CHAPTER – III
JOB SATISFACTION, JOB INVOLVEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION:

In any organisation, manpower is the only living resource and other resources like - money, machine and material are dead resources. Manpower is the resource, through which other resources are mobilized and utilized. Therefore, the existence and growth of an organisation is dependent upon the people who make it up. Thus human resource is considered to be the most valuable asset in any organization. Human resources should be utilized to the maximum possible extent, so that organizational goals can be achieved. It is the employee’s performance which ultimately decides the achievement of goals. However, the performance of an employee to a large extent is influenced by motivation, job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment. It is the responsibility of management to recognize this basic fact and provide appropriate opportunities and environments to people at work to satisfy their needs. In this chapter the researcher wants to explain about job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment.

3.2 JOB SATISFACTION:

3.2.1 CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION:

People bring physical and mental abilities and time to their jobs. Many of them try to make a difference in their lives and in the lives of others through working. The reason for wanting a job is often considerably more than just a paycheck. Jobs can be looked at as the means used to achieve personal goals. When a job meets or exceeds an individual’s expectation, the individual often experiences positive emotions. These positive emotions represent job satisfaction.1
Hammer and Dennis (1978) stated that the concept of job satisfaction has three important dimensions which are as follows: 

i) Job satisfaction refers to one’s feeling towards one’s job. It can only be inferred but not seen.

ii) Job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. Satisfaction in one’s job means increased commitment in the fulfillment of formal requirements. There is greater willingness to invest personal energy and time in job performance.

iii) The terms job satisfaction and job attitudes are typically used interchangeably. Both refer to effective orientations on the part of individuals towards their work roles, which they are presently occupying. Though the terms job satisfaction and attitudes are used interchangeably, there are differences between the two. Attitudes reflect one’s feelings towards individuals, organizations and objects. But satisfaction refers to one’s attitude to a job. Job satisfaction is, therefore, a specific subset of attitudes.

There are a plethora of definitions of job satisfaction. Several theorists have generated their own workable definitions which are as follows:

1) According to Hoppock (1935), job satisfaction is any number of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances which leads a person to express satisfaction with their job.

2) Brayfield and Rothe (1951) defined job satisfaction as the individual’s attitude (feeling) towards his work.

3) Locke (1976) stated that job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience.

4) Vroom (1982) defined job satisfaction as workers’ emotional orientation toward their current job roles.

5) Spector (1985) stated job satisfaction as a cluster of evaluative feelings about the job. Nine facets of job considered in this definition are pay,
promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work and communication.⁷

6) According to Newstrom (1986), job satisfaction is a set of favorable and unfavorable feelings with which employees view their work.⁸

7) Schermerhorn (1993) defined job satisfaction as an affective or emotional response towards various aspects of an employee’s work. Likely causes of job satisfaction include status, supervision, co-worker relationships, job content, remuneration and extrinsic rewards, promotion and physical conditions of the work environment, as well as organizational structure.⁹

8) Balzer et al. (2000) defined job satisfaction as the feelings a worker has about his or her job or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations or available alternatives.¹⁰

9) Rocca and Kostanski (2001) stated that job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their jobs. It is a general attitude towards the job. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes towards the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds negative attitudes about the job.¹¹

### 3.2.2 IMPORTANCE OF JOB SATISFACTION:

The importance of job satisfaction plays a major role in our occupational life. It has relation with many aspects because it affects a person's mental health, physical health and increase in output. It is of great importance for efficient and profitable functioning of any organization. If job satisfaction studies are properly administered and planned, they will usually give a number of important benefits. The following are the benefits: ¹²

1) One benefit of job satisfaction surveys is that they give management an indication of general levels of satisfaction in an organization.

2) Job satisfaction surveys also indicate specific areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, which can be targeted to increase the level of job satisfaction of employees.
3) Another benefit of the survey is improved communication. When people plan the survey, talk and discuss its results, communication flows in all directions. The upward communication is particularly beneficial when the employees are encouraged to comment about what they really have in their minds.

4) An unexpected benefit from a job satisfaction survey is an improvement in attitudes. For some employees, the survey is an emotional release. For others, the survey is the expression of management’s interest in employee welfare, which gives employee a reason to feel better towards management.

5) The job satisfaction survey can help to discover the causes of indirect productivity problems, such as turnover, absenteeism and poor quality of work. If an organization is disturbed by a high rate of absenteeism or turnover, it might appropriately turn to job-satisfaction surveys to diagnose the cause.

6) Job satisfaction surveys help management to assess training needs. Usually employees are given an opportunity to report how they feel about the performance of their supervisor in terms of giving adequate job instructions and delegating work. Since employees experience these supervisory acts, their perceptions may provide useful data about the training of their supervisors.

7) Job satisfaction surveys also help in evaluation of the impact of organizational changes on employee attitudes.

8) Finally, it is not that satisfaction surveys benefit only management. They are also useful to unions. Often, both union and management argue about what the employees want, but neither really knows. The job-satisfaction survey is one way to find out.

But the benefits discussed above would be realized subject to certain conditions such as, top management actively supports the survey, employees
are fully involved in planning the survey and management is capable and willing to take follow up action.

3.2.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION:

What makes some people like their jobs? Others dislike them? An explanation to these is provided by various theories on job satisfaction. Many theories of motivation are considered at least in part, theories of satisfaction. In this section the researcher will examine some widely used theories in contemporary job satisfaction which are as follows:

1) Maslow’s Need Hierarchy Theory:

The need hierarchy theory proposed by Abraham Maslow is relevant to job satisfaction. Jobs which are able to satisfy more of the hierarchical needs would be jobs which would result in greater satisfaction on the part of the employee. As Maslow propounded, all employees have a series of needs which should ideally be satisfied at work. He found that usually, as one need was fulfilled, the next level of need tends to become the prime motivator, hence the idea of a hierarchy of five steps. These five types of needs are: 

i) **Physiological needs** like food, warmth, shelter may be mainly satisfied at work by salary/wages.

ii) **Safety / security needs** like safe conditions, job security may be mainly satisfied at work by good working conditions and benefits.

iii) **Social needs** like belongingness, need for affection, friendship, acceptance, identification with an organization may be mainly satisfied at work by harmonious terms.

iv) **Esteem needs** like self-respect, autonomy, achievement, status, recognition, attention, appreciation may be mainly satisfied at work by promotion and respect for position / expertise.

v) **Self-actualization needs** like growth, achieving one’s potential and self-fulfillment may be mainly satisfied at work by challenging work which realizes an individual’s potential.
2) Herzberg’s Two - Factor Theory:

Another very popular theory of job satisfaction is that proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg. This theory is also known as dual factor theory or motivation-hygiene theory. Frederick Herzberg conducted a widely reported study on about 200 accountants and engineers from eleven industries in the Pittsburgh area to find out what gave people satisfaction at work. He found that employees named different types of conditions for good and bad feelings. His study revealed that the factors responsible for job satisfaction are quite different from the factors that led to dissatisfaction. The first set prevented dissatisfaction i.e. they prevented high labour turnover, absenteeism and industrial disputes. He called these ‘hygiene factors’. The second set was those which actively motivated people to give a committed performance. He called these ‘motivators’. According to him, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite poles of one dimension, they are two separate dimensions. Satisfaction is affected by motivators and dissatisfaction by hygiene factors. This is the key idea of Herzberg and it has key implications for managers. ‘Hygiene factors’ include company policy and administration, technical supervision, interpersonal relations with subordinates, salary, job security, personal life, working conditions, status, interpersonal relations with supervisors and interpersonal relations with colleagues, whereas ‘Motivators’ include recognition, advancement, responsibility, achievement, possibility of growth and work itself. 14

3) Vroom’s Expectancy Theory:

Vroom’s expectancy theory is used by psychologists and industrial sociologists to predict performance, effort and job satisfaction. This theory is based on the assumption that people have an idea of what consequences are associated with their actions and they make conscious choices as to preference of outcome. There are three concepts important to the expectancy theory: valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Valence is the outcome an individual wishes to obtain, instrumentality is the relationship between the first-level
outcomes and the second-level outcomes (Performance achieved as a result of efforts is the first-level outcome and second-level outcomes are the rewards that the first-level outcomes are likely to produce) and expectancy is the likelihood of the individual obtaining the outcome they desire. Vroom (1964) viewed job satisfaction as the level in which an individual’s job provided positively valued outcomes.

4) Equity Theory:

Equity theory is primarily a motivation theory, but it has some important things to say about the causes of satisfaction/dissatisfaction. According to the proponents of this theory perceived equity of a person determines his satisfaction, which is determined by his input-output balance as compared to the input-output balance of others. It is the perceived ratio of what a person receives from his job relative to what he contributes to the job. As per this theory, both under and over rewards lead to dissatisfaction. The under-reward causes feelings of unfair treatment, over-reward leads to feelings of guilt and discomfort.

5) Goal Setting Theory:

Edwin Locke (1968) is the major theorist in goal setting theory. The basic idea behind the goal setting theory is that a goal serves as a motivator because it causes people to focus their inputs and their jobs and organizations. It is the job of managers to ensure that employees divert their resources towards achieving goals. Proponents of this theory argue that it works by directing attention and action, mobilizing effort and encouraging the development of strategies to achieve the goals. There are three elements in the goal setting theory - desire to attain goal, acceptance of job and organizational goals as personal goals and self-efficacy beliefs.

6) McCelland’s Three Needs Theory:

It was in the late 1940s that David C. McCelland and his friends began to study three needs that motivate human behaviour - achievement, affiliation
and power. Employees with a high need for achievement derive satisfaction from achieving goals. Individuals exhibiting need for affiliation derive satisfaction from social and interpersonal activities. The employees exhibiting the need for power derive satisfaction from the ability to control others.\textsuperscript{18}

7) **Affect Theory:**

Locke’s Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the most famous theory of job satisfaction. This theory says that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who does not value that facet. Managers must therefore understand the needs of their employees and make an effort to fulfill these needs. They can carry out research on their employees to determine their specific needs. Furthermore, managers can enquire from other successful organizations as to how they have been able to determine and meet employee needs.\textsuperscript{19}

8) **Fulfillment Theory:**

Fulfillment theorists believed that people’s satisfaction is a function of how much of a reward or outcome they are receiving for their work.\textsuperscript{20} Dissatisfaction results when the actual outcome level is below than other outcome level. This theory is clearly evident in teacher salaries. Teachers who feel their salaries or benefits are below the state or regional level become dissatisfied with their employer.

9) **Opponent Process Theory:**

Opponent process theory was proposed by Landy (1978) as a theory of job satisfaction, based on the ideas of Solomon and Corbit (1973).\textsuperscript{21} This theory implies that each worker has a typical level of job satisfaction that could be called the person’s steady state or equilibrium level. When changes occur in a job position or work situation this causes disequilibrium, however, over time
the employee’s satisfaction level will return to the equilibrium state. An example of this would be a pay raise. The raise would cause satisfaction to increase, but eventually the worker’s satisfaction will return to the steady state.\textsuperscript{22}

10) Job Characteristics Model:

Hackman and Oldham first outlined this theory in 1975. Their model has inspired thousands of research papers and its key concepts still provide the foundations of much job satisfaction and job characteristics research. According to Hackman and Oldham five core dimensions of job characteristics are: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and task feedback. It is important to understand that each of five job characteristics affects employee performance differently. When all five characteristics are present, employees will experience the greatest motivation. Thus, the theory encompasses not only job characteristics and job satisfaction, but also work design principles, motivation, and psychological studies. The attraction of such an ambitious model has been increased by its clear specification of concepts and relationships between them.\textsuperscript{23}

11) Reference Group Theory:

Reference group theory gave rise to the thought that employees compare their inputs and outputs from his/her job to others such as his/her co-workers, friends, and others in the industry. One can easily see this is prevalent in the field of education as teachers and administrators often compare salary and benefits between districts and states. Theorists, such as Hulin and Blood (1968) have argued that the understanding of the groups to whom the individuals relate is critical to understanding job satisfaction.\textsuperscript{24}

12) Work Adjustment Theory:

In 1964, the first version of work adjustment theory was published by Dawis, England, and Lofquist. The theory was revised in 1968, and extended form of the theory was published in book form in 1969. The theory of work
adjustment is based on the concept of correspondence between the individual and environment. Achieving and maintaining correspondence with one environment may affect the correspondence with other environments. Work then represents one such environment in which one must relate. Satisfaction then indicates the correspondence between the individual and the work environment. Work adjustment is the process of achieving and maintaining correspondence. Work adjustment is indicated by the satisfaction of the individual with the work environment and by the satisfaction of the work environment with the individual.\textsuperscript{25}

13) \textbf{Dispositional Theory:}

Another well-known job satisfaction theory is the Dispositional Theory. This theory suggests that people have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a certain level of satisfaction, regardless of one’s job. This thinking became a notable explanation of job satisfaction in the light of evidence that job satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers. Research also indicated that identical twins have similar levels of job satisfaction.\textsuperscript{26}

14) \textbf{Social Influence Theory:}

Social influence theory of job satisfaction is interesting because it recognizes the social nature of work and suggests a way of determining job satisfaction that has been ignored in the past. Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) suggested that perhaps people decide how satisfied they are within their job not by processing all kinds of information about it but by observing others on similar jobs and making inferences about other’s satisfaction.\textsuperscript{27}

15) \textbf{Alderfer’s ERG Theory:}

Clayton Alderfer modified Maslow’s theory of need hierarchy and presented his own motivation theory which is known as ERG theory, where E stands for existence (basic needs of food, shelter, safe drinking water), R for relatedness (social and interpersonal relationships) and G for growth (personal
growth and creativity). Thus he combined physiological and safety needs under existence, love and esteem needs under relatedness and self-actualization needs under growth.\textsuperscript{28}

\textbf{3.2.4 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB SATISFACTION:}

There are number of factors which have influence on job satisfaction. Such factors affecting job satisfaction can be divided into two main categories, namely, personal factors and organizational factors.

\textbf{A) Personal Factors:}

The personal factors such as age, gender, marital status, race, educational level, tenure, occupational level, personality and general life satisfaction have impact on job satisfaction, which are discussed as follows:

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textbf{Age:}

Age is an important variable because employees of any organization usually vary in age. Thus age is often studied by researchers looking at job satisfaction. Research suggests that older employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction. Okpara (2004) conducted a research amongst managers within an IT environment and found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and age.\textsuperscript{29} Mottaz (1987) stated the reasons for variance in job satisfaction between older and younger workers.\textsuperscript{30} As per Mottaz’s view younger workers are generally more dissatisfied than older employees. Older workers possess more seniority and work experience enabling them to move easily into more rewarding and satisfying jobs. Older workers place less emphasis on autonomy or promotion. Thus they demand less from their jobs, making them more satisfied than younger workers. Rhodes (1982) found significant relationship between job satisfaction and age.\textsuperscript{31}

\item \textbf{Gender:}

There have been a number of studies investigating gender differences and job satisfaction. Tang and Talpade (1999) found a significant difference
between males and females in terms of job dimensions impacting on job satisfaction. Their study showed that men tend to have higher satisfaction with remuneration than females, whereas females tended to have higher satisfaction with co-workers than males. According to Coward, Hogan, Duncan, Horne, Hiker and Felsen (1995), female employees show higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts across most work settings. However, research of Al-Mashaan (2003) indicated that male employees report higher levels of job satisfaction as compared to female employees. He argued that this may be due to the fact that men have better chances for employment and opportunities to advance in their jobs at a more rapid pace than females.

3) Marital Status:

There is a significant relationship between marital status and job satisfaction. A study conducted by Jamal and Baba (1992) found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and marital status. Studies have found married workers to be more satisfied with their jobs than their unmarried counterparts. Kuo and Chen (2004) investigated the level of job satisfaction amongst IT personnel working in Taiwan. The results of the study indicated that married employees experienced higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to that of single employees.

4) Race:

The relationship between race and job satisfaction was found to be inconsistent. A study conducted by Gavin and Ewen (1974) on various occupational classes consisting of white collar and blue collar employees, showed that African employees experienced higher levels of job satisfaction than the other racial groups. On the other hand, Martin & Tuch (1991) found that White employees amongst different occupational classes experienced higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to African employees. Erasmus (1998) found a difference in job satisfaction between White and African females within a human resources profession. White females were found to be more satisfied than African female.
5) **Educational Level:**

Studies conducted on the relationship between the level of education and job satisfaction showed no consistent pattern. Some proponents maintain that the relationship between education and job satisfaction is positive in nature and according to some there is an inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction. Glenn and Weaver (1982) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and education. A research conducted by Kh Metle (2003) amongst Kuwaiti women employed in a public government sector environment, showed that an inverse relationship existed between the level of education and overall job satisfaction. Employees in possession of an intermediate level qualification reported higher levels of satisfaction in relation to those employees who have higher levels of education.41

6) **Tenure:**

Tenure refers to the length of time for which the individual has worked for the organisation. Ronen (1978) found tenure to have a U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction. Employee satisfaction declines within the first year of employment and remains low for several years, after which it increases. This may be due to the fact that employee expectations are high at the time of appointment and as the employee becomes more experienced and mature, the initial expectations decline to a more realistic level thereby making such expectations more attainable, coinciding with increased job satisfaction. A study by Chambers (1999) revealed that employees with longer tenure were more satisfied with their pay as well as their work itself. Thus it can be concluded that satisfaction increases with time as the benefits that likely to have an important influence on employee satisfaction also increase with time.43

7) **Occupational Level:**

The evidence from the literature seems to suggest that occupational level is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction. Employees at higher ranks are generally more satisfied with their jobs than employees at lower levels. Burke (1996) found that men and women at more senior levels in an organisation
reported higher levels of job satisfaction in relation to administrative, clerical and secretarial staff. A study by Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra and Smith (1998) revealed a consistent and significant positive relationship between occupational level and job satisfaction. The positive correlation between rank and job satisfaction may be attributed to the fact that higher-level jobs tend to have better pay, promotion prospects, working conditions, autonomy and responsibility.

8) Personality Traits:

Several personality variables have relationships with job satisfaction. Among these are self-esteem, TYPE A behaviour pattern and the ability to withstand job stress. Stronger an individual is on these traits, more satisfied he or she tends to be on his or her job.

9) General Life Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction has been found to be related to one’s general life satisfaction. The more the people are satisfied with aspects of their lives unrelated to their jobs, the more they also tend to be satisfied with their jobs. For example, an individual experiencing happy family life tends to be satisfied in his or her job at workplace too.

B) Organizational Factors:

The major organizational factors influencing job satisfaction include pay, opportunities for promotion, nature of work, organizational policies and procedures, working conditions, co-workers, supervision and size of group.

1) Pay:

Pay plays a significant role in influencing job satisfaction. This is because money is an important instrument in fulfilling one’s needs and employees often see pay as a management’s concern for them. Employees expect a pay system which is simple and fair. When pay is based on individual skill level, job demands and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to
result. In a study conducted by Oshagbemi (2000), a statistically significant relationship between pay and level of job satisfaction was found.46

2) Opportunities for Promotion:

The desire for promotion is generally strong among employees as it involves change in job content, pay, responsibility, independence and status. An average employee in a typical government organization can hope to get two or three promotions in his entire service. It is no surprise that the employee takes promotion as the ultimate achievement in his career and when it is realized, he feels extremely satisfied. An employee’s opportunities for promotion are likely to exert an influence on job satisfaction. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) found that promotional opportunity for municipal government workers was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction.47

3) Nature of Work:

Most employees tend to prefer being given opportunities to use their abilities and skills and being offered a freedom, variety of tasks and feedback on how well they are doing. Thus jobs are becoming mentally challenging. Too little challenge makes job boring and too much challenge creates frustration. But employees experience satisfaction and pleasure under the conditions of moderate challenge. Locke (1995) postulated that employee job satisfaction is dependent on satisfaction with the job components, such as the work itself.48 Research conducted by Vitell and Davis (1990) found a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and the dimension of work itself.49

4) Organizational Policies and Procedures:

Organizational policies include the basis for effecting promotions (seniority versus merit), transfer of people, foreign assignment, lay-off and retrenchment, appraisal and reward systems, motivational methods and the like. Such organizational policies and procedures also influence job satisfaction.

5) Working Conditions:

Working conditions that are compatible with an employee’s physical comfort and that facilitate doing a good job contribute to job satisfaction.
Humidity, temperature, lighting, ventilation, cleanliness of the workplace, hours of work and adequate tools are the features which affect job satisfaction. Providing good physical working conditions (e.g. cleanliness of the working place, lighting, adequate tools and equipment) enables employees to carry out their jobs easily, comfortably and efficiently. The working environment of teachers also determines the attitude and behaviour of teachers towards their work.50

6) Co-workers:

Having friendly and supportive colleagues contribute to increased job satisfaction. A survey conducted by Berta (2005) amongst 1250 Food Brand employees found that job satisfaction is positively related to the factor co-workers.51 A study conducted by Viswesvaran, Deshpande and Joseph (1998) also found that there is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and co-workers.52

7) Supervision:

Perceived quality of supervision is another determinant of job satisfaction. Satisfaction tends to be high when people believe that their supervisors are more competent, have their best interests in mind and treat them with dignity and respect. Communication is another aspect of supervision. Satisfaction of members tends to be high when they are able to communicate easily with their supervisor. A study conducted by Packard and Kauppi (1999) found that employees with supervisors displaying democratic management styles experienced higher levels of job satisfaction compared to those who had supervisors displaying autocratic or laissez - faire leadership styles.53

8) Size of Group:

Size of group also has an impact on job satisfaction. Large size of group causes the low the level of satisfaction. As the size of group increases, opportunities for social interaction and participation decrease. More members mean conflict and groups within groups. All these may adversely affect satisfaction of group members.
3.2.5 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION:

High job satisfaction may lead to improved productivity, improved attendance, reduced accidents, low turnover rates, less job stress and lower unionization. However, low job satisfaction level has the following consequences: 54

1) Job Satisfaction and Productivity:

The relationship between satisfaction and productivity is not definitely established. However, in the long-run, job satisfaction leads to increased productivity. There are two conditions under which high productivity more clearly leads to job satisfaction. The first condition is that the employees perceive that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are contingent upon their productivity. The second one is that the extrinsic rewards (for example, pay) be distributed equitably. Job performance also leads to job satisfaction. An employee who performs well in his or her job gets both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards will lead to his or her satisfaction. A poor performer will feel worse about his incompetence and will receive fewer rewards. He will be less satisfied with his work experiences.

2) Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover:

Turnover is a process in which employee leave the organization and have to be replaced. Turnover has a major impact on productivity. Employee turnover increases the cost involved in selecting, training and replacing employees. It disrupts normal operations. So employer tries to do whatever he can, to minimize turnover and making the employees feel satisfied on their jobs. It has been found that workers who have relatively low levels of job satisfaction are the most likely to quit their jobs and that organizational units with the lowest average satisfaction levels tend to have the highest turnover rates. Turnover is also influenced by the availability of other places of employment. Therefore Al-Omari and his colleagues suggested that efforts to improve employee retention should focus on the work related factors that affect job satisfaction.
3) **Job Satisfaction and Absenteeism:**

Job satisfaction and absenteeism are proved to have correlation. When job satisfaction is low, absenteeism is high. Like turnover, absenteeism is also subject to modification by certain factors. Absenteeism is moderately influenced by the degree to which people feel that their jobs are important. Employees tend to clock in regular attendance when they feel that their work is important. It is also important to remember that while high job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, low satisfaction is likely to bring about high absenteeism. Absenteeism is expensive. Being absent from work may seem like a small matter to an employee. But if a manager needs 14 people in a unit to get the work done, and 6 of the 14 are absent most of the time, the unit’s work will probably not get done, or additional workers will have to be hired.

4) **Job Satisfaction and Safety:**

A negative consequence of low satisfaction level is poor safety practice. There are more cases of accidents, when people are discouraged about their company, jobs and supervisors. The reason for such accidents is that discouragement causes the loss of concentration while working on a task at hand. Thus inattention leads directly to accidents. The example of this is that many hand injuries from power tools can be attributed to the operator not paying careful attention.

5) **Job Satisfaction and Job Stress:**

Job stress is the body’s response to any job-related factor that threatens to disturb the person’s equilibrium. Prolonged stress can cause the employee serious ailments such as blurred vision, heart disease, lower back pain, ulcer, muscle aches and dermatitis. The source of job stress is chronic job dissatisfaction. The employee may see no satisfactory short term solution to escaping this type of stress. Employees under prolonged stress resulting from job dissatisfaction often consume too much tobacco, drugs and alcohol. Such
employees are costly to the management in terms of time lost due to frequent absences and increased payments towards medical reimbursement.

6) Job Satisfaction and Unionization:

   It is proved that job dissatisfaction is a major cause of forming unions. The reasons making employees to join unions are dissatisfaction with wages, fringe benefits, chances for promotion, treatment by supervisors and job security. Another aspect is that job dissatisfaction can have an impact on the tendency to take action within the union, such as striking or filling grievances.

7) Other Effects of Job Satisfaction:

   In addition to the above, it has been claimed that satisfied employees tend to have better mental and physical health and learn new job related tasks more quickly. Individuals who dislike their jobs could experience negative health effects that are either psychological or physical.

   All things considered, job satisfaction is important to an organization. When job satisfaction is low, there seems to be negative effects on the organization that have been mentioned above. Job satisfaction is of value to the organization’s overall health and effectiveness and is deserving of study and application in the field of organizational behavior.

3.2.6 Measurement of Job Satisfaction:

   There are many methods for measuring job satisfaction. The most common method for collecting data regarding job satisfaction is the Likert Scale. Other less common methods for gauging job satisfaction include: point systems, Yes/No questions, forced choice answers, checklists and True/False questions. This data is typically collected using an Enterprise Feedback Management (EFM) system.55

   The most widely cited survey instruments found in the literature include Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) and Job In General Scale (JIG) which are described in detail as follows: 56
1) **Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS):**

The Job Satisfaction Survey was developed by P. E. Spector to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. The JSS is a questionnaire containing 36 items that targets nine separate facets of job satisfaction: pay, supervision, promotion, contingent rewards, benefits, coworkers, operating procedures, communication and nature of work. Each facet constitutes four items. Likert scale is used to record responses which range from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’.

2) **Job Descriptive Index (JDI):**

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is one of the most popular job satisfaction survey instruments. It was first discussed in Smith, Kendall and Hulin's publication of the Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement (1969). It is a 90-item scale and measures five dimensions of job satisfaction: work, pay, promotion, supervision and coworkers.

3) **Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ):**

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was developed in 1967 by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist as an instrument to evaluate job satisfaction. It is available in both long form (100-item) and short form (20-item). The short form can be completed in about 5 minutes while the long form can take 15 to 20 minutes to complete. It can be used as faceted as well as overall measures.

4) **Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS):**

The Job Diagnostic Survey was developed to study the effects of job characteristics on people. The JDS covers several areas of job satisfaction, such as growth, pay, security, social, supervisor as well as global satisfaction.

5) **Job-In-General Scale (JIG):**

The Job-In-General Scale has been designed to measure overall job satisfaction rather than facets. It is 18-item scale and has three point response format.

In the present study, job satisfaction survey (JSS) is used for measuring the level of job satisfaction of university teachers.
3.3 JOB INVOLVEMENT:

3.3.1 CONCEPT OF JOB INVOLVEMENT:

Job involvement is a concept which is closely related to job satisfaction but is argued by many theorists to be two distinct concepts. Job satisfaction concerns about the emotional identification of one’s job while job involvement talks about the psychological identification of one's job. The concept of job involvement has received much empirical and theoretical attention. Many different terms have been used to describe job involvement such as central life interest to work, role involvement and ego involvement. Job involvement is your involvement with or alienation from a specific job. It has been conceptualized by different experts in their own ways as follows:

1) According to Dubin (1956), job involvement is the degree to which the total job situation is a ‘central life interest’, that is, the degree to which it is perceived to be a major source for the satisfaction of important needs.\(^{57}\)

2) Lodahl and Kejner (1965) defined job involvement as the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance of work in his total self-image and the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-esteem.\(^{58}\)

3) Lawler and Hall (1970) stated that job involvement is the degree to which a person perceives his total work situation to be an important part of his life and to be central to him and his identity because of the opportunity it affords him to satisfy his important needs.\(^{59}\)

4) Saleh and Hosek (1976) defined job involvement as the degree to which the person identifies with the job, actively participates in it and considers his performance important to his self-worth.\(^{60}\)

5) According to Rotondi (1980), the person who is oriented toward his profession is involved in his job and is concerned with the development and use of his professional knowledge and skills.\(^{61}\)

6) Gorn & Kanungo (1980) conceptualized job involvement as having two components: a) the degree to which an individual is involved in a particular job and actively participates in it and b) a psychological state of
identification with work in general, relative to other activities (e.g. family leisure).  

7) According to Hisrchfeld and Field (2000), job involvement is how people see their jobs as both a relationship with the working environment and the job itself and how their work and life are integrated.  

8) Emery and Barker (2007) defined job involvement as the extent to which individuals are preoccupied with and immersed or absorbed by their work activity.  

In view of the above definitions, it is clear that a person is job involved (a) when work to him is a central life interest, (b) when he actively participates in his job and (c) when he perceives performance as central to his self-esteem.  

3.3.2 IMPORTANCE OF JOB INVOLVEMENT:  

Over the years, the concept of job involvement has been gaining steadily in importance because of its pivotal role in providing a link between productivity and quality of work life. Recent studies of job involvement show that job involvement increases the organizational effectiveness as well as the productivity of an organisation by engaging employees more completely in their work. Job Involvement is a crucial factor in the life of workers. Highly involved employees are more satisfied with their jobs and they tend to be highly committed to their employing organisations, their professions and their careers. These employees prefer to work at the same organisations throughout their career and rarely think about leaving their jobs. Conversely, low job involved employees have been hypothesized to be less committed to the employer and be more likely to leave the organisation. Job involvement may influence crucial behaviours such as absenteeism, turnover, and organizational commitment. The importance of studying job involvement can also be argued when it offers a practical alternative for cutbacks in costs. Job involvement, via its influence on work behaviour, can save a substantial amount of managerial cost. Unless organizations are able to meet employees’ needs they cannot be expected to be highly involved in their jobs.
Thus it is important to increase the accumulation of useful knowledge on what causes job involvement and what job involvement can do for organisations that can assist in explaining the causes and effects of job involvement.

3.3.3 THEORIES OF JOB INVOLVEMENT:

Theoretical models for understanding the concept of job involvement include Expectancy Theory, Integrated Theory, the Motivational Approach, Causality Theory and Multidimensional Model which are discussed in detail as follows.66

1) Expectancy Theory:

Expectancy theory suggests that employees can be inspired by administrators with the good use of personal expectancy. This is based on the basic concept that tendency for an individual's action is determined by possible expected results. Thus job involvement for an employee is determined by his/her expectancy level, which results in incentives for action. If expectations are lower than the inducement provided by the organization, job involvement will increase. On the other hand, when expectations are higher than the inducement provided by the organization then job involvement will decrease.

2) Integrated Theory:

According to the integrated theory, job involvement is related to three classes of variables, the dispositional approach held by the individual, the situation determined approach and the influence of the interaction between dispositional approach and situation determined approach. Dispositional and situational variables are equally important in explaining job involvement.

As per dispositional approach, job involvement is dependent on individual personalities. In a situation-determined approach, job involvement can be viewed as the personal attitude towards the particular job. Dispositional situation approach is the interaction between disposition and situational
approaches. In this conceptualization, personal characteristics and the environment in interaction are used to explain personal work attitudes and behaviors. When personal characteristics and the situation reach congruence, the individual will develop high job involvement.

3) Motivational Approach:

The motivational approach of Kanungo is based on the basic concept that job involvement is affected by the potential for personal socialization experience and the likelihood that the work environment can satisfy personal demand. As per Kanungo, individuals develop beliefs that a job's context potentially provides an opportunity for them to satisfy their most important future needs. Therefore job involvement depends on employees' needs (both intrinsic and extrinsic) as well as their perceptions of the job's potential to satisfy those needs.

4) Causality Theory Model:

Brown (1996) proposed the causality theory of job involvement. This model includes antecedents, the pivotal mediator role of job involvement and its consequences. This model also shows the relationship between organizational commitment and job involvement. Work ethic also plays a significant role in job involvement. The antecedents and outcomes of job involvement are extensively studied. Such studies support the argument that personal and situational factors have strong influences on job involvement. Job involvement is linked to work behaviors and is also an important factor in other work related attitudes.

5) Multidimensional Model of Job Involvement:

Yoshimura (1996) presented a multidimensional model of job involvement. In his conceptual model he stated that the job involvement is a three dimensional concept viz., emotional job involvement, cognitive job involvement and behavioral job involvement. Emotional job involvement indicates how much the worker likes his/her job or how strongly the worker is
interested in his/her job. Cognitive job involvement indicates how important the job is in his/her whole life or how strongly the worker wants to participate in his/her job related decision making. And finally, behavioral job involvement indicates how often the worker usually takes extra-role behavior such as taking an evening class to enhance job related skills or thinking about the job after leaving the office.

3.3.4 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB INVOLVEMENT:

Factors affecting job involvement are gender, age, marital status, occupational position, educational qualification, background (urban or rural), length of service and number of dependents which are outlined in detail as follows: 67

1) Gender:

According to Newstrom and Davis (1994), the definition of job involvement is not only the degree to which employees engross themselves in their job, but also includes the extent to which employees view their work as being a central part of their lives. Female managers who are both career and family oriented are perceived as less job involved than their male counterparts. This is because family exigencies may be interfering with women’s careers, leading them eventually to refuse extra work assignments or to refuse overtime.

2) Age:

It is believed that older workers tend to report higher levels of job involvement than their younger counterparts. As people grow older they may tend to psychologically invest more and more of themselves in their job. However, the relationship between age and job involvement has varied from between studies.

3) Marital Status:

Mixed results are reported in the literature regarding the relationship between marital status and job involvement. Saal (1978) and Blau & Boal (1987) found no significant relationship between married and non-married
individuals and their job involvement. Kanungo, Misra & Dayal (1975) found higher job involvement scores in those workers who were married. According to Cortis & Cassar (2005), it seems that marital status had no impact on job involvement of women.

4) **Occupational Position:**

   Tannenbaum (1966) believed that holding higher level jobs provided more opportunities for satisfying higher level needs. Medford (1975) found a positive relationship between hierarchic position and job involvement. Likewise, Penn (1987) found a positive correlation between job involvement and rank in the organisation.

5) **Educational Qualification:**

   Employees with less formal education tend to be highly involved in their jobs. Prior studies have found both positive and negative relationships between job involvement and level of education. Saal (1978) found a significant negative relationship, whereas Manheim (1975) found a significant positive relationship between job involvement and educational qualification.

6) **Background (Urban or Rural):**

   Wanous, Reichers & Hudy (1997) provided a developmental view of job involvement wherein he emphasized that one of the earliest determinants of an individual's work needs is the environment of his socialization. In the context of a rural or urban environment, an individual may be more likely to adopt a set of work values. Due to the difference in the socialization process inherent in cultural differences and social class differences, individuals may be predisposed to varying values and attitudes towards work.

7) **Length of Service:**

   The relationship between the length of service or seniority and job involvement suffered from the failure to distinguish tenure on the job and tenure with the organisation, two distinctly different variables. Consequently, results were mixed. Aldag and Brief (1975) Kanungo, Misra & Dayal (1975)
and Rabinowitz & Hall (1977) found significant positive relationships. Hall and Mansfield (1975) and Saal (1978) found insignificant differences.

8) **Number of Dependents:**

Number of dependents or number of children also matters for job involvement. Those employees who have children at home and pre-school children in particular, probably devote more time to family activities and are likely to be highly family-involved. Hence, it is presumed in this study that parents would be less job involved than non-parents.

3.3.5 **CONSEQUENCES OF JOB INVOLVEMENT:**

When the level of job involvement is low, it may have many consequences or outcomes. Such consequences or outcomes are discussed in detail as follows:

1) **Job Involvement and Job Performance:**

Breaugh (1981) found that job involvement is positively related to performance and Shore, Newton and Thornton (1990) documented a positive link between job involvement and productivity. That means employees perform well when their level of job involvement is high and on the contrary their performance will be poor.

2) **Job Involvement and Absenteeism:**

Baba (1989) and Scott and Bruce (1994) reported a negative relationship between job involvement and absenteeism. Breaugh (1981) found that voluntary absenteeism is lower in involving and enriched jobs. In other words, higher the job involvement, less frequent the absences.

3) **Job Involvement and Turnover Intention:**

Turnover intentions are the cognitive process of thinking, planning, and desiring to leave a job. Job involvement is inversely linked with turnover intentions. People with high job involvement have little reason to leave the job. Conversely, workers who are alienated from their jobs may, over time, develop a strong desire to leave their jobs.
4) **Job Involvement and Job Stress:**

Job stress is generally defined as a worker’s feelings of job-related difficulty, tension, anxiety, and distress. Job involvement has a negative relation with job stress. Those who are not involved do not look forward to their jobs. Further, employees alienated from the job find it frustrating to attend work, which ultimately leads to increased job stress. Conversely, people who identify psychologically with their jobs may look forward to work.

5) **Job Involvement and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour:**

For effective functioning of organization, employees have to perform their prescribed role as well as they have to engage in behaviours that go beyond these formal obligations. Organizational citizenship behaviour often described as behaviours that go above and beyond the call of duty. It includes acts of helpfulness and cooperation among organizational members. Only the job involved employees show organizational citizenship behaviour. Munene (1995) found a significant correlation between job involvement and organizational citizenship behaviour. 70

6) **Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment:**

The level of job involvement is one of a pre-condition to develop organizational commitment. On a theoretical level, it is also meaningful to link jobs and organisations together. Employees develop their psychological contracts with organisations via the specific job they were assigned. The researcher postulated that job involvement has a positive effect on organizational commitment: people who are not involved with their jobs are probably less committed to the organization. Conversely, people who are involved should form a greater bond with the organization.

7) **Job Involvement and Job Satisfaction:**

Job involvement has a positive relationship with job satisfaction among employees. People who are involved in work find it stimulating, which makes the job more satisfying. A person who is dissatisfied with the job may become less involved in the work.
8) **Job Involvement and Life Satisfaction:**

Life satisfaction is the cognitive appraisal of the overall degree of satisfaction a person has with his or her life. The importance of work in a person’s life might affect a person’s overall satisfaction with life. Therefore, it can be predicted that job involvement has a positive relationship with life satisfaction. Higher job involvement reports greater satisfaction with life, whereas lower job involvement reports lower life satisfaction because there is a little interest in doing such job.

### 3.3.6 MEASUREMENT OF JOB INVOLVEMENT:

Various instruments are available for measuring the level job involvement. These are:

1) Job Involvement Scale Developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965).
3) Job Involvement Scale of White and Ruh (1973).
4) Job Involvement Scale Developed by Agarwal (1978).
5) Job Involvement Scale Developed by Kanungo (1982).

In the present study Kanungo’s job involvement scale is used to measure the level of job involvement of university teachers because it found to have reasonably high levels of reliability and validity. Blau reported that the Kanungo measure is a slightly purer measure of the psychological identification and conceptualization of job involvement than is the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) short-form.

### 3.4 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

#### 3.4.1 DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Organizational commitment as a concept began to gain increasing prominence over the past 40 years. From the early 1970s, interest in the study of organizational commitment gained momentum especially in America. This was spurred by a decline in productivity, a demoralized workforce and stiff
competition that American industries were facing from foreign investors, especially Japan. Interest in studies of organizational commitment developed from the successful Japanese management practices whereby employee commitment was seen to be a central driver to organizational success. Guest (1987) attributes the popularity of organizational commitment to its central position in the design of human resource management policies, whose aim is to maximize employee commitment, organizational integration, flexibility and quality of work.71

3.4.2 CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

The concept of organisational commitment is concerned with the degree to which people are involved with their organisations. Organizational commitment has been conceptualized by different experts in their own ways. Following is a set of definitions taken from the organizational commitment literature. Some definitions have treated organizational commitment as a uni-dimensional construct, while others have viewed it as a multi-dimensional construct.

1) According to Mowday Steers and Porter (1979), organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Three characteristics of organizational commitment are: i) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, ii) a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and iii) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation.72

2) O’Reilley and Chatman (1986) stated that organizational commitment is the psychological attachments felt by the person for the organization, it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization.73

3) Allen and Meyer (1990) defined organizational commitment as a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization (i.e. makes turnover less likely).74
4) Kreitner and Kinicki (1995) defined organizational commitment as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization, its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organization.\textsuperscript{75}

5) Miller and Lee (2001) characterized organizational commitment as employee’s acceptance of organizational goals and their willingness to exert effect on behalf of the organization.\textsuperscript{76}

6) Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) defined organizational commitment as a binding force that is experienced as a mind-set or as a psychological state that leads an individual towards a particular course of action.\textsuperscript{77}

7) According to Zangaro (2001), employees are regarded as committed to an organization if they willingly continue their association with the organization and devote considerable effort to achieve organizational goals.\textsuperscript{78}

8) Johns (2005) stated that organizational commitment is the extent that an individual accepts, internalizes, and views his or her role based on organizational values and goals.\textsuperscript{79}

3.4.3 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Why an organisation would want to increase the level of commitment among its members? There are various reasons. It has been argued that having a committed workforce is seen as the key factor in achieving competitive performance. Highly committed employees wish to remain associated with the organisation and advance organizational goals, and are therefore less likely to leave. Committed workers can be expected to exercise self-control, thus removing the need for supervisory staff and producing efficiency gains. On the personal level, strong organizational commitment has implications for reduced stress levels.

In fact, vast numbers of studies have found positive relationships between organizational commitment and employee behaviours such as a greater effort exerted by the employee in performing tasks, better work attendance, higher employee retention, higher delivery of service quality and
increased willingness to engage in citizenship behaviour. Organizational commitment has the potential to power organizational effectiveness. Moreover, in today’s dynamic and fast paced business environment, organizations can no longer guarantee ‘a job for life’ which has made the notion of organizational commitment even more pertinent.

3.4.4 THEORIES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

A search in the literature shows that the study of organizational commitment can be classified into various theories or models. Such theories are important in the study of organizational commitment as they explore the different perspectives studied. Following are such theories or models of organizational commitment:

1) The Becker’s ‘Side-Bet’ Theory:

The first modern theory of organizational commitment was the ‘side–bet’ theory put forth by H.S. Becker in 1960. The term ‘Side-Bets’ has been used by Becker to refer to the accumulation of investments valued by the individual that would be lost or deemed worthless if he or she was to leave the organization. The individual is bound to the organization by extraneous factors such as income, hierarchical position and interpersonal relationships. The loss of friendships and seniority rights can also be a factor when changing employers. The basic strategy for testing the side-bets theory has been to demonstrate that commitment increases as the size or number of side-bets increases. The side-bets accumulate overtime, for instance through increased tenure the employee gains seniority and connections within the organizations. Becker’s effort was criticized in that the ‘side-bet’ model only identified the behaviour of the individual.

2) The Mowday, Porter, Steers and Boulian Model:

Mowday, Porter, Steers and Boulian began to theorize about organizational commitment in both attitudinal and behavioral contexts.
Mowday et al. (1982) described organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization, which is characterized by acceptance of and belief in organizational values and goals, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization. Organizational commitment as defined by Mowday et al. (1974) has three major components: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goal, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a desire to maintain organizational membership. O’Reilly and Chatman reviewed individual psychological attachment to the organization on the basis of Mowday and his colleagues’ organizational commitment theory.

3) Individual Organizational Goal Congruence Theory:

This theory focuses the extent to which individual identify with an organization and have personal goals that are in keeping with the organization. Individual organizational goal congruence theory views organizational commitment as a result of three factors:

a) The acceptance of the organization’s goals and values,

b) Willingness to help the organization to achieve its goals and

c) Desire to remain with the organization.

Congruence between work and organization affects a number of individual level outcomes such as personal success, intention to remain with the organization and understanding organizational values. This approach suggests that values of worker do not appreciably change over the time rather the effects appear to enhance the impact of value congruence on organizational commitment.

4) The O’Reilly and Chatman Model:

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) attempted to clarify the construct of organizational commitment. They defined commitment as the psychological attachment felt by the individual for an organization, which shows the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts the characteristics or perspectives
of the organization. There are three independent bases for psychological attachment: compliance, identification, and internalization.

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) believed compliance occurred when the attitudes and beliefs of an organization were adopted by an individual to gain specific rewards. Identification occurred when an individual respects the beliefs and values of the organization without adopting them as their own. Internalization occurred when the attitudes and beliefs of an organization are the same as the individual.\(^{83}\)

5) Meyer and Allen’s Three-Component Model:

Meyer and Allen made the biggest contribution to the organizational commitment literature, with over fifteen studies published from 1984. Meyer and Allen developed their three component model from an identification of common themes in the conceptualization of commitment. They argued that commitment binds an individual to an organization and thereby reduce the likelihood of turnover.\(^{84}\) These three components are explored in the paragraphs below:

a) Affective Commitment:

The first component of organizational commitment in the model is affective commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), affective commitment is the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization. An employee who has a strong affective commitment stays with the organization because he or she has no wish to leave. Affective commitment is the most positive form of commitment because employees who possess it will exert more effort in the organization out of genuine willingness rather than obligation.\(^{85}\)

b) Continuance Commitment:

The second component of Meyer and Allen’s model of organizational commitment is continuance commitment. Continuance commitment is awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization.\(^{86}\) Swailes (2002) argued that continuance commitment that derives from socioeconomic
factors reflects the employee’s awareness of the relative benefits associated with staying or leaving the organization. Affective commitment involves emotional attachment, whereas continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of continue. It is of importance especially when the employee perceives lack of suitable alternative.

c) Normative Commitment:

The last component of Meyer and Allen’s model of organizational commitment is normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) defined normative commitment as a feeling of obligation to carry on employment. An employee with a strong normative organizational commitment feels he or she has a moral obligation to sustain membership in the organization.

6) Etzioni’s Organizational Commitment Model:

Etzioni’s organizational commitment model encompasses three perspectives, namely: moral commitment, calculative commitment and alienative commitment. These perspectives are explored in the following paragraphs:

a) Moral Commitment:

Moral commitment represents one of the two affective perspectives of organizational commitment. It is characterized by the acceptance of and identification with organizational goals.

b) Calculative Commitment:

Calculative commitment is based on the employee receiving inducements to match contributions. Etzioni saw this type of organizational attachment as typical compliance systems which are based on an exchange. Thus it is conceptually rooted in the exchange theory of Barnard (1938).

c) Alienative Commitment:

Alienative commitment represents an affective attachment to the organization. An employee who is alienatively committed to the organization may stay because of lack of alternatives or fear of serious financial loss. Thus
according to Etzioni, alienative commitment is a negative organizational attachment which is characterized by low intensity of intentions to meet organizational demands coupled with intentions to retain organizational membership.

In the present study, Meyer and Allen’s tri-dimensional model has been used to measure the level organizational commitment.

3.4.5 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

The factors influencing organizational commitment can be divided into two components namely, personal factors and organizational factors which are detailed out as follows:

A) Personal Factors:

There have been a number of studies that have investigated the relationships between personal factors and organizational commitment. Personal factors such as age, gender, marital status, race, educational level, tenure and occupational position have been found to influence organizational commitment.

1) Age:

Research indicates a significant relationship between organizational commitment and age. As employees age increases, their level of commitment towards their employing organization increases. Younger employees are generally likely to be more mobile and to have lower psychological investments in the organisation as compared to the older employees. Brown and Sargeant (2007) found that older workers had higher organizational commitment than their younger colleagues. One possible reason for this is that there are hardly any employment opportunities available for older employees and older employees realize that leaving may cost them more than staying. Brown and Sargeant (2007) found that older workers had higher organizational commitment than their younger colleagues. One possible reason for this is that there are hardly any employment opportunities available for older employees and older employees realize that leaving may cost them more than staying.

2) Gender:

Females tend to be more committed to their employing organisation as compared to the males. Gurses and Demiray (2009) found a significant
relationship between gender and organizational commitment. The researchers suggested an explanation for this could be that females are reluctant to consider new job opportunities because of factors like children and marriage.\textsuperscript{92} Findings of research conducted by Loscocco (1990) illustrated the following results about women in respect of organizational commitment, namely: i) Women tend to take up more or less any position available to remain in the organization, ii) They are more likely to be happy with their employment than with their present organization and iii) Their values are aligned with that of the employer.\textsuperscript{93}

3) Marital Status:

Studies have found a positive relationship between marital status and organizational commitment. Married employees exhibited higher organizational commitment largely due to greater family obligations which constrain their opportunities to change employers. Gurses and Demiray (2009) found that those who are married are organizationally more committed than those who are single. They purport this can be as a result of the financial commitments and responsibilities which the average family is faced with.\textsuperscript{94}

4) Race:

Race can also be another important personal factor having impact on the employee’s organizational commitment. In a study of Vallabh and Donald (2001), White people have reported higher levels of commitment than their Black counterparts.\textsuperscript{95} Cunningham and Sagas (2004) found that compared to Whites, Blacks felt that there were not any job opportunities and chances for advances.\textsuperscript{96}

5) Educational Level:

Researches indicated an inverse relationship between organizational commitment and an individual’s level of education. A number of researchers maintain that the higher an employee’s level of education, the lower that individual’s level of organizational commitment. The negative relationship may result from the fact that highly qualified employees have higher expectations that the organisation may be unable to fulfill. Higher levels of
education enhance the possibility that employees can find alternative employment which may reduce their levels of commitment. People with lower educational levels generally have more difficulty changing jobs and therefore show a greater commitment to their organization. According Mathieu and Zajac (1990), more highly qualified individuals have a greater number of alternative work opportunities.97

6) Tenure:

Previous researches supported a positive relationship between organizational commitment and tenure. The length of service or tenure of employees contributes towards increasing the employees’ levels of commitment towards the organisation. One possible reason for the positive relationship between tenure and commitment may be due to the increase in the personal investments that the individual has in the organisation and the reduction of employment opportunities. This may lead to an increase in the individual’s psychological attachment to the organisation. As an individual’s length of service with a particular organization increases, he or she may develop psychological attachment with the organization that makes it difficult to change jobs. However, Morris et al. (2001) observed that employees who had served the organisation for longer periods of time and/or were better educated, were less committed to the organisation. The least qualified and the least experienced tended to demonstrate higher degrees of organizational commitment.98

7) Occupational Position:

Generally occupational position has a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Higher the occupational position one has in the organization, higher the level of organizational commitment is shown by him. In the study of Lee and Chung (2001) managers show higher mean scores than staff in ‘values commitment’, ‘effort commitment’ and ‘retention commitment’.99
B) Organizational Factors:

Organizational factors that influence an organizational commitment include pay, promotion and supervision which are discussed in detail as follows:

1) Pay:

Friss (1983) found that higher salary were positively associated with organizational commitment.\textsuperscript{100} McElroy (2001) found that providing high compensation could lead to higher organizational commitment for a variety of reasons. Firstly, it permits the organization to attract a larger pool of applicants from which to select the recruit. Secondly, high compensation serves as an indication of how much an organization values its employees thus enhancing the self-worth and feelings of importance. Thirdly, tying compensation to performance motivates the employees to exert more effort on behalf of the organization.\textsuperscript{101} Therefore high compensation that is tied to organizational performance is predicted to lead to increased levels of organizational commitment.

2) Promotion:

Gaertner and Nollen (1989) found that commitment was greater amongst employees who had been promoted and it was also positively related to employees’ perceptions that the organization had a policy of promoting from within. Such policies might be perceived as evidence of organizational support, which instills a greater commitment to the organization.\textsuperscript{102} Wasti (2003) conducted studies on organizational commitment in the Turkish environment and found that satisfaction with work and promotions were the strongest predictors of organizational commitment.\textsuperscript{103}

3) Supervision:

Supervisors play a crucial role in the development of organizational commitment among the employees. Supervisors are formally responsible for monitoring performance of employees on behalf of the organization. As agents of the organizations supervisors are frequently involved in decisions relating to
pay and promotions that affect their employees. According to the Vadenberghe and Bentein (2009), supervision is one of the predictors of withdrawal behaviour.\textsuperscript{104}

3.4.6 CONSEQUENCES OF LOW ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Low organizational commitment can bring about numerous undesirable adverse effects on work outcomes. Researchers have studied the consequences of organizational commitment in the workplace, especially how it affects factors such as job performance, turnover intention, absenteeism and organizational citizenship behaviour. The different effects of organizational commitment on these variables are explored below.

1) Job Performance:

Job performance is an outcome of commitment. Past studies conducted mainly in the western countries have reported a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and overall job performance. The greater the commitment level, the greater the performance level. This implies that individuals who are committed to the organization tend to perform better. Cichy, Cha and Kim (2009) investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and performance. The results indicated that affective commitment has the strongest positive effect on performance, while continuance commitment is negatively related to performance. There was a low positive association between normative commitment and performance.\textsuperscript{105} A study conducted by Khan (2005) found a significant association between commitment and academic achievements of teachers. When teachers were committed to their work, the academic achievements of students tend to be higher.\textsuperscript{106}

2) Turnover Intention:

Organizational commitment has an inverse relationship with turnover. That is, higher levels of organizational commitment are associated with lower levels of turnover. The argument is that an employee who feels attached to the
organisation is less likely to quit and seek employment elsewhere. The intention to leave the organization is the lowest among employees who are strongly committed to the organization. Abdelrahman (2008) reports that NGO workers in the sample reported moderately low level of commitment and one third of the employees surveyed planned to leave their profession to pursue their careers outside of NGO in order to avoid the job stress.107

3) Absenteeism:

There is an inverse relationship between organizational commitment and absenteeism. Somers (1995) found that nurses with lower levels of commitment had the higher levels of absences.108 Blau and Boal (1987) also found that insurance workers who had higher levels of commitment had lower levels of absenteeism and turnover.109 According to Zakaria (1988), absenteeism can be dysfunctional and financially expensive. Firstly, it could disrupt the daily process of an organization. Secondly, organizations have to bear the extensive cost of absenteeism, such as loss of output, use of conditional workers, overtime cost.110

4) Organizational Citizenship Behaviour:

Organizational citizenship behaviour is a behaviour performed in helping a specific co-worker, a customer or a supervisor, not normally expected of the employee since it is not part of the employment contract. The practical importance of organizational citizenship behaviour is that it improves organizational efficiency and effectiveness by contributing to resource transformations, innovativeness and adaptability. In the meta-analysis of Meyer et al (2002), organizational citizenship behaviour correlated positively with affective commitment ($r = 0.32$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.24$).111

3.4.7 MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Researcher found various instruments from the literature for measuring the level organizational commitment. These are:

1) Organizational Commitment Scale Developed by Buchanan (1974).
2) Organizational Commitment Scale Developed by Hunt, Chonko and Wood (1985).

3) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire Developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979).


In the present study, organizational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen is used for measuring the levels of organizational commitment of university teachers.

3.5 JOB SATISFACTION, JOB INVOLVEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS:

Higher educational institutions play fundamental role in the progress of any country. As every educated person in the society a nurse, entrepreneur, doctor, engineer, etc. has passed through the hands of teacher. So in this regard, teachers play a decisive and formative role in the lives of youth. Teachers are the most important factor in determining the quality of education that children receive in the college/university. Different research studies have emphasized that the dream of quality of teaching at University level cannot materialize without a satisfied, involved, committed and highly motivated teacher. That is why efforts are being made all over the globe to provide a conducive, peaceful and healthy work environment along with other economic benefits to the university teachers to increase their level of job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment.

3.6 CONCLUDING REMARK:

Job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their job. Job involvement is the degree to which an individual is involved in a particular job and actively participates in it. Organizational commitment is the degree to which an employee accepts goals of the organization and wishes to maintain
membership in the organization. These three job attitudes are important for the effectiveness of any organization. This chapter firstly introduced the concept of job satisfaction and highlighted the importance of job satisfaction. Furthermore, theories of job satisfaction were discussed. The factors influencing job satisfaction, consequences of job satisfaction and measurement of job satisfaction were also provided.

Secondly, job involvement was conceptualized. Importance and theoretical models of job involvement were highlighted. Issues relating to the influencing factors, consequences and measurement of job involvement were also discussed.

Thirdly, it introduced the concept of organizational commitment and highlighted development, importance and theories relating to organizational commitment. In addition, it endeavoured to provide an overview pertaining to antecedents, consequences and measurement of organizational commitment.
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