job satisfaction is an attitude but
points out that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive
evaluation which are affect (emotion), belief and behaviour.

Herzberg et al. (1957) and Armstrong (1971) pointed out that job satisfaction is
a multifaceted phenomenon and influenced by three group of factors viz., Personal
factors, Job factors and Group factors. Job satisfaction includes multidimensional
psychological responses to an individual's job and that these personal responses have
cognitive (evaluative), affective (or emotional) and behavioral components (Hulin et
al., 1985). It is associated with different facets like satisfaction with the wages, work
itself and recognition, rapport with supervisors and coworkers and chance for
advancement. Each dimension adds to an individual’s overall sense of satisfaction
with the job itself.

Job satisfaction is a result of employee's perception of how well their job
provides those things that are viewed as important. In the organizational behavior field job satisfaction is the most important and frequently studied attitude (Mitchell and Lasan, 1987).

There are three important dimensions to job satisfaction, i.e., (a) Job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such it cannot be seen, it can only be inferred, (b) Job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcome meet or exceed expectations. For instance, if organization participants feel that they are working much harder than others in the department but are receiving fewer rewards they will probably have a negative attitudes towards the work, the boss and coworkers. On the other hand, if they feel they are being treated very well and are being paid equitably, they are likely to have positive attitudes towards the job and (c) Job satisfaction represents several related attitudes which are most important characteristics of a job about which people have effective response. These are the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and coworkers (Luthan, 1998).

Job satisfaction is so important that its absence often leads to lethargy and reduced organizational commitment. Lack of job satisfaction is a predictor of quitting a job (Jamal, 1997). Sometimes workers may quit from public to the private sector and vice versa or the movement is from one profession to another that is considered a greener pasture.

**Theories of Job Satisfaction:**

**Maslow’s Theory of Motivation/Satisfaction (1943)**

Abraham Maslow argued that an individual’s motivational requirements could be ordered as a hierarchy. Once a given level of needs is satisfied, it no longer helps to motivate. Thus, next higher level of need has to be activated in order to motivate
and thereby satisfy the individual. Maslow identified five levels of need hierarchy:

1. Physical needs: (food, clothing, shelter, sex),
2. Safety needs: (physical protection),
3. Social: (develop close associations with others),
4. Esteem/Achievement needs: (prestige given by others), and
5. Self-Actualization: (self-fulfillment and accomplishment through personal growth).

Researchers have noted that Maslow’s theory of hierarchy of needs was the first motivation theory that laid the foundation for ‘the theories of job satisfaction’. This theory serves as a good start from which researchers explore the problems of job satisfaction in different work situations.

**Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory (1959)**

Herzberg did a motivational study in which he interviewed 200 accountants and engineers. He used critical incident method of data collection with two questions: a. when did you feel particularly good about your job - what turned you on? And b. when did you feel exceptionally bad about your job - what turned you off? Tabulating these good and bad feelings, Herzberg argued that there are job-satisfiers (motivators) related to the job contents and job-dissatisfiers (Hygiene factors) are concerned with the job context. Motivators include Achievement, Recognition, Work itself, Responsibility and Advancement. The hygiene factors do not ‘motivate/satisfy’ rather ‘prevent dissatisfaction.’ These factors are contextual such as, Company policy, Administration, Supervision, Salary, Interpersonal relations, Supervisor, and Working conditions.
Theory X and Y (Douglas McGregor, 1960)

After observing and understanding the manner in which managers handle the employees, McGregor proposed that the manager’s view about the nature of human being is founded on a group of assumptions and that managers change their behavior toward their subordinates according to these ‘assumptions’ about different employees.

Assumptions of Theory X (Negative view of Human-being)

- Human beings have an inherent dislike of work and avoid it if possible.
- Due to this behavior, people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to make them work.
- They prefer to be directed, avoid responsibility, have little ambition, and want security

Theory Y Assumptions (Positive view of Human-being)

- Physical and mental efforts in work are as natural as play and rest.
- External control and threat are not the only means for producing effort. People can practice self-direction and self-control in achieving objectives.
- The degree of commitment to objectives is determined by the size of rewards attached with achievement.
- Under proper conditions, human beings learn and not only accept responsibility but also seek it.

Theory of Needs - Achievement Theory (McClelland and David, 1961)

McClelland and Associates postulated that some people have a compelling drive to succeed and therefore strive for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success themselves. They have the desire to perform better than before, therefore,
they like challenging jobs and behave as ‘high achievers’. This theory focuses on the achievement motive thus, called ‘achievement theory’ but it is founded on achievement, power and affiliation motives:

1. **Achievement:** This is the drive to excel and achieve beyond the standards of success.

2. **Power:** It refers to the desire to have an impact, to be influential, and to control others.

3. **Affiliation:** It is the desire for having friendly and close interpersonal relationships. Those with high affiliation prefer cooperative rather than competitive situations.

**ERG Theory (Alderfer and Clayton, 1969)**

Clayton and Alderfer (1969) explored the Maslow’s theory and linked it with practical research. He regrouped the Maslow’s list of needs into three classes of needs: Existence, Relatedness, and Growth, thereby calling it ERG theory. His classification absorbs the Maslow’s division of needs into: Existence (physiological and security needs), Relatedness (social and esteem needs) and Growth (self-actualization). Alderfer suggested a continuum of needs rather than hierarchical levels or two factors of needs. Unlike Maslow and Herzberg, Alderfer does not suggest that a lower-level need must be fulfilled before a higher-level need becomes motivating or that deprivation is the only way to activate a need.

**Equity Theory (J. Stacy Adams, 1963)**

This theory suggests that employees weigh what they put into a job (input) against what they get from it (outcome) and then compare this ratio with the input-outcome ratio of other workers. If they find this ratio equal to that of the relevant others, a state of equity is said to exist. The equity theory has extensively been
studied over the past few decades under the title of distributive justice. It has been found that rewards increase employee satisfaction only when these rewards are valued and perceived as equitable by the employees.

**Vroom’s Expectancy Theory (1964)**

Victor H. Vroom asserts that people are motivated to work to achieve a goal if they believe that that goal is worthy and there is the probability that what they do will help them in achieving their goals. Vroom’s theory is based on three major variables: valance, expectancy and instrumentality. Valance is the strength of an individual’s preference (or value, incentive, attitude, and expected utility) for a particular output. Expectancy is the probability that a particular effort will lead to a particular first-level outcome while instrumentality is the degree to which a first-level outcome will lead to a desired second-level outcome. For example, a person can be motivated (motivational force or effort) toward better performance (first-level output) to realize promotion (second-level output).

Expectancy theory recognizes the importance of various individual needs and motivations. It suggests that rewards used to influence employee behavior must be valued by individuals. Therefore, theory is considered as the “most comprehensive theory of motivation and job satisfaction.” It explains that motivation is a product of three factors: how much reward is wanted (valance), the estimate of probability that effort will lead to the successful performance (expectancy), and the estimate that performance will result in getting the reward (instrumentality) - explained as ‘Valance x Expectancy x Instrumentality = Motivation’.

**Porter/Lawler Expectancy Model (1968)**

This model is very popular explanation of the job satisfaction process. Porter and Lawler stress that ‘effort’ (force or strength of motivation) does not lead directly
to ‘performance.’ It is rather moderated by the ‘abilities and traits’ and the ‘role perceptions’ of an employee. Furthermore, ‘satisfaction’ is not dependent on performance rather determined by the ‘probability of receiving fair rewards’. The Porter-Lawler model suggests that motivation is affected by several interrelated cognitive factors, such as motivation results from the ‘perceived effort-reward probability.’ However, before this effort is translated into performance, the ‘abilities and traits’ and ‘role-perceptions’ of employee affect on the efforts used for performance. Furthermore, it is the ‘perceived equitable rewards’, which determine ‘job-satisfaction’ of the workforce.

**Goal-Setting Theory (Locke, 1968)**

Edwin Locke (In late 1960s) asserted that intentions can be a major source of motivation and satisfaction. Some specific goals (intentions) lead to increased performance, for example, difficult goals (when accepted) lead to higher performance than easy goals and that feedback triggers higher performance than no feedback. Likewise, ‘specific hard’ goals produce a higher level of output than ‘generalized’ goals of ‘do your best’. Furthermore, people will do better when they get feedback on how well they are progressing toward their goals as feedback identifies discrepancies between what have they done and what they want to do. All those studies, which tested goal-setting theory, demonstrate that challenging goals with feedback, work as motivating forces.

The goal-setting theory is the most researched theory of employee motivation, for example, it has been applied to the study of more than 40,000 participants' performance on well over 100 different tasks in eight countries in both lab and field settings. Goal theory suggests that difficult goals demand focus on problems, increase sense of goal importance, and encourage persistence to achieve the goals. Goal theory
can be combined with cognitive theories to better understand the phenomena, for example, greater self-efficacy is positively related to employees’ perception that they are successfully contributing to meaningful work and therefore foster enhanced work motivation.

**Job Characteristics Theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1976)**

Job characteristics are aspects of the individual employee’s job and tasks that shape how the individual perceives his or her particular role in the organization. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) original formulation of job characteristics theory argued that the outcomes of job redesign were influenced by several moderators. These moderators include the differences to which various employees desire personal or psychological progress. The clarity of tasks leads to greater job satisfaction because greater role clarity creates such workforce, which is more satisfied with, committed to, and involved in work.

The jobs that are rich in motivating characteristics trigger psychological states, which in turn increases the likelihood of desired outcomes. For example, the significance of a task can ignite a sense of meaningfulness of work that leads to effective performance. More precisely, the model states that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc.).

**4. Organisational Climate:**

The general climate is a combination of supports from all the concerned quarters viz., from the management people working at different levels, good supportive personnel policies and practices as well as the positive attitudes towards the development of the people viz-a-viz their organization.
Organisational Climate, in general, is defined as the perceived attributes of an organization and its subsystems as reflected in the way an organization deals with its members, groups and issues. Organizational climate reflects the summary perceptions held by organizational members towards their organization. It represents a conceptually integrated fusion of organizational characteristics and depends on the perceptions of the organizational members about different dimensions of the organization which ultimately influences behaviour of individuals in the organization and hence, plays a very significant role in attainment of organizational goals.

An organizational climate that encourages employee involvement and empowerment in decision-making predicts the financial success of the organization (Denison, 1990).

Thompson (2005) found a positive relationship between climates emphasizing creativity and innovation and their profits. He described how companies utilizing progressive human resource practices impacting climate such as customer commitment, communication, empowerment, innovation, rewards and recognition, community involvement/environmental responsibility and teamwork outperformed organizations with less progressive practices. Manufacturing organizations that emphasized a positive organizational climate, specifically concern for employee well-being, flexibility, learning and performance, showed more productivity than those that emphasized these factors to a lesser degree.

Organisational climate represents the psychological state which is strongly affected by organizational conditions like structures, systems and managerial behaviour. It is basically the perception of how things exist in the organizational environment that is composed of several dimensions which in turn will depend upon the kind of organization.
Climate is used in the organization context, consists of a total affective system of the human group including feelings of attitude towards the system, subsystems, super-ordinate system and other systems of the persons, tasks, procedures and conceptualizations. Climate, thus, refers to the relationships in any situation as the people in that particular situation experience these (Gupta, 2012).

The term "organizational climate" was introduced by Lewin et al. (1939) in their article which focused on the experimentally created social climates on a number of groups of teenage boys emphasizing on the relationship between leadership styles and so-called ‘Social Climate’. Lewin and his associates characterized leadership within the clubs as corresponding to one of three styles (autocratic, democratic, or laissez faire). These styles determined the "social climate" within the clubs, which led in turn to particular behaviour ranges displayed by the boys.

Argyris (1958) introduced the concept of Organizational Climate while analyzing the group dynamics in a bank and defined climate in terms of formal organizational policies, employee needs, values and personalities. Organizational Climate as a ‘normative structure of attitudes and behavioural standards which provided a basis for interpreting the situations and act as a source of pressure for directing activities.

Tagiuri (1968) defined organizational climate as a relatively ending quality of the internal environment that is experienced by the members, which influences their behaviour and can describe in terms of values of a particular set of characteristics of the organization.

**Constituents of Organisational Climate:**

There are six profiles that are found in the organizations which can be regarded as six distinctive organizational climates, namely, Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal and Closed (Halpin, 1967).
An open climate refers to the openness and authenticity of interaction that exists among the principal, teachers, students and parents. An open climate reflects cooperative, supportive and receptive attitudes to each other’s ideas and their commitment to work. Autonomous climate refers to an atmosphere where employees are given a good measure of freedom to operate in an institution. There is no external threat or influence. The major characteristic of controlled climate is the diligence and hard work. Even though the employer does not model commitment, hard work is over-emphasized to the extent that little or no time is given to social life. Employees are committed to their work and spend considerable time on paper work. Thus, in most cases, there is little time to interact with one another. Familiar climate depicts a laissez-faire atmosphere. The administrator is concerned about maintaining friendly atmosphere at the expense of task accomplishment. The Paternal climate depicts an atmosphere where the administrator is very hardworking but has no effect on the staff; to them hard work is not a popular term. There is a degree of closeness between employer and employees but the employer’s expectation from employees is rather impractical. Leadership approach is benevolently autocratic. As a result, most employees prefer to maintain distance from him. The closed climate represents the ‘antithesis of the open climate’. The main characteristic of this type of climate is lack of commitment or unproductive disengagement (Halpin, 1967). There is no commitment, especially on the part of the principal and teachers. There is no emphasis on task accomplishment; rather the employer stresses on routine, trivial and unnecessary paper work to which employees minimally respond. He/she is inconsiderate, unsupportive and unresponsive.

Forehand and Gilmer (1964) defined Organizational Climate as a ‘set of characteristics that (a) Describe the organization and distinguish it from other
organizations, (b) Relatively enduring over time and (c) Influence the behaviour of people in the organization.

Litwin and Stringer (1968) introduced a very comprehensive framework of Organizational Climate. They provided six dimensions of Organizational Climate that included (i) structure, (ii) responsibility, (iii) reward, (iv) risk, (v) warmth and (vi) support.

Tagiuri (1968) stated that the organizational climate is composed of the following four dimensions, viz., ecology, milieu, social system and culture.

Ecology refers to the physical and material factors in the organization, i.e., size, age, design, facilities and conditions of the building. It also refers to the technology used by people in the organization desks and chairs, chalk boards, elevators, everything used to carry out organizational activities. Milieu is the social dimension in the organization. This includes virtually everything relating to the people in the organization. This would include race and ethnicity, salary level, socioeconomic level, education levels attained by the employees, the morale and motivation of adults and students who inhabit the organisation, level of job satisfaction and a host of other characteristics of the individual in the organization.

Social system refers to the organizational and administrative structure of the organization. It includes how the organisation is organized, the ways in which decisions are made and who is involved in making them, the communication patterns among individual (who talks to whom about what), what work groups there are and so on. Culture refers to the values, belief system, norms and ways of thinking that are characteristics of individuals in the organization. It is “the way we do things around here”. Much of the organization dimension of climate arises from factors that administrators directly control or strongly influence. It is important that
administrators understand the close connections between the choices they make about the way they organize and the climate manifested in the organization.


*Openness* refers to the climate where employees are free to express their ideas. They are comfortable to talk to employees and their employers about their views and problems. Management adopts open door policy to maintain openness in the environment within. Openness in organizational climate motivates open communication, feedback and discussion about any matter of importance to an employee. *Confrontation* is about face to face meeting of members where they can express their ideas without fear. Confrontation means problems brought in front of people rather than avoiding them. An organization encourages people to recognize a problem and bring it to people concerned to solve it. It is the deeper analysis of interpersonal problems. *Trust* is a feeling which develops slowly. It also includes maintaining the confidentiality of information shared by others, so that nobody can misuse it. Trust within the employees for the management and management's trust on employees result into high level of empathy, coordination among employees, friendly and disciplined atmosphere and higher productivity. Trusty atmosphere also reduces stress as well as politics among employees. *Authenticity* is the willingness of a person to acknowledge the feelings and make coordination between what he says and does. This value is important for the development of a mature culture within the organization. If a person is authentic or genuine in his life it becomes very easy to predict his behaviour. In *pro-activity* climate employees take initiative and plan in advance and take preventive action. Proactivity also includes positive behaviour. Proactivity gives initiative to a person to start a new process or a new pattern of
behaviour. Autonomy refers to freedom or independence to use power without any fear. It means giving freedom to the employee to enjoy power of a position but within certain limits set by the organization. The outcome of autonomy is development of mutual respect between employees and employers and confidence among employees. Effective delegation of power can bring proper autonomy in the organizational climate. Collaboration depicts that people work together and use one another's skills to achieve a common goal. In solving any problem they take help of other people to find out a best alternative. On the basis of that they plan and prepare strategies and implement them together. It encourages employees to help others and ask for help from others. Experimenting refers to using innovative approaches to solve problems. Employees use feedback for further improvement and consider corrective actions. Though use of traditional and old techniques saves time and money, still invention of new techniques may solve a problem in a more effective way. Organizational development cannot be dependent on only repetitive action but also it should adopt some more creative and innovative way for development. Creativity is reflected in employees' suggestions. Organization should give them freedom to take risk and try a new idea to solve any problem.

5. Higher Education and Universities Profile:

The scope of the present research study extends to the Higher Education Sector. Indian Higher Education system has become the third largest in the world after USA and China with commendable quantitative expansion of higher education in terms of institutions, teachers and enrolment of students. The economic development of any country is linked to its ability to generate, acquire and use the knowledge through national competitiveness by different means and modes. So the higher
education institutions must generate new ideas, methods, establish new institutions and think positively to add everyday new values in existing system of education.

Education is a process of human upliftment and empowerment for the achievement of a better and high quality of life. A good and effective educational system results in unfolding the learner’s potentialities, enlightening their competencies and sharing of their interest, attitudes and basic human values. Education is one of the important measures of Human Resource Development in our country. The growth in education sector results in acceleration of economic growth and prosperity of our nation.

India, since ancient times, has a strong tradition of higher education. The historical evidences show that in India, the Nalanda University and the Buddhist monasteries have been a centre of excellence. Britishers, in India, brought the concept of formal education. The first college was set up in 1918 in Sermpore, in Bengal. In 1947, nineteen Universities already existed in India and after independence, the number of Universities and the higher education system grew rapidly. In 1980, the number of Universities and colleges were 132 and 4738 respectively. Student enrolment was 7% between 1987 and 1993, but then declined at 5.5% at a compound rate of growth. The members of higher education institutes grew from 516 in 1947 to 1948, 973 in 2005 to 2006 (Government of India, 2010).

The rapid expansion of higher education in India has been at the cost of its quality. There are three agencies which evaluate the quality of Institutions and programmes. These are the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), the National Board of Accreditation (NBA). The University Grants Commission functions as a monitoring and evaluating body along with the regulatory functions which it carries out for the higher educational institutions. The student-teacher ratio and the dropout rate still remains a problem for India.
The Indian higher education system has witnessed significant expansion in recent years, both in terms of the number of Institutions and student enrolment. India has more than 400 Universities and over 20000 colleges. Positive trends in the growth of education in India are seen by the involvement of the private sector and increase in the student enrolment. Despite having a large number of Universities and Higher Educational Institutions, the major shortcoming can be seen from the fact that not a single higher educational institution or the University confirms as a leading institute in the world. Also, figures show that there lies an inequity in the system with the GER of women and the backward classes being very lower vis-a-vis the national average. FICCI has reported in a summit that very low per capita spends on higher education, leads to significant paucity of funds for expansion and quality enhancement. Also, it has been felt that the other sources of revenue have not yet been explored. The students scholarship schemes are either not advertised or the tuition fees are not rationalized so that the lower segment is not benefitted. There is a lack of infrastructure in Higher Educational Institutions and low technology involvement in regional languages leads to further lack of participation of all the segments of the society. The standard of research across Indian educational institutions is low, due to lack of faculty development programmes and limited funding and lack of linkages between the industry, government and University Grants Commission.

According to UNESCO, “higher education is no longer a luxury; it is essential to national social and economic development” In this context the then Prime Minister of India, Dr. Manmohan Singh in his address had emphasized that every Indian should be educated and skilled. In, December 2013, the Prime Minister of India, while addressing at the Diamond Jubilee Celebrations of UGC, reiterated the rapid expansion of Higher Education System in India several new institutes have been set up, including 23 new Central Universities, 7 Indian Institutes of Management, 9
Indian Institutes of Technology, 10 National Institutes of Technology, 5 Indian Institutes of Science Education and Research, 4 Indian Institutes of Information Technology and 2 Schools of Planning and Architecture. The higher education system has now become more inclusive. These include reservation of seats in Central Educational Institutions for the OBCs; establishment of new degree colleges in educationally backward districts, establishment of polytechnics in un-served and under-served areas and support to students from the disadvantaged sections of the society. The Government of India has also made a sincere effort to leverage the potential of Information and Communication Technology to strengthen the Higher Education System. The National Mission on Education through Information and Communication Technology (NMEICT) was launched in the year 2009. So far as now, about 400 Universities and 20,000 colleges have been provided with high speed broad band connectivity under this mission. Under the National Program on Technology Enhanced learning (NPTEL), web and Video courses are being developed for engineering and humanities streams. The Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in Higher Education, which was 11% in 2005-06, almost got doubled to 10.4% in the year 2010-11. The GER for women in Higher Education increased from 9.4 to 17.9% during the same period. The Prime Minister reiterated that the focus of higher education in the coming years would be on 3 Es which includes expansion, excellence and equity and the fourth E is employability. The recently launched Rashtriya Uchttar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA), recognizes the importance of the State Higher Education Institutes which cater to a majority of the students receiving higher education in India. It aims to create 278 new Universities and 388 new colleges and to convert 266 colleges to Model Degree Colleges by the end of the 13th Five Year Plan, besides providing infrastructure grants to 286 State Universities and 8500 State colleges. The
Prime Minister of India, in his address to the nation at UGC, Delhi, in 2013, mentioned some problems also, these are as follows:

a) None of the Indian Higher Educational Institutions figure out as a world class institutions in terms of quality.
b) Shortage of faculty in numbers and capacities
c) Lack of quality Interdisciplinary research
d) Lack of integrated research on issues of national importance
e) Lack of application or implementation of the research
f) University -industry interface is lacking

Therefore, looking into these problems, the need of the hour for the Universities is to adopt a proactive approach and integrate the development activities with the market. The government therefore, can replicate best international practices in policy framework for ensuring academic autonomy and transparency to attain excellence in the world market. But, it has been reported well that only customized approaches only can lead to better results.

The fact is that though the demand for higher education in India has increased but the financial support from the government has declined in real terms. As stated earlier, the Government of India has introduced the Rashtriya Uchttar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) to address this issue. Further, the government is also working on policy planning and strategic interventions. This would help in strengthening the University information management system on a priority basis. The recognition by UGC and other bodies adds to improving the quality research and teaching.

According to Census, 2011, India’s urban population is expected to grow more than its overall population and are estimated to account for 41% of total population by 2030. US Census Bureau 2013 reports that India is expected to become the most populous country by 2030. Population of India is estimated at 1.461 million that of
China at 1,391 and US population is estimated as 366 million. Global Trends 2030 shows that the India's population, (aged between 18- 23 years) is expected to reach 142 million by 2030. This shows the need for quality Higher Education Institutions. The IHS Global Insights, 2013, EY, estimates show that Industry and service sectors are expected to contribute nearly 92% of India's GDP by 2030 and India is expected to become the fastest growing economy in the world over the next 15-20 years This shows the need for more vocational courses in these sectors. The industry and services sectors in India would require a gross incremental workforce of nearly 250 million by 2030 and this shows that probably India would emerge as a global supplier of skilled manpower (CIA, World Fact-book) A significant proportion of this incremental requirement will need to be serviced by the higher education system (Economic Times and EY Estimates). The projected median age for India is 32 as compared to US at 39.

Progress in higher education in India is driven by several factors which include increase in collaboration between Indian and foreign Universities for faculty support and curriculum design, joint researches, student faculty exchange and identical programmes. The initiatives taken by the Government of India include guest lectures by industry practitioners, management development programs, live projects, consulting assignments, joint seminars, scholarships etc. Participation of industry bodies such as FICCI and institutions such as the IIMs and IITs is also complemented.

Hon’ble President of India, Shri Pranab Mukherjee, while addressing the students and faculty of Central Universities on 7th January, 2014, through video conferencing, said that education is the true alchemy that can bring India to its next golden age. Two recent surveys conducted by reputed international organizations have brought out difference in the standards of education between institutions in India and abroad. None of the Indian Universities, he said, finds place in the world’s top
two hundred institutions. In a country of over 1.2 billion people, only eight Indians have so far won the Nobel Prize. The problem of brain drain is widespread in India. To nurture and retain talent, the higher educational institutions in India, must increase their potential for research and promote an eco system conducive to creativity and innovation. The President has emphasized the importance of building collaborative partnerships through cutting edge technology, better linkages with the industry and greater incentives through scholarships and grants. This will help in retaining and developing talent and also attract talent from other countries.

The institutions of higher education have to be linked together, today, by the national knowledge network, to result in synergy towards attaining overall growth. The India-US Dialogue states that, during the XII five year plan, i.e., 2012-2017, India intends to achieve an additional enrolment capacity of 10 million students in higher education including 1 million in open and distance learning, so as to raise the country’s Gross Enrolment ratio (GER) in Higher education from 18.1% at present to 25.2% by 2017 and to reach to a target of 30% GER by 2020. India, intends to create an industry-academia interface to develop vocational education in longer run. This requires higher educational institutions to emerge as hubs of knowledge creation and promoters of information. The transformational power of IT in education is unchallenged, as well researched and experienced, therefore, the higher educational institutions now need to develop more massive open online courses and provide an opportunity to the growing population to empower in large numbers. India today faces a big challenge of more than 229 million students in its 1.41 million schools and the government has set a target of skilling 500 million youth by the year 2022. The National Knowledge network has been framed in India and more than 400 Universities and 18,000 colleges are now connected.
5.1 Kurukshetra University:

The foundation of Kurukshetra University was laid by Dr. Rajendra Prasad, the first President of the Republic on 11 January, 1957. The Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra was created by the Haryana State Legislature Act of 12 of 1956. It is situated on the plains of the river Saraswati on the western bank of the famous Bhraham Sarovar. The University Campus spread over 400 acres is located on the south bank of the famed Bhraham sarovar. The vision of the university is to be globally acknowledged as a distinguished centre of academic excellence and its mission is to prepare a class of proficient scholars and professionals with ingrained human values and commitment to expand the frontiers of knowledge for the advancement of society.

The University started with focus on Sanskrit and Indic Studies took a big leap forward in 1961 by transforming its initial unitary character into a multi-faculty university. The University offers 175 courses on the campus in 45 Departments/Institutes. The University also has 362 affiliated colleges and institutes in the districts of Ambala, Panipat, Kaithal, Yamuna Nagar, Hisar, Jind, Karnal, Kurukshetra and Panchkula. The Kurukshetra University is a NAAC accredited ‘A’ Grade University. A survey conducted by a leading national magazine in 2013 ranked the University thirteenth among 170 universities which formed a part of the countrywide survey. The University was placed eleventh in terms of reputation. Likewise, it was placed eighth for quality of its faculty and thirteenth for the quality of academic inputs. In the all important and key area of student care the survey ranked the University at the thirteenth position. The University at present has 25 Hostels - 12 for Boys, 1 for foreign male students and 12 for Girls on the sprawling campus of the university. These hostels have capacity to accommodate 2700 boys and 2834 girls.
5.2 Chaudhary Devi Lal University:

The Chaudhary Devi Lal University, Sirsa was established on 2\textsuperscript{nd} April, 2003. It is named after Chaudhary Devi Lal, the former Deputy Prime Minister of India and the former Chief Minister of Haryana. This University was set up under an Act 9 of 2003 passed by the Haryana State Legislature. It has a sprawling campus of 213 Acres 4 Kanal 12 Marlas at Barnala Road, Sirsa. The main objective of the University is to facilitate, promote and excel in Higher Education, Research and Consultancy in the contemporary as well as emerging areas of knowledge. 46 colleges (18 Degree Colleges, 27 Education Colleges and 01 Law College) are affiliated with this University. There are 16 Teaching Departments offering 38 courses in the University. The University has four well-furnished hostels for boys and girls accommodating 905 (566 Girls and 339 Boys) students.

5.3 Guru Jambheshwar University of Science & Technology:

The Guru Jambheshwar University was established on 20\textsuperscript{th} October 1995 by the Haryana State Legislature Act 17 of 1995. It is named after Guru Jambheshwar Ji Maharaj, a saint environmentalist of 15th century, keeping in view the nature of courses offered at the University and the mandate for which it had been established the name of the University has been changed as Guru Jambheshwar University of Science & Technology. The University is situated over a sprawling area of about 372 acres. The University has been accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), in 2002 as grade 'A' and has been re-accredited as grade 'A' with (CGPA 3.26), in 2009. There are eight Hostels (three for boys, four for girls and one for working women) which can accommodate about 2150 students.

5.4 Maharshi Dayanand University:

The Maharshi Dayanand University was established as Rohtak University, Rohtak, came into existence by an Act No. 25 of 1975 of the Haryana Legislative
Assembly in 1976 with the objective to promote inter-disciplinary higher education and research in the fields of environmental, ecological and life sciences. It was renamed as Maharshi Dayanand University in 1977 after the name of a great visionary and social reformer, Maharshi Dayanand. As per its mission the University is committed to encourage interdisciplinary higher education and research to spread knowledge to every strata of the society. It aims at creating an innovative, value-based and research-oriented world-class learning environment and establishing itself as a centre of excellence. Further, the vision statement provides that the University envisions promoting quality education and research through inter-disciplinary understanding state-of-the-art learning and the use of emerging knowledge for developing world-class human resources capable of mastering the global challenges of future technology and management. The University seeks to create, preserve and disseminate knowledge to build competitive capability for holistic development of man and society. It had a unitary and residential character in its nascent stage, but became an affiliating University in November 1978. The University campus is spread over an area of 665.44 acres. Educational and research programmes are offered through its 40 departments. 530 Institutions/Colleges of General Education, Engineering, Technology, Computer Sciences and Management Sciences located in 10 districts of the State are affiliated to this University. The University provides residential accommodation on the campus to over 4000 students in its 14 hostels - seven for girls and seven for boys.

**Rationale of the Study:**

The government of India introduced the policy of downsizing its manpower and reducing its liabilities. It started guiding and directing its units and states to become self-sufficient and self-sustaining. In this very manner the government of
Haryana also started leaning and thinning its organizations and units. This is quite evident from the health of the State Universities, which are introducing self-financing courses and cutting its manpower. Such kind of economic environmental changes has posed increasing challenges for the universities, which in turn, require them to perform better in terms of quality, time and service. In such a climate the State Universities of Haryana to undergo a massive cultural change so as to bring about corresponding changes in their performances. In this regard, it would be correct to identify and delineate the critical factors in the organizational environment of the state universities that have the most positive impact on the performance of the State Universities. This policy trend has left a major impact on the organizational climate of the state Universities which can be studied through analysing individual attributes as well as job related attitudes of the employees of these State Universities of Haryana.

As it is quite evident from the review of literature that maximum studies/research work have been conducted in the industrial/ organizational set-up whereas a few studies have been conducted in the field of educational institutes specially universities. As the workload on the non teaching employees of the Universities are increasing day by day and very few recruitments are being conducted and the universities are being directed to be self sufficient so the perceived organizational climate in the university set-up is changing very fast. Proposed research work is aimed at to study personal attributes (self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional intelligence), job attitudes (job involvement, job satisfaction), organisational climate and job performance of non-teaching employees working in the state universities of Haryana.

**Statement of the Problem:**

The title of the current study is as under:
“A STUDY OF JOB PERFORMANCE IN RELATION TO PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES, ATTITUDES AND PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE – CASE STUDY OF STATE UNIVERSITIES OF HARYANA”

Objectives of the Study:

1. To study the level of personal attributes (self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional intelligence), work related attitudes (job involvement and job satisfaction), perceived organisational climate and job performance of non-teaching employees of the four State Universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

2. To study the relationship between personal attributes (self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional intelligence), work related attitudes (job involvement and job satisfaction) and perceived organisational climate and job performance of non-teaching employees of the four State Universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

3. To study the predictive values of personal attributes (self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional intelligence), work related attitudes (job involvement and job satisfaction) and perceived organisational climate on job performance of non-teaching employees of the four State Universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

4. To compare the level of personal attributes i.e., self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional intelligence of the non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

5. To compare the level of work related attitudes (job involvement and job satisfaction) of the non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.
6. To compare the level of perceived organizational climate of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

7. To compare the level of job performance of the non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

8. To compare the predictive value of personal attributes, work related attitudes and perceived organisational climate on job performance of the non-teaching employees of the four State Universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

**Hypothesis:**

H1. There is no difference in the level of self-esteem of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

H2. There is no difference in the level of locus of control of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

H3. There is no difference in the level of emotional intelligence of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

H4. There is no difference in the level of self-efficacy of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

H5. There is no difference in the level of job involvement of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

H6. There is no difference in the level of job satisfaction of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.
H7. There is no difference in the level of job performance of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

H8. There is no difference in level of perceived organisational climate of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU) of Haryana.

H9. There is no difference in predictive values of personal attributes, job attitudes and organisational climate on job performance of non-teaching employees of the four state universities (KU, CDLU, GJUS&T and MDU).