2.1 Quality of Work Life:

Quality of Work Life has always been up in studying organizational behaviour. It is evident from the history that direct studies on Quality of Work Life started pouring-in after the first paper presentation by Davis in 1972 at Arden House, US and thereafter, there was a greater pressure on Quality of Work Life studies as organizations increasingly adopting the philosophy of making the man happy at work for enhancing their motivation and will to work. In present scenario of high technology world, it has become a great concern for management as well as employees. Quality of working life is the most substantial work related behavioural phenomenon which has positive impact on production, work culture and effectiveness of the organization. Though lot of work has been done on Quality of Work Life in different areas, but unfortunately a bit attention has been made to variables pertaining to the current research endeavor. Therefore, special attentions of researcher especially have been made on this point.

Payne and Pheysey (1971) in the light of an interesting study conducted on organizational climate came to conclusion that job satisfaction is an indicative of positive Quality of Work Life. This was to highlight qualities of employee’s work life. Job satisfaction is an indicative of positive quality of working life. Hence, whatever studies will be put forth on job satisfaction would be determining relationship of some variable as its important determinants.

Pestonjee (1973) reported that supportive organizations are truly related to workers morale and job-satisfaction. Similarly in a study conducted by Schnider and Snyder (1975), it was found that climate and satisfaction are positively correlated and
almost the same result was found in a study of Lafollette and Sims (1975), as they found organizational climate and organizational practice correlated to jobs. Rajappa (1978) found that organizations with achievement oriented climate were highly productive.

Costello and Sang (1974), reported that majority of job incumbents of publicly owned utility firms were satisfied with security and social needs but, were different in the fulfillment of increase order needs self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualization. Study conducted by Rhillehard et.al (1969) on managers, compared managers working in government agencies with those from business and industries. They found that perceived deficiency in need fulfillment likely to increase successively at lower level which was almost similar to the findings of Jhonson and Marcrum (1968). Their study also revealed that increased dissatisfaction was found among managers of government agencies as compared to managers of business and industries.

Balkrishnan (1976) examined the relational importance of physical, social, financial, security, achievement, responsibility, recognition, and growth factors of industrial employees. Results indicated that financial and physical factors were very important as compared to other factors. Workers were found to be above physical and safety needs and were somewhere between social and ego needs.

Taylor (1977) suggested usefulness of job satisfaction measures in assessing job characteristics in improving Quality of Work Life is problematic. Paradoxically the high and stable levels of job satisfaction can not explain the frustration and alienation in the organization. This leads to the notion that employees’ participation in the action researches on Quality of Work Life may itself reduce their frustration and feeling of alienation.
Hackman et al. (1978) propounded that the job can be re-designed to have the attributes desired by the people and organization, and also to have the environment desired by the people. This approach seeks to improve the quality of working life. Rajappa (1978) found in his study that organizations with achievement oriented climate were highly productive.

Kumar and Bohra (1978), studied relationship of workers job satisfaction with their perception about existing organizational climate. Results revealed that perceived organizational climate effects workers job satisfaction significantly. Workers perceiving organizational climate as democratic had increase in job satisfaction as compared to those who perceived organizational climate as autocratic or undecided.

Sayeed and Sinha (1981) examined the relationship between Quality of Work Life dimensions, job satisfaction and performance measures on the two groups of sample working in high Quality of Work Life and low Quality of Work Life organizations. The result revealed that Quality of Work Life dimensions are related to job satisfaction in both the types of organizations. A comparison between high and low Quality of Work Life organization further indicated systematic variation in the correlation pattern i.e. organization with low Quality of Work Life tended to yield comparatively better relationship between Quality of Work Life dimensions and performance measures than the organization with high Quality of Work Life.

Ambrosini (1983) while reviewing the literature on Quality of Work Life found the decline of work centered approach and the growth of interest in the relationship between work and non-work sphere. The prime perspective adopted during 1960 and 1970 are summarized, citing the emphasis on organizational and socio-technical studies of post Taylorist labour transformation. The emergence of the concept of Subjective
work experience than documented stressing the importance of the time dimensions and work flexibility as determinant of Quality of Work Life. Singh (1983) made an attempt to improve Quality of Work Life by recognizing work and eliminating split-up goals and thereby, made work satisfying and productive.

Singhal (1983), emphasized on the job quality of life where it is pointed out that quality of working life (Quality of Work Life) will be meaningful if the people working in organization live a happy life in society. Economic, family and health related aspects to which employees are exposed as member of larger significant-society are significant factors that influence their quality of working life (Quality of Work Life) experience. He also made a point that Quality of Work Life is a time and situation bound concept that requires constant revisions and modifications as psycho-socio and organizational contents change over time.

Kontbluh (1984) suggested that the contribution, of increased worker's participation in decision-making is appearing more often on labour-management agenda as a strategy to increased employee's Quality of Work Life. The reason for management interest include need for (i) increased probability positive quality (ii) improving Quality of Work Life for the new workers who are educated and have good work ethics, but are alienated and unmotivated under current management practices and (iii) meeting foreign competition.

Levine, et al. (1984), made an attempt to develop a definition and measure of Quality of Work Life. In a specific case setting, 64 employees engaged from large insurance company Delphi Panel constituted in defining Quality of Work Life. A 34 item Quality of Work Life questionnaire was developed from that definition. Tested on 450 employees of company, results showed 7 predictors of Quality of Work Life,
which extended beyond job content. 7 predictors, were (i) Organization to which supervisors show respect and have confidence in employee’s abilities. (ii) Variety in a daily work routine (iii) Work challenge (iv) Organization to which present work leads to good future opportunities (v) Self-esteem (vi) Extent to which life outside work affects work, and (vii) Extent to which work contributes to society.

Hartenstein and Huddleston (1984) enumerated that for Quality of Work Life measures to be successful, management and labour must have shared values, without such values, managers are often authoritarian and deny workers sense of involvement, responsibility and autonomy, resulting in the workers lack of commitment and low productivity.

Rice (1984-85), found out the relationship between work satisfaction and quality of life. Work experience and outcomes can affect person's general quality of life both directly or indirectly through their effects on family interaction, leisure activities and levels of health and energy. Modification in workplace can have their effect by changing environment or changing worker's own class and they can affect his quality and family life.

Braun (1985) presented a paper at annual meeting of rural sociological society in which he propounded some important suggestions regarding Quality of Work Life programmes and industrial justice. According to him currently, Quality of Work Life programmes exists only to increase physical productivity, never to decrease it for the benefit of increased workers happiness. To properly judge true productivity based on industrial justice, there must be a great societal and worker's voice on how productivity is defined. Small benefits to the company at great cost to worker’s and to society at large are to be avoided. Such costs include speed up discrimination, reduction in work
freedom through increased setting of standards, lack of flexibility in setting up and enforcing standards, pseudo-careerism, and defining out of existence of unskilled workers that had served as a social buffer to provide jobs for anyone, no matter what is his experience, Industrial justice requires that workers be allowed to produce with an average rather than an extra-ordinary amount of effort, and that they have right to demand sympathy on occasions.

Graham (1985), investigated worker’s support and rejection attitude towards Quality of Work Life programmes on the sample of shop floor workers. Results indicated that attitude towards Quality of Work Life leads to four generalization (i) When workers experience increased influence and organizations in their relation with management they likely support Quality of Work Life (ii) When this greater influence enable them to obtain changes in both job procedure and working conditions, they are likely to continue their participation (iii) If Quality of Work Life increased cooperation among workers, they will support it, but if it increased competition they will likely reject their programme (iv) Worker’s support for a Quality of Work Life programme is likely to be maintained only if the power of union in bargaining is not hindered. When Quality of Work Life programmes have such positive effects on these four sets of relations, workers ability to obtain changes in workplace to which they see as significant, is increased and their support for increased cooperative relation with management is most likely to be developed and then maintained.

Sengupta and Sekaran (1985), studied bank employees and found, Quality of Work Life in bank is not high and he gave reasons for the same. External environment (government and union interference) facing the banks are seen as impendent to take effective actions by banks. Findings showed that government formulating broad
policies, leave it to banks to attain goal by whichever means they think, greater decentralization, more autonomy and power will facilitate banks to recruit right people, design job as per requirements, rewards employee differentially on the basis of performance and enhance Quality of Work Life and offer quality service to people.

Chakraborty (1986) found out that there are many organizational situations which indicate hidden realities of Quality of Work Life. Researchers are required to examine Quality of Work Life in light of new paradigm based on study of Indian psycho-philosophy offered from a strict problem-solving point of view and may have relevance to educate predicting managers.

Sinha (1986) enumerated that modern workers demand jobs that satisfy their inner needs. In the light of the content and process theories of motivation, it is postulated that the popular way of determining Quality of Work Life is to measure the attitude that constitutes job satisfaction. Moreover, it is also suggested that the prospects of better Quality of Work Life in India have to take sociological, psychological and related context into account.

Rao (1986) investigated the difference between quality of working life of men and women employees doing comparable work and examined the effect of work on women. The result revealed that there were significant higher composite qualities of working life scores for men than for women employees. Men employees had significantly higher scores for opportunity to learn their skills, challenge in job and discretionary elements in works. The findings also advocated that age and income have positive impact on perceived Quality of Work Life for women. Further, Rao did not found significant correlation between Quality of Work Life and the quality of life for
the sample of women. Moreover, he also obtained no effect of education on Quality of Work Life experience.

Keller (1987) studied relative contribution of work and non-work variables on Quality of Work Life among different ethics groups. 127 White, 30 Hispanic, 33 American Banker and 121 Mexicans were taken as the subjects. Results showed no significant relationship between ethics’ groups and Quality of Work Life. Home life and family network variables accounted for increased variance in Quality of Work Life than did work variables like jobs, job-stress and job level.

Mehta (1987) conducted a study on the sample of senior central government officials and middle level officials serving in four states. The results indicate that greater the proximity to the development, the lower was the perceived Quality of Work Life. The findings also revealed that remotest the officials from developmental work, the more satisfied they were with their Quality of Work Life. An interesting feature of the finding of this study was that departmental posting was also associated with perception of lower Quality of Work Life than the Secretariat posting. The perceived quality of work amenities which include housing, education for children, drinking water facilities and salary etc., gradually declined as one moved closer to development work.

According to Gupta and Khandelwal (1988) positive significant relationship was found between Quality of Work Life and role efficacy. The findings also revealed that supervisory behaviour is the most important dimension of Quality of Work Life, contributing 21% of the variance in the employees’ role efficacy. Supervisory role include general satisfaction with supervisor’s day-to-day behaviour, amount of communication and listening, and appreciation of good work.
Dhillon and Dandona (1988) conducted a study on “Quality of Work Life and Job Involvement: A comparative study of managers of public and private banks”. The study found significant difference in Quality of Work Life variable related to job involvement in public and private sector banks.

Gary (1988), tested the specific hypothesis regarding apprenticeship socialization strategy, using sample of new insurance company employees. He found that perceived quality of intern-assignment managers work relationship to have important direct and moderating effect on intern work outcomes. Quality of work relationship was significantly positively related to intern met expectations, role clarity, Organizational Commitment, and performance.

Chakraborty (1989) suggested that quality of domestic life transmits its inevitable effect on quality of home life so as to reduce the intensity of stress experience in context of work life. According to one forecast, by the end of 1990, 50% of American children will belong to single parent or no parent category, is used by author in constructing major emerging scenario of stress. He warned Indians to restrain from uncalled problems of socio-cultural changes. There exist reinforcing cycle of stressors both at home and in workplace.

Sharma (1989) on the basis of her investigation highlighted the importance of Quality of Work Life and organization design as significant dimensions of organizational functioning.

Mee Lin and Bain (1990) have studies relationship between Quality of Work Life programmes and organizational performance measures through a review of 27 studies on unionized firms. Impact of Quality of Work Life on organizational effectiveness (performance of labour management relations and economic and non-
economic performance of the firms) was measured in these studies at 3 levels: (i) industrial (ii) group division/ store (iii) plant/ store of industry. All studies found favourable attitude of workers towards Quality of Work Life programmes and 7 of 10 studies at division level and at job 10 macro level studies found positive effect of Quality of Work Life programmes on productivity. At 3 levels employee participation measures and job redesign were the approaches of Quality of Work Life programmes were most commonly implemented by both union and management. Mixed impact of Quality of Work Life programmes on absenteeism, grievances, turnover, discipline, and labour relations.

Ahmad (1991) investigated perceived Quality of Work Life in relation to organizational role stress among 156 middle level managers of public and private undertakings. Results revealed that all the four dimensions of perceived Quality of Work Life viz., perceived influence at work, perceived amenities at work, perceived nature of job and perceived nature of supervisory behaviour were significantly but negatively related to most of 10 dimensions of organizational role stress. It was further observed that age and tenure were significantly correlated with perceived influence at work and perceived amenities at work.

Havlovic (1991) studied the influence of Quality of Work Life initiatives on HR outcomes. Data was collected by unionized Midwestern heavy manufacturing firm for period during 1976-1986. Results indicated that Quality of Work Life initiatives significance reduce absenteeism, minor or accidents, grievances and quits.

Fields and Thacker (1992) investigated the influence of Quality of Work Life on company and union commitment after the implementation of the joint union management Quality of Work Life perceived the Quality of Work Life effort as
successful programme. Results indicated that company commitment emerged only when participant but union commitment increased irrespective of the perception of Quality of Work Life success.

Karrier and Khurana (1996) examined the relationships among Quality of Work Life and six background variables viz., age, educational qualification, experience, native/migrant, number of dependents and income level and three motivational variables viz., satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement of 491 managers from the public, private and cooperative sector industries. The findings of the study indicate that managers with higher motivation have higher Quality of Work Life perception. Moreover, the results also advocate that educational qualification of managers, size of the organization, job involvement and job satisfaction are significant predictors of Quality of Work Life. Karrier and Khurana (1996), found managers with increased job satisfaction and more job involvement had perception of increased Quality of Work Life.

Srivastava (1996) pointed out that organizational climate and higher order needs (self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualization) are positively related to job involvement. This study has not denoted variables which had been undertaken for study as term Quality of Work Life but also organizational climate, higher order needs and all other bio-social needs which are determinants of Quality of Work Life. Therefore, it is not always necessary to use the term Quality of Work Life but the variables are attributed to the aspect referring to Quality of Work Life.

Venkatchalam et. al (1997), studied that production increased with change adapted by increased Quality of Work Life. Perception of employees, several other factors like security, autonomy, equity of pay and rewards help to increase Quality of
Work Life, satisfaction, involvement, work environment and so on. Some finding showed significant positive relationship between Quality of Work Life and Organizational Commitment.

Nasreen and Ansari (1997) conducted a study on supervisors and middle level managers and reported that socio-psycho personality variables failed to influence Quality of Work Life perceptions. Barkat and Ansari (1997) found significant influence of job tenure and number of promotions earned on perceived Quality of Work Life. The above two studies did not include job involvement but are important to highlight relationship of biographical and psycho-social personality variable in relation to Quality of Work Life. Job involvement is a phenomenon which is outcome of perception of increase Quality of Work Life in which aspects like identification with work, organization, as well as incumbent conductive conditions. Most appropriate to work and working environment as above all variables combined together determine level of job involvement.

Robert (1997) presented a summary of determined tests of the assumption that success rates are so low in Organizational Commitment that doubt or cynicism constitutes the appropriate mind-sets. This opinion continues to appear in the literature, both scientific and popular, despite the existence of several large data sets that could either reinforce the doubt or cynicism, or require variously nuanced caveats about them. 16 major data sets are reviewed in effect to sketch some confidence intervals concerning reasonable estimates of success rates in varieties of planned change commonly labeled as Quality of Work Life, organizational development and Organizational Commitment.
Lan and May (1998), examined how perceived image of a company’s Quality of Work Life will affect its market and financial performance growth. Profitability of two groups of company was compared, based on sales growth, assets growth, return on equity, and return to assets. Results indicated companies with increased Quality of Work Life can also enjoy exceptional growth and profitability.

Donaldson, et al. (1999), studied a major incentive for work-site. Health promotion activities promised increase of company's profitability. Although employee sleep patterns predicted health care utilization and psychological well-being, for most of the employee-health behaviours were not strong predictors of proximal organizational effectiveness factors. However, Quality of Work Life factors significantly predicted Organizational Commitment, absenteeism, and tardiness frequency. Findings suggested the value of improving the system of work in which employee are embedded as part of comprehensive work-site health promotion efforts.

Eden et al. (2000) described the importance of different factors in relation to quality of working life among individuals (aged 25-29 years) granted early retirement due to disorders of the musculoskeletal system. Explanatory variables concerning poor quality of life were established among disability pensioners with musculoskeletal disorders and a control group. In both groups, health status, leisure time activities, and social network were important for quality of life. Among the retirees immigration, employment before retirement, and a negative attitude to the disability pension were related to poor quality of life.

Chan, et al. (2000) compared the experiences of work stress, work satisfaction and mental health on 2,589 managers and workers from six different professions and para-professions, namely; general practitioners, lawyers, engineers, teachers, nurses,
and life insurance personals. Results showed that performance pressures and work family conflicts were perceived to be the most stressful aspects of work. Two of the stressors contributed to the overall work stress. Further, stress arising due to work, family conflicts, performance pressure and poor job prospect was negatively associated with level of work satisfaction. These findings were discussed in contexts of increasing professionalization, and de professionalization and growing emphasis on productivity and efficiency in a quickly developing economy.

Sirgy et al. (2002) developed a new measure of Quality of Work Life based on need satisfaction and spillover theories. The measure was designed to capture the extent to which the work environment, job requirement, supervisory behaviour, and ancillary programmes in an organization are perceived to meet the needs of employees. Seven major needs were identified, each having several dimensions. There are: (a) Health and safety needs, (b) Economic and family needs (c) Social needs, (d) esteem needs (c) self-actualization needs, (f) knowledge needs, (g) Aesthetic needs. The measures convergent and discrimination validities were tested and the data provided support to construct validity of Quality of Work Life measuring. Further the measure nomological predictive validity was tested by hypothesis deduced from spill over theory.

Morin and Audebrand (2003) indicated that one major issue in the development of Quality of Work Life practices is the primacy of financial growth to the detriment of values such as health and social welfare. They also viewed that organizational performance is assessed with two or three financial indicators such as return on investment, profit per share, and net revenues. Although these indicators are essential to profitable organizations but they do not give a complete picture of the firm’s performance. Moreover, they are the tangible results of added value from the
personnel’s creativity and their effective use of the technologies in their work environment. Common sense dictates that healthy employees can be dedicated to their work and can exercise their skills and their imagination to achieve their work goals and to constantly improve their work processes. The opposite is also sensible that unhealthy employees cannot exert their strengths to add value to their work. Consequently, in the short term, the overemphasis on financial indicators could pay off for the managers. But in the long term, it could lead to the shrinkage of financial performance.

Raduan et al. (2006) in a study to determine the level and relationship between qualities of work life (Quality of Work Life) with career-related variables revealed that the three exogenous variables are significant such as career satisfaction, career achievement and career balance with 63% of the variance in Quality of Work Life. The respondents appeared to be satisfied in respect to the level of Quality of Work Life (49.5%), career achievement (70.3%), career satisfaction (63.8%), but less so for career balance (36.6%). These findings contribute to an understanding of ways by top management in attempts to attain a career fit between the needs of the employees and the needs of the organization.

Dargahi et al. (2007) conducted a study to provide the processes used to investigate and implement a pathway for improving of Quality of Work Life as an approach model. The results from the survey showed that the perceived strongest areas among 12 categories developed by Quality of Work Life Strategic Planning Committee that employees agreed to improve on their Quality of Work Life were Organizational Commitment, trust, support, monetary compensation, non-monetary compensation, leadership, attendance management, communication between managers and employees, Communication between managers and managers, overall communication, respect and
recognition. This committee evaluated the outcomes of Quality of Work Life managers and employees teams to improve the employees’ Quality of Work Life. The Quality of Work Life Strategic Planning Committee also recommend a new approach model to suggest the ways which impressive on the employees' improving Quality of Work Life.

Guna et al. (2008) in a study entitled “Constructs of Quality of Work Life: A Perspective of Information and Technology Professionals” concluded that IT industries in many developing countries are experiencing tremendous challenges in meeting the employment market demand. A good human resource practice would encourage IT professionals to be more productive while enjoying their work. Therefore, Quality of Work Life is becoming an important human resource issue in IT organizations. Effective strategic human resource policies and procedures are essential to govern and provide excellent Quality of Work Life among IT professionals. Conversely, poor human resource strategic measures that are unable to address these issues can effectively distort the Quality of Work Life, which will eventually fail the organizations’ vision of becoming competitive globally.

Pugalendhi et al (2011) in a study of Quality of Work Life: Perception of college teachers revealed a significant relationship between Quality of Work Life total and Quality of Life in teaching environment total. They also found that quality of college teachers is low in its working level and stated that Quality of Work Life is an essential concept of favourable situation in a working environment.

2.2 Ego-Strength :

Ego-Strength is a measure of the effectiveness with which the ego is performing its tasks of adapting to the demands of reality. The ability of the ego to incorporate, synthesize and integrate reality is an indicator of Ego-Strength. Ego-Strength gives an
individual the capacity to take the negative experiences of life successfully, without becoming submerged in them. Thus Ego-Strength is "effective personal functioning."

Cooper et al. (1962) investigated the hypothesis that positive changes in ego functioning would occur in psychiatric patients following a few hours of perceptual deprivation and social isolation. Cartwright’s modification of Klopfer’s Rorschach Prognostic Rating Scale was used as a measure of overall adequacy of ego functioning. The results supported the hypothesis. Significant increases were found on the overall scale score and on the two of the three component scores. A second finding was that subjects who functioned least adequately prior to deprivation showed the most improvement after exposure to deprivation. The changes observed on the Rorschach measures were consistent with previously reported post deprivation changes in overt symptomatology.

Pederson (1965), Ego-Strength is a person’s ability to deal with reality. He observed that subject with high Ego-Strength will have greater unconscious concern for achievement than subject with low Ego-Strength.

Malmquist et.al (1967) administered the MMPI to twenty-six premarital pregnant girls. Among other factors that were descriptive, they found "a lack of social conformity." An inability to assess the requirements of society is an indication that adaptation has not been complete. Case studies clearly suggest poor Ego-Strength as reflected in poor adaptation to social reality.

Erikson (1968) suggested that the Ego-Strength found in participation and productivity outside the home is Competence i.e. the free exercise of skills and intelligence in a variety of tasks. Failure to identify those skills that complement the child’s talents and capabilities results in feelings of inadequacy and inferiority.
Schonfield (1972) found that the "cognitive well-being" factor of Barron's Ego-Strength scale differentiated cancer patients in terms of their ability to return to a previous life style and full-time employment.

Duffy and Kanak (1975) have conducted two experiments contrasted the effects of high and low Ego-Strength on confidence thresholds (FG scores) under the anticipation and recall methods. High Ego-Strength resulted in larger FG scores under the anticipation method- weakly so in experiment I but significantly so in experiment II, where subjects were selected from greater extremes of Ego-Strength. This inferiority extended to trials to criterion and a measure of the associative-learning stage as well. Task for extending the generality of the obtained relationship of Ego-Strength and confidence thresholds in paired associate learning are suggested.

Worden and Sobel (1978) studied on Ego-Strength and Psychosocial Adaptation to Cancer. Results showed that psychological adaptation to cancer was related to a patient’s Ego-Strength. Ego-Strength correlated positively with a patient’s use of effective coping strategies. The concept of Ego-Strength and problems with Ego-Strength assessments were discussed within a cognitive – ego analytic frame of reference.

In industrial context, Ego-Strength is likely to be very influential factor but unfortunately this factor has not yet been studied thoroughly till today. Singh (1978) and Singh and Srivasatava (1979), viewed that there are only few studies in which the concept of Ego-Strength has been used in the field of industrial psychology. They have concluded that Ego-Strength has been found to be closely related with job performance of blue-collar workers. The level of job performance has been found higher for high
Ego-Strength group and lower for low Ego-Strength group. Thus, Ego-Strength and performance are positively related to each other.

Singh and Srivastava (1979d) on the other hand studied the effect of Ego-Strength on morale and performance of blue-collar industrial workers and concluded that the Ego-Strength is closely related with morale of blue-collar workers. The level of morale has been found higher for high Ego-Strength group and lower for low Ego-Strength group. Thus Ego-Strength and morale has been found positively correlated. Workers with high level of Ego-Strength evince higher level of productivity in comparison to those with low level of Ego-Strength. The relationship between Ego-Strength and morale is significantly affected by the level of workers’ performance. When the level of performance is higher the relationship between Ego-Strength and morale is higher. The lower level of performance significantly reduces the coefficient of correlation between Ego-Strength and morale. In another study they have also reported that Ego-Strength appears to represent an important variable in supervision, morale and performance relationship. The level of morale is higher for high Ego-Strength group and lower for low Ego-Strength group under employee-oriented and production-oriented supervision groups. The morale and productivity of workers are significantly affected by their level of Ego-Strength. Ego-Strength is more effective in production-oriented supervisory group in comparison to employee-oriented supervisory groups of workers (Singh and Srivastava, 1979 c, e).

Singh (1982) examined the effect of Ego-Strength, participation and job anxiety on performance of blue-collar industrial workers. The findings indicated that Ego-Strength and participation of workers were found to be positively associated with job performance. However, job anxiety was inversely associated with job performance and Ego-Strength.
In a multivariate study on the effects of a structured program on identity and adjustment, Wentz (1986) reported an interrelationship among identity status, locus of control and ego stage development. He used the terms self-concept and self-esteem to cover the variety of terms developed to explain various aspects of the self. These aspects included self-image, self-actualization, ideal self and Ego-Strength. He encompassed locus of control and self-concept into his definition of identity. Wentz found that those persons high in identity status reported less adjustment problems from the divorce than those persons with low identity status.

Richard and Harrison (1988) conducted a study to determine if personal adaptability or Ego-Strength in college students could be predicted from knowledge of performance on scales reflecting five different problem solving dimensions of the personality (developmental autonomy, locus of control, intellectual competence, problem solving ability with a verbal component, and problem solving ability with a nonverbal component). The results of a step-wise regression analysis revealed that a measure of Ego-Strength could be predicted from knowledge of one's performance on other personality measures such as intellectual competence and locus of control.

Drake (1990) investigated the relationship of Ego-Strength and tolerance of ambiguity to divorce adjustment. The study predicted that there would be a positive relationship between Ego-Strength and divorce adjustment. It also predicted a positive relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and divorce adjustment. Results indicated that Ego-Strength had a much larger relative contribution to divorce adjustment than did tolerance of ambiguity or the additional combination of predictor variables.

Singh and Singh (1992) examined the effects of role stress, organizational climate and Ego-Strength on the psychological strains namely environmental
frustration, anger reactions, latent hostility and job anxiety of middle level managers. Results indicated significant differences (a) between environmental frustration, anger reaction and job anxiety in high and low stress group, (b) between job anxiety in high and low organizational climate group and (c) between job anxieties in high and low Ego-Strength groups. However, the interactional effects of all the three variables on psychological strain were found to be statistically significant.

Adams and Marshall (1996) in their study on identity offered as one proposition that identity is shaped by the living systems around the individual and, in turn, adolescents will shape and change these same living systems. Indeed, they identified five common functions of identity that incorporate varying representations of the Ego-Strengths. The essences of these functions are: (a) structure for understanding, (b) meaning and direction, (c) personal control and free will, (d) consistency, coherence, and harmony, and (e) recognition of potential.

Ego-Strength has a role not only in individual assessment and functioning but also in group assessment and functioning. Bernadett-Shapiro (1998) contend that screening tools and/or screening interviews that focus on interpersonal and Ego-Strengths yield valuable assessment data for group selection. Marked heterogeneity in Ego-Strength most often is an exclusion factor for both open and closed process oriented psychotherapy groups in that widely disparate levels of Ego-Strength can make progress beyond the initial stages of group process laborious and painful (MacKenzie,1990; Yalom,1995).

In his comprehensive study of personality disorders and character logic disturbances, Akhtar (1995) noted the connection between Ego-Strength and identity and discusses the assessment of identity in the clinical interview, where Ego-Strength is
lacking to some degree with respect to object relationships; defensive functioning; sense of reality of the world and the self; regulation and control of drives, affects, and impulses; and synthetic integrative function, identity diffusion etc.

In a series of experiments, Baumeister et al. (1998) and Muraven et al. (1998) tested the hypothesis that acts of self-regulation would deplete Ego-Strength, rendering further acts of self-regulation more difficult. In each experiment, participants completed a self regulation task, after which they were given a second self-regulation task, in an unrelated domain. The first self-regulation task was expected to deplete their Ego-Strength so that they would have difficulty completing the second self-regulation task. In each experiment, the two tasks were drawn from unrelated domains to test the notion that there is a limited supply of energy common to all acts of self-regulation. In a variety of domains, individuals were unable to maintain self-regulation in a second situation.

Pamela (2000) conducted a study on re-examination of ego function from the perspective of Ego-Strength rather than ego deficit. She concluded that identifying and assessing Ego-Strength helps nurse psychotherapists locate clients on a developmental continuum, suggests a place to join with the client at the inception of therapy, and provides data to develop therapeutic goals.

Freeman (2001) conducted a study with the purpose to investigate the extent to which measures of Ego-Strength contribute to the prediction of academic achievement. Significant relationships were found between and among the five psychosocial Ego-Strengths such as Hope, Will, Purpose, Competence and Fidelity. Several relationships were found between students’ psychosocial Ego-Strength attributes and parents’ educational levels. A positive significant relationship was found between the total Ego-
Strength and academic achievement. Some differences were found between race and the Hope subscale, faith participation, and faith importance. Race was also found to have a significant influence on the predictive relationships between psycho-social total Ego-Strength and academic achievement. Total Ego-Strength was found to be a significant predictor of academic achievement.

Singh (2002) conducted a study on Ego-Strength among tribal and non-tribal males and female. The finding of the data reveals that non-tribal males and females have higher Ego-Strength as compared to tribal males and females respectively.

Kahan et al. (2003) examined Ego-Strength depletion as an explanation for dietary disinhibition in restrained eaters. As predicted, the result revealed that restrained eaters who repeatedly exercised choice ate significantly more than did restrained eaters who did not exercise choice.

Bakken and Huber (2005) examined the ego development of White women and Black men who were in cross-racial relationships. Twenty-one participants completed in-depth, individual interviews, focus group inquiries and the Sentence Completion Test (SCT). The results indicate that a majority of the participants scored at the higher levels of ego development: 50% of the Black males and 67% of the White females were at the conscientious stage of ego development, 25% of the Black males and 22% of the White females were at the individuated stage. The results from the interviews and the focus groups substantiated the participants’ scores on the SCT, exemplifying the complexity in which Black men and White women perceive themselves as individuals and others in relationships.

Markstrom et al. (2005) studied Ego-Strengths in relation to adolescent’s involvement in adult sponsored structured youth activities. Five-hundred and seventeen
high school students completed measures on their involvement in structured activities and eight on Ego-Strengths. Gender, age, and socio-economic status were controlled. It was found that extracurricular activities of sports, student government, and belonging to an issues group, as well as engagement in volunteerism were related to several of the Ego-Strengths. Religious attendance was not related to the Ego-Strengths. In longitudinal analysis, it was shown that Ego-Strength at Time 1 predicted involvement in structured activities at Time 2 (8 months later), but structured activities at Time 1 did not predict Ego-Strength at Time 2.

Dinesh (2006) in his study on Ego-Strength among males and females found that males have higher Ego-Strength as compared to females their counterparts.

Moller et al. (2006) in his study on Ego-Strength assessed mood to rule it out as a mediator. The BMIS mood measures contained two subscales (pleasant-unpleasant and arousal-calm). A MANOVA was conducted using condition as the independent variable and the two BMIS subscales as dependent variables. The overall effect and the effect on its different subscale were found to be non-significant. Thus, effect did not mediate the result on Ego-Strength. He has also assessed intrinsic motivation i.e. interest/ enjoyment for the activity to rule it out as a mediator of Ego-Strength effects. Specifically, this measure was intended to differentiate persistence that reflects self-regulatory strength from persistence that reflects intrinsic motivation. An ANOVA was conducted using condition as the independent variable and interest as dependent variable. The effect was found not significant indicating that intrinsic motivation on the persistence activity was not affected by choice on the initial activity or intrinsic motivation.
Ribeiro and Hauser (2009) investigated the impact of ego development on the psychosocial functioning of young adults with (high-risk) and without (normative) psychiatric history. Results show an association between those two variables, especially strong for the high-risk group. High-risk individuals with successful psychosocial functioning exhibited levels of ego development more similar to those of normative young adults than to those of the remaining high-risk individuals. Moreover, as predicted, ego development mediated the relationship between psychiatric history and psychosocial functioning. Further, support was found for the protective role of ego development, especially for individuals with psychiatric history.

Pestonjee et al. (2010) in a study to find out the critical influence of Ego-Strength on the job performance and job satisfaction relationship among blue-collar industrial workers revealed no significant moderating effect of Ego-Strength on job performance and job satisfaction relationships. The sub-group analysis among industrial workers also indicated negligible moderating effect of Ego-Strength on job performance and job satisfaction.

2.3 Job Attitude:

Job Attitudes have long been studied in the literature of psychology and management. Job Attitudes have been found to influence how trainees perceive their training experiences, how they react to the training programme (Sitzmann et al. 2008; Tannenbaum et al. 1991) its evaluation and effectiveness (Mathieu and Martineau 1997; Noe 1986; Sahinidis and Bouris 2008). Mathieu and Martineau (1997) suggested that different attitudes are likely to affect training situations.

Job Attitudes and job performance are perhaps the two most central and enduring sets of constructs in individual-level organizational research. Authors of early
qualitative reviews concluded that only weak support existed for the relationship between Job Attitude, job satisfaction, and supervisor ratings or output measures of job performance (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955). A common inference in those reviews was that Job Attitudes were more strongly related to absence, turnover, and other forms of work role withdrawal than they were to in-role performance (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Vroom, 1964). Subsequent quantitative reviews also failed to show Job Attitudes as having strong predictive utility. One meta-analysis reported a lackluster value as the best estimate of the correlation between satisfaction and performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985).

Another review showed Organizational Commitment bore a weaker relationship to job performance than to at least one withdrawal behaviour and turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Consequently, the pendulum of causal potency has swung away from Job Attitudes (Judge et al. 2001). One widely held view is that attitudes are inconsistent or epiphenomenal forces in work behaviour as Locke & Latham (1990) found only 3 to 4 percent of performance variance and have little practical importance for managers.

Based on a literature review of Job Attitude research, Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) developed a model of job satisfaction, which assumed that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on opposite ends of a continuum, but are separate attitudes. They proposed that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are caused by different underlying job factors and cannot substitute for each other for practical purposes. Their empirical study identified five factors as strong determinants of job satisfaction such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement. These factors are called motivators. Another group of factors caused or prevented dissatisfaction are as follows; company policy and administration, technical
aspects of supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships with superiors and working conditions. These factors are called hygiene factors.

Drawing on discrepancy theory (Lawler, 1973), assumed that a match or congruence between what workers prefer and what organization offer will enhance employee positive attitudes. Levine (1987) realizes that the congruence of work schedule, shifts and hours of work will be easier for part time workers because they are given flexibility in scheduling their work. Therefore, they will have more positive Job Attitudes and will be less likely to change jobs. Additionally the consistency between preferred and actual work schedule is a source of difference in job satisfaction and commitment, whether the contract is full-time or part-time or temporary (Barling & Gallagher, 1996) and working a preferred work schedule was positively associated with job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment whereas no association was found between work status and Job Attitudes (Lee & Johnson, 1991).

Newman (1975) tested the relative efficacy of personal and organizational characteristics in accounting for employee Job Attitudes and then tested the utility of using the perceived work environment as an intervening variable that might contribute to the understanding of the relationship between the objective organizational structure characteristics and the employees' affective reactions. It was concluded that employees in different locations in the organizational space perceived the work environment differently. Presumably, these different work environment experiences resulted in their using different frames of reference for evaluating the work situation and, therefore, differences in their attitudes. Therefore, perceived work environment can be construed as an intervening variable that can be used to understand the relationship between organizational structure characteristics and Job Attitudes.
Pearce (1983) in his study yields significant differences in Job Attitudes and work motivation between volunteers and employees. It was expected in his study that volunteers will report greater intrinsic, social and service motivation, greater job satisfaction and less intent to leave the organization. It was also expected that they will report that their activities are more praiseworthy than employees of their respective organization. The expectation is confirmed for all variables except intrinsic motivation in this regard.

Steers & Porter (1983), Walton (1985) and Miller & Monge (1986) confirm that proponents of job enrichment and quality-of-work-life intervention have cited specific improvements in Job Attitudes, specifically job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.

Staw, et al. (1986) suggested that employees "bring a positive or negative disposition to the work setting, process information about the job in a way that is consistent with that disposition and then experience job satisfaction or dissatisfaction as a result." They cited three separate findings to support their assertion that the formulation of task attitudes "comes as much from the internal state of the individual as from any other external cues." The three findings were: (a) variation in task perceptions among persons with identical job descriptions (O'Reilly, Parlette, & Bloom, 1980), (b) positive correlations between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Weaver, 1978), between Job Attitudes and mental health (Kahn, 1981) and (c) failures of field experiments to yield long-term changes in Job Attitudes (Oldham & Hackman, 1980).

Job related attitudes play a major role in shaping the work behaviours of managers in organizations. Lynn et al. (1990) have developed a theoretical model to describe the differential relationship that organizational attitudes such as Organizational
Commitment and satisfaction and Job Attitudes like Job involvement and satisfaction have with several behaviour intentions (turnover, absenteeism and performance).

Nuttin (1987) revealed that feelings of psychological ownership lead to positive attitudes about the entity. In the same vein Beggan (1992) proposed the idea of ‘mere ownership effects’ based on empirical analysis of reactions to perceptions of ownership. Results of this study showed that people evaluated ideas and objects more favorably when they felt a sense of ownership for the target.

Pomerantz (1995) examined whether multiple indicators of attitude strength form general dimensions that foster differential pathways to resistance. Ego involvement, certainty, personal importance, knowledge and extremity were assessed. Resistance processes and outcomes were measured in a selective judgment paradigm. Intentions to act on attitudes and information-seeking proclivities were also assessed. Factor analyses of the strength measures revealed 2 factors. Both fostered intentions to act but were associated with differential resistance processes and outcomes. Heightened levels of the factor representing commitment to one's position were associated with increased selective elaboration, selective judgment and attitude polarization. Embeddedness, the linkage of the attitude to one's self-concept, value system and knowledge structure was associated with decreased selective elaboration and increased information seeking and selective memory.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) viewed that different attitudes have different mixes or relative proportions of affective and cognitive elements. Extending this idea and applying it to psychological ownership, they propose that psychological ownership is different from other work-related attitudes and has unique explanatory power because its conceptual core is feelings of possession that trigger affect-driven
behaviours. In other words, psychological ownership consists, in part, of an emotional attachment to the organization that transcends the mere cognitive evaluation of the firm.

On the other hand Pierce et al. (2001) examined the relationships between psychological ownership for the organization and employee work attitudes (Organizational Commitment, job satisfaction and self-concept) and two different kinds of employee’s work behaviours (performance and organizational citizenship). They have started with a brief summary of the psychology of possession literature (e.g., Furby, 1978). They have further discussed psychological ownership for the organization and develop hypotheses based on the psychology of ownership and property literatures. They tested their predictions with three field samples and concluded by discussing both theoretical and practical implications of their work.

Job satisfaction, a considerable component of Job Attitude appears to be predictive of managerial performance. Organ (1988) suggests that the failure to find a relationship between job satisfaction and performance is due to the narrow means that is often used to define job performance. The correlation between job satisfaction and performance would be considerably higher for complex jobs than for less complex jobs, indicating that complex jobs may afford greater autonomy. Thus, giving individuals greater latitude to act on their satisfaction (Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985). On the other hand Deidra et al. (2004) suggest affective-cognitive consistency as a significant moderator of the job satisfaction – performance relationship and that shows a significantly larger correlation between job satisfaction and performance.

Prior studies have made to understanding on the relationships of work-life balance as a concept towards employees attitudes due to the discrepant results in
examining the direct effects of work-life policies alone towards work attitudes. Tompson and Werner (1997) reported work–family facilitation to be related to job satisfaction and affective Organizational Commitment. Consequently incompatible findings in the studies of work-life programs (i.e. flexible work options, part-time work and flexible hours arrangements) warrants the usage of work status congruence (person-job fit) construct which examine the match between preferred and actual status, schedule, shift and hours as the vital antecedents of work-life balance and work-related attitudes.

Semmer (1998) and Terry & Jimmieson (1999) revealed that resources at work such as job control are in general positively related to wellbeing, health and job-related attitudes. Moreover, job demands like job complexity and variety have the same effects on well-being and job-related attitudes as resources at work as long as they do not overtax a person’s capabilities and as long as they allow utilizing one’s skills, knowledge, and abilities and, therefore, promoting learning.

Positive relationships of job complexity and variety with well-being and job-related attitudes have been reported both in the literature on stress at work in general (Sonnentag & Frese, 2003; Warr, 1999). While control, complexity, and variety are associated with well-being, good health, and positive job-related attitudes, the opposite applies to stressors at work. In general, stressors are a possible source for chronic stress, such as impaired well-being and health (e.g., irritation, psychosomatic complaints; cf. Kahn & Byosiere, 1992; Sonnentag & Frese, 2003) and negatively affect job-related attitudes too. For instance they might reduce job satisfaction and Affective Commitment over time, and, in turn, enhance intentions to quit a job (e.g., Sonnentag & Frese, 2003).
Many researchers agree that Job Attitude has a positive impact on performance (Mishra and Gupta, 1994; Gable and Dangello, 1994; Hussain and Islam, 1999; Hossain, 2000; Manikandan, 2002). Paterson et al. (1990) and Shawkat Ahmed and Asma (1999) have shown positive relationship between job involvement and performance; and job involvement may be a potential predictor of performance and related behaviours.

A number of research studies have demonstrated significant relationship between Organizational Commitment and performance (Wiener and Vardi, 1980; Reddy, 1985; Mayer et al., 1989; Shore and Martina, 1989; Rai and Sinha, 2000; Angel and Lawson, 1994). Riketta (2002) has noted a positive relation between attitudinal Organizational Commitment and job performance and identified moderators of this correlation. Research conducted within this framework has indicated that commitment is not only a predictor of employee retention (Porter, et al. 1974) but may also be a predictor of employee effort and performance (Mowday, et al. 1979; Robert, 1997; Manikandan, 2002).

Parker & Bradley (2000) found that the public-private distinction brings important differences not only in organizational structure, diversity of goals and resources but in Job Attitudes and behavioural intentions as well.

Vigoda (2000) examined the relationship between perception of organizational politics, Job Attitudes and several other work outcomes among public sector employees. Perception of organizational politics was found to have had a negative relationship with Job Attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment), a positive relationship with intention to leave the organization and a stronger positive relationship with negligent behaviour. It is suggested that public personnel will tend to
react to workplace politics with negligent behaviour rather than by leaving. A weak negative relationship was found between perception of organizational politics and employees’ performance as reported by supervisors. Perception of organizational politics also made a unique contribution to explaining variance among the work outcomes, beyond the variance explained by Job Attitudes and personal variables.

Grebner et al. (2003) conducted a study on Working conditions, well-being, and job-related attitudes among call centre agents. A comparison of 234 call centre agents with 572 workers in traditional jobs with long lasting training revealed lower job control and task complexity/variety and higher uncertainty among call agents. However, time pressure, concentration demands, and work interruptions were lower in call agents. Within the call agent sample, controlling for negative affectivity and other working conditions, job control predicted intention to quit, and job complexity/variety predicted job satisfaction and Affective Commitment. Social stressors and task-related stressors predicted uniquely indicators of well-being and job-related attitudes.

Saari and Judge (2004) in their study on employee attitudes and job satisfaction identified three major gaps between HR practice and the scientific research in the area of employee attitudes in general and the most focal employee attitude in particular i.e. job satisfaction: (1) the causes of employee attitudes, (2) the results of positive or negative job satisfaction and (3) how to measure and influence employee attitudes. In addition, researchers provide more in-depth understanding of the effects of employee attitudes and job satisfaction on organizational measures such as customer satisfaction and financial measures. Greater insights on the relationship between employee attitudes and business performance will assist HR professionals as they strive to enhance the essential people side of the business in a highly competitive and global arena.
Gagne (2005) in his study found that some individuals feel honored if delicate with responsibility and authority to perform complex tasks. Such employees in order to meet the expectation perform outwardly and it ultimately increasing work motivation and job satisfaction. When people perform effectively at these jobs, they experience satisfaction of the basic psychological needs and have positive attitudes toward their jobs.

Harrison et al. (2006) proposed attitude-engagement model which strongly associates overall Job Attitude with individual effectiveness. They found that overall Job Attitude has considerable importance for understanding behavioural outcomes. In their model, job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment are the underlying dimensions of overall Job Attitude.

Vera Bitsch (2006) conducted a study on Job Attitudes of Agricultural Middle level Managers and non-supervisory employees. He concluded that Middle level managers and non-supervisory employees are similar in terms of their overall attitudes towards their jobs. Both groups of employees are more likely to talk about job satisfaction than to talk about dissatisfaction. Supervisors are slightly less likely to mention dissatisfying aspects of their jobs compared to non-supervisory employees who are more likely to be ambivalent. While there is evidence for each of the additional factors suggested by Bitsch and Hogberg (2005), attitudes towards them are somewhat different for middle managers than for non-supervisory employees.

Jayan (2006) explored the role of predictive variance of emotional competencies, personality variables and Job Attitudes on job performance. The sample consisted of (N=204) middle level managers, who completed Emotional Competency Inventory, Type A Personality Pattern, Job Attitudes Scale and Performance Rating.
Scale. The Step-wise regression analysis yields seven significant variables capable of predicting job preference. On the whole, 7 variables (5 from Emotional Competencies, one from Personality and one from Job Attitudes) are found to be significant predictors of managers’ performance. To conclude, of the 27 variables considered here, the above said 7 variables in the combination could predict about 34% of variation in performance of managers.

Caramelli and Briole (2007) discussed how cultural values may moderate the attitudinal effects of employee stock ownership. Most of the existing empirical evidence suggests that employee ownership may have positive effects on such variables as affective Organizational Commitment or work satisfaction through three phenomena such as the mere ownership of equity stocks, the financial rewards related to stock ownership and the information and participation rights related to some employee ownership schemes. However, as suggested by cross-cultural management theory, the attitudinal effects of management practices depend on the fit between the assumptions, values, and beliefs inherent in any given managerial practice and the culturally based assumptions, values and beliefs held by those who are being managed.

Sahinidis and Bouris (2008) found the significance correlation between employees’ Organizational Commitment, job satisfaction, motivation and their perceived training effectiveness which in turns will improves training outcomes.

Sirin (2009) carried out a study to determine whether the job satisfaction of research assistants at Schools of Physical Education and Sport and their attitudes to university lecturers varies at a meaningful level regarding some variables and to find out the correlation between them. The research assistants’ points and general job satisfaction, sub dimension of job satisfaction and quality of job satisfaction, image of
the institution, satisfaction of job security, satisfaction with academic atmosphere, and executive consultant, communication and satisfaction points with colleagues did not vary according to the different age variable. On the other hand, differences at a meaningful level in the points of salary satisfaction according to the age variable were confirmed. According to the research assistants’ service period variable, no differences were found in the job satisfaction, the sub dimension of job satisfaction and in the average of the points of lecturers. A moderate positive versatility among general job satisfaction with regard to research assistants’ attitude to lecturers, satisfaction from the job quality and image of the institute, communication and the satisfaction with colleagues as the sub dimension of job satisfaction was confirmed.

Twenge (2010) reviewed the evidences for generational differences in work attitudes from time-lag studies and cross-sectional studies. Most studies, including the few time-lag studies show that Gen-X and especially Gen-M rate work as less central to their lives, value leisure more, and express a weaker work ethic than Boomers and Silents. Extrinsic work values (e.g., salary) are higher in Gen-M and especially Gen-X. Contrary to popular conceptions, there were no generational differences in altruistic values (e.g., wanting to help others). Conflicting results appeared in desire for job stability, intrinsic values (e.g., meaning), and social/ affiliative values (e.g., making friends). Gen-X and especially Gen-M are consistently higher in individualistic traits. Overall, generational differences are important where they appear, as even small changes at the average mean that twice or three times as many individuals score at the top of the distribution.
2.4 Organizational Commitment:

A number of studies conducted by Sheldon (1971), Hrebinia & Alutto (1972), Buchanan (1974) and Steers (1977) based on different theories, in the domain of Organizational Commitment revealed that Organizational Commitment was affected by three major factors such as personality, job specialty, and working experience. The outcome affected by Organizational Commitment includes the retention willingness, retention demand, attending rate, and work performance. Based on the related theory, Steers (1977) proposed a cause-effect relationship model. In this model, Organizational Commitment has been visualized as an intervening variable which affects a member’s value, attitude, and behaviour in the organization.

Researches in recent past have mainly focused on controllable external factors influencing Organizational Commitment such as modification of HRM policies and practices (Paul & Anantharaman, 2004), increasing socialization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), improving compensation (Mowday et al., 1982; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986), leadership and interpersonal dynamics (Tu, Raghunathan, & Raghunathan, 2001), and hygiene factors (Balaji, 1985; Khokle, 1998). Very few dispositional characteristics have been tested for their influence on an individual’s Organizational Commitment.

B. Buchanan (1970) has compared questionnaire responses from 279 managers in three industrial and five federal agencies on measures of Organizational Commitment. Findings made by Buchanan clearly indicate that industrial managers observed greater commitment as compared to federal agencies on Organizational Commitment dimension.

In an interesting study Porter et al. (1974) suggested that job satisfaction is changed more readily than Organizational Commitment, and therefore concluded that
job satisfaction is also likely to be affected by a successful Quality of Work Life effort.

Mowday et al (1992), Steers (1977), investigated the role of personal characteristics and found that the characteristics and experiences that a person brings to an organization can predict their commitment to the organization. Furthermore, Allen & Meyer (1993), Buchanan (1974) and Hall (1977) have found a positive relationship between an employee’s age and time with the organization and their level of commitment. Studies have also found that employee traits such as leadership and communication styles have an effect on Organizational Commitment (Decottis & Summers, 1987).

Jermier & Berkes (1979) collected data on Organizational Commitment from over 800 police officers. The researchers were investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment. Findings revealed that employees who were more satisfied with their job had higher levels of Organizational Commitment.

Burning and Snyder (1983) investigated respondents’ sex and their employment position as predictors of Organizational Commitment. Findings of the study failed to predict Organizational Commitment as a function of employees’ hierarchical position and sex difference. In the same vein Gradelick and Farr (1983) made an effort to examine sex difference in Organizational Commitment and job involvement along with issues pertaining to role conflict, treatment on the job and involvement in professional activities. Significant differences were found between men and women on the level of Organizational Commitment, their perception on the job-treatment and
the extent of their role conflicts. However, no significant differences were found between men and women on job involvement and professional activity.

Reichers (1986) conducted a study on mental health professionals to identify the correlates of Organizational Commitment using multiple constituency frameworks. Conflict among multiple commitments and multiple commitments to several constituencies were correlated with global Organizational Commitment. Results revealed that the perceived conflicts between individual and managerial goal orientation are significantly associated with Organizational Commitment. Moreover, commitments to top management’s goal were positively associated with commitment to the organization.

Williams and Hazer (1986) reviewed the model of commitment to identify the casual relationship between job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment and to identify the antecedents of these variables. Results support the relationship between personal/organizational characteristics and job satisfaction, and between satisfaction and commitment. Moreover, commitment was also found an important aspect of turnover.

Bhattacharya and Verma (1986) studied 160 executives of Bharat Cooking Coal LTD, Dhanbad. Obtained findings revealed that Organizational Commitment, need satisfaction and managerial respect were significantly and positively related with job satisfaction both either independently or in conjunction thereof.

Koys (1988) looked at the influence of selected human resource management practices on employee’s commitment to the organization. His subjects were 88 full-time employees from different organizations who were enrolled in a part-time MBA program. After controlling for job satisfaction, Koys’ correlation analysis found that
his subjects positively related Organizational Commitment to their perceptions of their human resource department’s motivation for implementing the different practices. Koys reported that perceptions that management’s desire to show respect for the individuals and management’s need to attract and retain quality employees increased subject’s Affective Commitment. On the other hand, Koys concluded no significant relationship with Affective Commitment existed when subject’s perceived that the human resource department’s activities were motivated out of compliance with the law or to improve performance.

In one of the significant study Allen and Meyer (1990) tested the aspect of three component (affective, continuance and normative) model of Organizational Commitment that integrates various conceptualizations (affective attachment, perceived cost and obligation). The results revealed that the affective and continuance components of Organizational Commitment are empirically distinguishable constructs with different correlates. The affective and normative components, although distinguishable, appear to be somewhat related. Thus the quality of the workplace is a vital factor in promoting Organizational Commitment. In contrast, good leadership and management may not guarantee committed employees.

In a study Meyer & Allen (1991) have used affective, continuance and Normative Commitment to capture the multidimensional nature of Organizational Commitment, and among them comparatively Affective Commitment was considered to be a more effective measurement of Organizational Commitment. Meyer & Allen (1997) buttressed their support for the importance of Affective Commitment by explaining that employees with strong Affective Commitment would be motivated to
higher levels of performance and make more meaningful contributions than employees who expressed continuance or Normative Commitment.

Luthans et al. (1992) examined the relationship between the social supportiveness climate and Organizational Commitment among banks employees. Findings reveal that supportive climate has a clear and positive relationship with Organizational Commitment. This finding is quite relevant in the present scenario where organizational goals can not be attained without affective coordinative activities, hence supportive climate certainly seems to be an important aspect that significantly influence work related behaviour especially employee’s commitment towards their job.

Wallace, (1993) study on teachers found that teachers who are more committed to the profession and its goals are less likely to be highly committed to the organization.

Zeffana (1994) surveyed 474 public and 944 private sector employees in Australia to examine the Organizational Commitment and perceived management style. Finding reveals that private sector employees had higher Organizational Commitment and scored high on flexibility, adaptation and on work group discontinuity than public sector employees.

Chen (1995) enumerated that Organizational Commitment is greatly influenced by the leadership style of managers. Therefore, the leadership style of a manager is able to affect subordinates’ Organizational Commitment and Organizational Commitment has also been found related to a person’s service attitude, passion and willingness to work. On the other hand Loui (1995), found that commitment was significantly related to trust, job involvement and job satisfaction.

In a study involving 109 workers, Loui (1995) examined the relationship between the broad construct of Organizational Commitment and the outcome measures
of supervisory trust, job involvement, and job satisfaction. In all three areas, Loui reported positive relationships with Organizational Commitment. More specifically, perceived trust in the supervisor, an ability to be involved with the job, and feelings of job satisfaction were found to be major determinants of Organizational Commitment.

Martin and Hafer (1995) reported that Organizational Commitment and job involvement jointly interact to affect turnover. The effect of Continuance Commitment on turnover could be expected to have a positive and significant affect. However, Jaros (1995) showed that Affective Commitment had the greatest affect on turnover intentions. Financial pressure would probably have a major affect on Continuance Commitment (Brett, Cron & Slocum, 1995). The relationship between commitment and job performance is still intangible, though; some researchers indicate that commitment to supervisors is positively related to performance more as compared to commitment to organization itself (Becker, Billings, Eveleth & Gilbert, 1996).

Cohen (1996) investigated the relationship between affective, continuance, and Normative Commitment and the following other types of variables such as: work involvement, job involvement, and career commitment. Findings revealed that Affective Commitment was more highly correlated with all the other types of variables. In other words, employees who remained with the organization because they wanted to be more likely to exhibit higher levels of commitment to their work, their job, and their career.

Balfour and Wechsler (1996) pointed out that overall Organizational Commitment is an appropriate and significant aspect to focus for organizational productivity and performance.
Irving, Coleman, & Cooper (1997) investigated the relationship between affective, continuance and Normative Commitment and the outcome measures of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Results revealed that job satisfaction was positively related to both affective and Normative Commitment. However, job satisfaction was negatively related to Continuance Commitment. All three types of commitment were negatively related to turnover intentions, with Continuance Commitment having the strongest negative relationship.

Wahn (1998) observed that women professionals are getting higher levels of Continuance Commitment as compared to male professionals in the area of human resource management. The study also revealed positive relationship between tenure and Continuance Commitment and negative relationship between educational level, level in hierarchy and Continuance Commitment. In conclusion, women workers appear to have the same or greater level of Organizational Commitment to their workplace as compared to their counterparts.

Pattanayak et al. (1999) examined the nature of Organizational Commitment among 240 (executives and non executives) employees. Results revealed that there exists significant difference between executives and non executives on Organizational Commitment. Executives were found to be more committed than non executives. Further employees in the service units found to have more perceived Organizational Commitment than production line employees.

Singh and Vinnicombe (2000) found that female managers linked commitment to concern for people and availability to interact with employees, whereas male managers linked commitment to innovation, task orientation and challenge for work. These
findings suggest that Organizational Commitment among male and female managers may be predicted by unique sets of issues.

Flood et al. (2001) observed that in traditional psychological contracts, employees exchange their satisfaction of met expectations on behalf of the company against a conformance behaviour. They meet certain minimally acceptable standards and hence, Organizational Commitment. In other words, the greater the degree to which employee expectations have been met, at least at a basic level, the more likely they are to feel an obligation to conform and, consequently, to commit themselves with organizations.

George A. Boyane (2002) has reviewed private firms and public agencies on various dimensions of Organizational Commitment such as organizational environments, goals, structure and managerial values. Evidence from 34 empirical studies of differences between public agencies and private firms was critically examined. Findings revealed that public organizations are more bureaucratic, materialistic and have weaker Organizational Commitment as compared to private organizations.

Britt (2003) reviewed the relationship between Organizational Commitment and women’s career advancement. The results revealed that normative and Continuance Commitment related positively to career advancement, and that women were encouraged to seek top positions.

Sui (2003) examined moderating effects of Chinese work values, organizational values and Organizational Commitment on the stress–job performance relationships. The result consistently revealed that sources of pressure and self rated job performance
were negatively related with Organizational Commitment and Chinese work values were positively related to job performance.

Gautam et al (2004) examines the structure of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and its relation to Organizational Commitment in Nepal. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses revealed two factors of OCB, altruism and compliance, replicating western models of extra-role behaviour. Structural equation analysis showed a positive relation between affective and Normative Commitment on the one hand and both citizenship factors on the other. Continuance Commitment was negatively related to compliance and unrelated to altruism. The findings thus confirmed the structure and usefulness of the concepts in an under-researched geographical area.

Abbot, White and Charles (2005) affirm that a reliable forecaster of organizational behaviour is Organizational Commitment, which describe the emotional association between the employee and the organization and the development of this relationship. They confirm that previous studies have shown that the Organizational Commitment of an employee is connected to fundamental workplace behaviour. Hoogervorst, Koopman and Filer (2005) further add that organizational culture, management practices, organizational structures and systems must be understood and appreciated, so as to attain collective and consistent employee behaviour.

Cunningham (2006) supported the conjecture that positive characteristics would be related to organizationally relevant positive attitudes like commitment and satisfaction, because positive people would make it necessary for the organization to improve on the affective and normative components of commitment, rather than try and work on increasing exit barriers for employees. Thus organizations may be well-advised to look for positive people as employees.
Balay (2007) investigated the relationship between different levels of Organizational Commitment (compliance, identification, internalization) of teachers and their different conflict management strategies (compromising, problem solving, forcing, yielding and avoiding). The findings of the study revealed that male teachers are more likely to experience commitment based on compliance, and are more likely to avoid conflicts than female teachers. As teachers get older they are more likely to experience commitment based on internalization and identification, and they are more likely to use problem solving conflict management strategies than those who are younger. The results also revealed that both identification and internalization are significant determinants of the use of compromising and problem-solving conflict management strategies. Commitment based on compliance is the only significant predictor of forcing behaviour. Commitment based both on identification and compliance is found to be the important determinants of avoiding behaviour. Of these two, identification was found to be the most significant predictor of avoiding conflict behaviour. Conflict resolution through yielding was not predicted by any level of Organizational Commitment.

Samad (2007) found that Committed and satisfied employees are normally high performers and contribute towards organizational productivity.

Erben and Guneser (2008) investigated the relationship between paternalistic leadership behaviours, climate regarding ethics and Organizational Commitment. Results indicated that benevolent paternalistic leadership had a moderate effect on Affective Commitment and strong effect on Continuance Commitment. Moreover, it was found that paternalistic leadership had an effect on the perception of an ethical climate. Strong relationship was found between climate regarding ethics and Affective
Commitment; moderate relationship was found between climate regarding ethics and Continuance Commitment. Finally, results indicated that climate regarding ethics had a mediating effect between benevolent paternalistic leadership and Affective Commitment.

Warsi, Fatima and Sahibzada (2009) analyzed the relationship between work motivation, overall job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment among Pakistani workforce. Results showed that positive and significant relationship exists between work motivation, overall job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment. Although both independent variables are strongly associated with Organizational Commitment and the impact of job satisfaction on Organizational Commitment is relatively stronger than that of the work motivation on Organizational Commitment. Managerial implication of the study is to focus more on motivating employees for promoting Organizational Commitment on their part.

Mamta and Baldev (2010) assessed the level of employee engagement among managers of a public sector undertaking in India. Besides highlighting the level of engagement, the study has identified the predictors of Organizational Commitment, which was used as an important manifestation of employee engagement. The study has revealed that the level of employee engagement is quite modest. Three factors, namely, pay; job content and objectivity are found to be the predictors of employee engagement in this regard.

2.5 Rationale of the Study :

A well-known American HRD pioneer known as Leo Nard Nadler during 1960s coined the term Human Resource Development (HRD). HRD can be defined as a process to help employees of the organization in a well-planned scientific manner. The
aim of HRD is to fulfill the following lofty objectives such as: (i) to develop skills, knowledge and attitudes among workforce of the organization, (ii) to foster challenging, competitive, competent and committed workforce inside the organization, (iii) to remove abominable attitudes of employees from the job-settings, (iv) to develop a healthy organizational culture inside the organization and finally (v) to develop affable relationship between supervisors and subordinates.

Organization is comprised of different level/hierarchy of employees such as Directors, Managers, Supervisors, Subordinates and other lower level employees. Managers are the important members of the organizations who formulate and implement organizational policies and plans and play crucial roles in the organizations. They act as a bridge between top management, subordinates and other lower level employees. Keeping in view the vital role of managers in the organization, it was thought important to conduct empirical research on this important workforce.

Since private and public sectors contribute a lot to the economic growth of the country, which are finely influenced through application of HRD intervention strategies. Therefore, keeping in view the present research was framed as "Influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Organizational Commitment of Managerial Personnel".

In the present investigation Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude have been used as independent variables and Organizational Commitment as dependent variable.

The term Quality of Work Life has different meanings to different people. Some label it as a happiness programme, others especially trade unions name it as a subtle employee incentive or just another productivity device. Quality of working life has
assumed increasing interest and importance in both industrialized as well as developing countries of the world. In India, its scope seems broader than much labour legislation enacted to protect the workers. It is more than a sheer work organization movement which focuses on job security and economic growth to the employees. Thus, quality of work life refers to the level of happiness or dissatisfaction with one's career. Those who enjoy their careers are said to have a high Quality of Work Life, while those who are unhappy or whose needs are otherwise unfilled are said to have a low Quality of Work Life.

Quality of Work Life has emerged as a potent factor in the recent past throughout developing countries including India. Its scope seems to be brighter than much labour legislation enacted to protect the cause of personnel. Quality of Work Life is highly complex and multifaceted concept employing a deeper concern for the members of an organization irrespective of the level they belong. It includes job factors like wages, hour of work and the nature of job itself. Spink (1975) viewed Quality of Work Life as "a degree of excellence in work and working conditions which contributes to the overall satisfaction of the individual and enhance both individual and organizational effectiveness".

Since Quality of Work Life plays crucial roles in life of individuals and sustainable development of organizations. Hence, keeping in view its paramount importance this dimension has been exclusively used as an independent variable in the present research.

In Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality, Ego-Strength is the ability of the ego to effectively deal with the demands of Id, the super ego and reality. Ego-Strength is also the ability of an individual to manage both the id and superego despite
the pressures of both that demand to increase pleasure or act within society standards. The Ego-Strength is the balance that Freud emphasized as the key to a healthy personality; one that is both able to seek pleasure successfully but doing so within reason and acceptable time and place.

Those with little Ego-Strength may feel torn between these competing demands, while those with too much Ego-Strength can become too yielding and rigid. Ego-Strength helps us to maintain emotional stability and cope with internal and external stress. Ego-Strength can be defined as an important factor determining the capacity of an individual to perceive challenging situation realistically, decide the course of action rationally and to execute the response effectively.

In the present competitive scenario where private national and international companies are fastly stepping into different kinds of business ventures, it has become difficult to survive and develop. In such a tough competition only those organizations will survive and develop which have workforce and employees of high Ego-Strength. Hence, it was thought necessary to include Ego-Strength in the present study to see its roles in Organizational Commitment.

Interpersonal relations, to a large extent, are determined by attitudes of people holds. Similar attitudes tend to produce more cooperation and dissimilar attitude produce more friction among individuals. Attitudes usually refer to the feelings, beliefs and actionable tendencies of an individual or a group of individual towards objects, ideas and peoples. However, Job Attitudes refer to employee's feelings, beliefs and actions towards their respective jobs favourable or unfavourable. Each attitude has cognitive, behavioural, and emotional components. The cognitive component shows the knowledge the individual has about a particular attitude, the emotional component
shows the like-dislike degree of the individual towards the attitude, and the behavioural component indicates the tendency of the individual to act in a direction which has evolved under the influence of the former two components (Baysal & Tekarslan, 2004).

Job Attitudes with its affective, cognitive and conative aspects plays crucial roles in the stay of employees with organizations. In the present competitive time only those organizations sustain which have workforce of strong feelings and actions to support and stay with the organizations as those are the persons who provide identity to the organizations and growth oriented economic base. Therefore, Job Attitudes of employees was included in the present study as an independent variable so as to investigate its relationship with Organizational Commitment.

Commitment is a psychological state more representative of an attitude (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Organizational Commitment in recent research and thought is viewed as a three dimensional construct (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; O’Reily & Chatman, 1986; O’Reily, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Vandenberg, Self, & Seo, 1994). Affective Commitment refers to emotional attachment, identification with and involvement of an employee in the organization; i.e. an employee intrinsically desires to continue in the organization. Continuance Commitment arises out of knowledge about costs associated with leaving the organization; i.e. the employee thinks that it is his or her need to continue working in the organization. Finally, Normative Commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to give back to the organization and an employee high on Normative Commitment would continue because he or she ought to do so.

Research has mainly focused on controllable external factors influencing Organizational Commitment such as modification of HRM policies and practices (Paul
& Anantharaman, 2004), increasing socialization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), improving compensation (Mowday et al., 1982; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986), leadership and interpersonal dynamics (Tu, Raghunathan, & Raghunathan, 2001), and hygiene factors (Balaji, 1985; Khokle, 1998). Very few dispositional characteristics have been tested for their influence on an individual’s Organizational Commitment.

Since, Organizational Commitment of employees in different organizations play very significant role in shaping the destiny of the organization and providing safeguard to the career of employees and finally causes organizational effectiveness. Therefore, keeping in view its overall significance, this factor has been taken especially into deep consideration as a dependent variable in the present research.

2.6 Objectives of the Study :

Before undertaking any research, it is important that a researcher should examine closely his or her research problem its aims and objectives thoroughly in order to carry out a research programme more scientifically. In the present research our focus was given to explore the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Organizational Commitment among Managers of Private and Public Undertakings. Therefore, it has become need of hour to study the effect of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Organizational Commitment among Managers of Private and Public Undertakings.

The main aims and objectives of the present investigation are as follows :

1. To determine the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Affective Commitment among Managers of Private Undertakings.
2. To determine the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Continuance Commitment among Managers of Private Undertakings.

3. To determine the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Normative Commitment among Managers of Private Undertakings.

4. To determine the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Overall Organizational Commitment among Managers of Private and Undertakings.

5. To determine the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Affective Commitment among Managers of Public Undertakings.

6. To determine the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Continuance Commitment among Managers of Public Undertakings.

7. To determine the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Normative Commitment among Managers of Public Undertakings.

8. To determine the influence of Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude on Overall Organizational Commitment among Managers of Public and Undertakings.

9. To determine the difference between Managers of Private and Public Undertakings on quality of work life dimensions.

10. To determine the difference between Managers of Private and Public Undertakings on Ego-Strength dimensions.

11. To determine the difference between Managers of Private and Public Undertakings on Job Attitude dimensions.
12. To determine the difference between Managers of Private and Public Undertakings on Affective Commitment dimension.

13. To determine the difference between Managers of Private and Public Undertakings on Continuance Commitment dimension.

14. To determine the difference between Managers of Private and Public Undertakings on Normative Commitment dimension.

15. To determine the difference between Managers of Private and Public Undertakings on Overall Organizational Commitment dimensions.

2.7 Hypotheses of the Study:

Hypotheses in all researches are necessary as they help in determining comprehensively the objectives of the study and subsequently help in making a proper choice of statistics for analyzing the data in quest for answering the objectives of the study. Thus, in the light of available literature related to the present study the following hypotheses were formulated:

H-1 : Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude will have positive influence on Affective Commitment among Managers of Private Undertakings.

H-2 : Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude will have positive influence on Continuance Commitment among Managers of Private Undertakings.

H-3 : Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude will have positive influence on Normative Commitment among Managers of Private Undertakings.

H-4 : Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude will have positive influence on Overall Organizational Commitment among Managers of Private Undertakings.
H-5 : Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude will have positive influence on Affective Commitment among Managers of Public Undertakings.

H-6 : Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude will have positive influence on Continuance Commitment among Managers of Public Undertakings.

H-7 : Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude will have positive influence on Normative Commitment among Managers of Public Undertakings.

H-8 : Quality of Work Life, Ego-Strength and Job Attitude will have positive influence on Overall Organizational Commitment among Managers of Public Undertakings.

H-9 : Managerial personnel of private and public undertakings will differ with each other on Quality of Work Life dimensions.

H-10 : Managerial personnel of private and public undertakings will differ with each other on Ego-Strength dimensions.

H-11 : Managerial personnel of private and public undertakings will differ with each other on Job-Attitude dimensions.

H-12 : Managerial personnel of private and public undertakings will differ with each other on Affective Commitment dimension.

H-13 : Managerial personnel of private and public undertakings will differ with each other on Continuance Commitment dimension.

H-14 : Managerial personnel of private and public undertakings will differ with each other on Normative Commitment dimension.

H-15 : Managerial personnel of private and public undertakings will differ with each other on Overall Organizational Commitment dimensions.