CHAPTER 1

Introduction
Job Involvement

The concept of job involvement has become much important in last few years because of its central role in providing a link between employee's need and performance on the one hand and the quality of working life on the other (Hall & Lawler, 1970; Walton, 1972; Dewhrist, 1973).

The term has gained the attention of organizational psychologist and has been widely studied by them. There are much different terms, which have been used to explain job involvement such as central life interests, ego involvement, occupational involvement, morale, work role involvement, intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction etc.

Lewis (1944) and Lewis & Franklin (1944) proved that individual became involved in their work even in the artificial contest of a laboratory. Since that time empirical investigations of ego-involvement in the job have appeared in the psychological literature with increasing frequency.

The process of ego involvement in work has been affair for both psychologists and sociologists. Allport (1947) defined ego involvement, as the situation in which the person "engages the status seeking motive" in his work: The psychologists have tended to focus on
organizational conditions that lead to job involvement such as meaningfulness of work, adequacy of supervision etc.

Job involvement is the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his work on the importance of work in his total self-image. Beside the situational variables the past specialization processes experienced by the individual, in specific socio-economic and cultural milieu influence job involvement (Reddy and Rajasekhar, 1991).

Guion's (1958) definition of moral is also relevant to the job involvement. According to him "morale is ego involvement in one's job" There is something to be said for the attitudinal frame of reference in which a man perceives his job to so important to himself, to his company and to society that his superiors, "blunders" are not to be tolerated.

French & Kahn (1962) have reported that the centrality of ability is the degree to which it affects self esteem, if job performance is central to the workers, then we have ego-involved performance. The early studies on job involvement used the term "ego involvement" although the implications of both terms are same.

Lodahl & Kejner (1965) have defined this term as 'job involvement is the internalization of values about the goodness of work
or the importance of work in the worth of the person and perhaps it thus measures the ease with which the person can be further socialized by an organization.

Lodahl & Kejner (1965) have also defined it as, "job involvement is the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self esteem".

Bass (1965) views it as representative of employee's ego involvement in his job and thus relates it to performance. He also suggested that the condition under which job involvement could be enhanced. These conditions relate to opportunity to make more of the job decision, the feeling that one is making an important contribution to the organization and freedom to set one's own work place.

Ketz & Kahn (1966) have suggested that firstly, job involvement is a necessary condition in the individual for accepting fully the organization's demand placed upon him by his membership in an organization, secondly, that the degree of job involvement is related to level of aspiration and to the degree of internalization of organizational goal, and, thirdly, job involvement is a moderator variable in the relationship between satisfaction and performance. Thus job involvement can be considered as an important measure of organizational effectiveness that may be at least in part influenced by job satisfaction.
A series of later investigation explored the concept of job involvement as a potentiality to distinct job attitude (Lodahl & Kejner 1965; Weissenberg & Gruenfield 1968, Lawer & Hall 1970; Schwyhart & Smith 1972). However some problems still remain in defining job involvement and in establishing the relationship of this construct to other job variables, particularly job satisfaction.

Patchen (1970) considered the construct of the job involvement as convenient level summarizing several characteristics that make the job more important and potentially more satisfying to the individual. According to Patchen (1970) the job involved person is highly motivated and feels a sense of pride in his work.

Lawler & Hall (1970) defined job involvement as referring to psychological identification with one's work "as well as" the degree to which the job situation is central to person and his identity. Farris (1971) holds job involvement as a function of a person interaction with his environment.

Robinowitz & Hall (1977) classified numerous definitions of job involvement into two broad categories. Firstly job involvement as a performance-self esteem contingency, and secondly job involvement as component of self image.
The ambiguities concerning the concept of job involvement are referred here. Dubin (1956); Lodahl (1964); Wollack, Coodale, Wijting and Smith (1971) consider it as a partial operationalization of the protestant ethic. Weissenberg and Gruenfield (1968) think of it as a quasi indicator of motivation. Siegel (1969) suggested that it might be a reflection of the interaction of worker's sex, early socialization background and organizational variables.

Argyris (1964), and McGregor (1960) emphasized job involvement as personal characteristics of employee response to organizational conditions. The view of organization as blocking the gratification of ego and growth needs, a result that leads to the decline or absence of individual involvement on the job.

Job involvement has been viewed as an attitude. Hence, its development or determinant may only be effected by many repeated or very strong stimulation and the resulting reinforcement of an employee's ideas about work. For any individual his goals in life are multiple and unequally weighted. It follows that for high job involvement a job implementing an individual's ambition is necessary, i.e., the job must hold a high priority among his various goals. For a job aspirant the acquisition of a job holds an emotional content. He has some expectations from the job, which is determined by his previous socialization background (Dubin, 1956; Lodahl, 1964). If he seeks the
job just as a stepping-stone to a more desirable goals then such feelings of the employee would be directed to a different goal than the job. Siegel (1969) endorses that early socialization process goes a long way in affecting the development of an individual's job involvement.

March & Simon (1958) suggested that job involvement may also be related to the decision to participate and the decision to produce. Among other things, both of these decisions are affected but the individuals' perception of a variety of alternatives. The person who is more job involved may perceive fewer available alternatives, he may therefore, be inclined to participate more actively in required activities, of the organization.

Kanungo, Mishra and Dayal (1975) are of the opinion that "attitude of job involvement represents the degree to which the total job situation is thought of as being central to one's life or self concept."

Blauner (1964) is of the opinion that involvement in work may come from association with others, and from a sense of purpose. A man who is in control of his immediate work process, regulates the pace, the quantity of output, the quality of the products, chooses tools or work technique, will be relatively immense in the activity of work.
According to Wanous (1974) one of the earliest determinants of an individual's work needs is his socialized environment. He believed that an involvement prone individual will become involved when holding a job with its characteristics such as autonomy, variety, challenge, feedback and task-identity.

Saleh & Hosek (1976) identified four different interpretations of the concept of job involvement. A person is involved (i) when work to him is a central life interest, (ii) when he actively participates in his job; (iii) when he perceives performance as a consistent with his self concept and (iv) when he perceives performance as central to his self esteem. Saleh & Hosek (1976) observe job involvement 'as the degree to which the person identifies with the job, actively participates in it, and consider his performance important to his self work'. Currently Saleh (1981) identified job involvement as a "self involving attitude". According to him it is a multidimensional concept and that the basic dimensions are cognitive, connective (behavioural) and evaluative.

Wirner & Gechman (1977) gave a behavioural approach to study the job involvement. They argue that when individuals are committed to a cause person, activity or institution, they must express this by an overt, public act and commitment.

Kanungo (1979, 1982) proposes a motivational approach to study of job involvement that argues for maintaining a conceptual distinction
between intrinsic motivation and job involvement. According to him, satisfaction of intrinsic needs might increase the likelihood of job involvement. This approach argues that job involvement is a cognitive state of psychological identification with the job and depends on the degree to which the job perceived to meet one's salient need, her intrinsic or extrinsic. It has been investigated by Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) that job involvement is significantly related to satisfaction with motivator variables, However, it is found to be unrelated to the hygiene variable. Schwyhart and Smith (1972) observe a positive relationship between job involvement and company satisfaction.

Hall & Mansfield (1971) are of opinion that if job involvement is indeed a personal characteristic, then there should be little change in its under periods of organizational stress. Hulin & Blood (1968) have also denoted the importance of individual differences in job involvement. Mehta (1977) has proposed a model of participation in organization and considered job involvement as an intervening condition. Accordingly, factors such as autonomy, friendly relations, supervisory behaviour, trust and support lead to involvement in turn increases productivity.

Robinowitz & Hall (1977) specified three theoretical prospective
(i) Job involvement as an individual difference variable

(ii) Job involvement as a function of the situation

(iii) Job involvement as an individual situation interaction.

Their conclusions, based primarily on reported bivariate correlations, were as follows:

(1) Job involvement is related to three classes of working variables—personal characteristics and work outcomes. No one class of variables shows clearly stronger relationship to job involvement than any other.

(2) Job involvement is quite stable.

(3) Much of variance in job involvement remains unexplained.

(4) The data are more consistent with the 'importance of work' definition of job involvement than with the extent to which performance affects 'self esteem' definition.

(5) Job involvement seems to be a 'feedback variable', both cause and an effect of job behaviour.

(6) Personal and situational variables have independent effects on involvement.
Situational variables seem to have more effect on the attitude of low involved persons.

Evition, Whitely & Jans hypothesized the construct of work involvement as having three dimensions. Job involvement or psychological identification with the position or job occupied, specialization involvement or psychological identification with the career or specialization of performance to self-esteem. Factor analysis supported that the three attitudes are distinct.

These definitions have a common core of meaning in that they describe job involved person as one for whom work is very important and his life is very much affected by his job situation (the work itself, his co-workers, the company etc). On the other hand for the uninvolved person work is not an important part of his psychological life. His interests are elsewhere and the core of his self image, the essential part of his identity is not greatly affected by the kind of work, he does or how well he does it. It is important to note, with Guion (1958) that job involved worker is not necessarily happy within job; in fact, very angry people may be just as involved in their jobs as very happy ones.

In a nutshell, we can say that there is a great deal of confusion about the construct of job involvement. It is notable that the confusion is not at the theoretical level but also continues in the empirical studies of job involvement.
In a multivariable study, Saal (1981) has examined the significance of the cognitive definition of job involvement (Kanungo, 1979) and found the similar result. Saal argued that job involvement is a joint function of individual (demographic and psychological) and situational variables, and these different types of variables explain some nonredundant unique portions of total job involvement variance.

From the above cited definitions and approaches about job involvement it can be concluded that job involvement is (i) a cognitive state of identification with work and (ii) a degree to which an individual feels that the work is an important part of his job life.

**Review of Researches in the area of job involvement**

Earlier researches on job involvement have attempted to find out the relationship between job involvement and employees as well as job characteristics. Important employees characteristics are taken into consideration such as age, sex, growth needs, education, marital status, length of service, higher order need strength, job level and belief in the traditional work ethics. In the studies generally it has been found that older workers are usually more involved with their jobs, perhaps because they have more responsibility and challenges and more opportunity to satisfy their growth needs. They are also more likely to believe in the value of hard work. The strong positive correlation between age and job involvement has been found for

In a series of careful laboratory experiments, Lewis (1944); Lewis and Franklin (1944) used the Zeigarnic effect to establish conditions under which ego involvement in work took place.

In a study of "central life interests" of workers, Dubin (1956) used a 40-item questionnaire to sample total life experiences; the form of the questionnaire allowed workers to choose a job oriented, non-job oriented or an indifferent response. Over all 40 items, Dubin found that only 24% of the respondents could be classed as "job oriented".

In previous unpublished research, Lodahl used rating methods to determine job involvement from interview protocols. Data on 21 job attitudes obtained on women in precision electronics assembly work were intercorrelated and factor analyzed; job involvement emerged as a separate factor, related to team involvement, product knowledge, and time on job variables dealing with satisfaction; motivation and frustration were factorially independent of job involvement. It was also found in this study that while interrater agreement on job involvement was low, it nevertheless appeared to be the most stable of the 21 attitude variable over a 20 month period. This suggested that job involvement was relatively unaffected by changes in the work
environment, since during the 20 month period many "improvements" were made in the jobs and in the organization immediately surrounding the operators.

Using the same attitude data and adding technological variables, Hearn (1962) found that job involvement was related to the perceptual skill required to these women. He also found that team operators were more job involved than people working alone, but he described this to the greater perceptual skill required on teams. Since these variables are tied together, it is impossible to untangle the causal sequence in this instance.

The same content analysis methods were used in a study of auto-assembly line workers in which Lodahl (1964) again found that job involvement emerged as an independent attitude factor, this time with the variables like product involvement, company involvement and number of men working near loaded on the involvement factor. Social variables, thus, appear in the factorial composition of job involvement in both samples, hinting at the socio-cultural origin of this attitude and underscoring the importance of work groups in maintaining stable orientations toward work.

The study by Schwyhart and Smith (1972) found that a worker's involvement in his job not dependent upon his job satisfaction. But
Singh Mishra and Pestonjee (1995) find that job satisfaction is affected by job involvement.

Ruh & White (1974) have also demonstrated that the job involvement was negatively related to education for rank and file workers.

Siegel & Ruh (1973) and Jones, James & Bruni (1975) reported no relationship between education and job involvement. However, Mannheim (1975) reported a positive relationship between these two variables.

Hall & Mansfield (1975) found no relationship between job involvement and tenure for a sample of male middle managers, developing scientist and engineers.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Robinowitz (1975) found that these two variables are unrelated.

Madhu & Harigopal (1976) obtained role ambiguity to be negatively related with job involvement. However, the researchers could not find the significant relationship between role conflict and job involvement.

Tannenbaum (1966), Mannheim (1975), and Sharma & Kapoor (1978) reported that individuals at higher ranks are more involved with their jobs.
Sharma & Kapoor (1978) have reported that higher salary also leads to higher job involvement. They also found that the workers with rural and urban background do not differ in their job involvement. Social factor on the job can influence job involvement. Group employees also reported stronger job involvement in comparison to single worker. Participation in decision-making is related to job involvement, as is the extent to which employees support organizational goals. Feeling of success and achievement on the job enhance one's level of job involvement. But at the same time contradictory results have been found between job level and job involvement.

Sharma & Kapoor (1978) have reported a negative relationship between educational qualification and job involvement.

Sharma & Sharma (1978) investigated the relationship among measures of job involvement, job satisfaction and general anxiety on samples of 40 (high job level) and 80 (low job level) white collar employees. The findings are; (i) Job involvement and job satisfaction are positively related (ii) Job involvement is negatively related to general anxiety, similarly (iii) Job satisfaction and general anxiety are negatively related.

Bajaj (1978a) tried to find out the differences existing in the degree of job involvement in four occupational groups (government...
school teachers, clerks and nurses). 125 unselected working women from different occupational groups (government school teachers n=45, private school teachers n=25, office clerks n=30; and nurses n=25) were used as Ss for the present study. Job involvement scale was administered individually to measure the degree of job involvement. The results of the present study indicated that there were significant differences in the degree of job involvement among different occupational groups (F = 10.78; df = 124; P = .01). Simultaneously it was also found that nurses were more job involved in comparison to the members of other occupational groups (teachers and clerks).

Cheloha and Farr (1980) reported that job involvement was more consistently related to absence behaviour on a sample of state government employees.

In a crosscultural study Sekaran and Mowday (1981) observed that demographic variables as well as job characteristics play a less central role in determining the level of job involvement in Indian employees as compared to the United States Employees.

Mishra & Singh (1983) investigated the influence of occupational stress, ego-strength and job satisfaction on job involvement of first level industrial supervisors. The occupational stress index has been used to access the stress of supervisors. It includes twelve subscale namely Role overload, Role ambiguity, Role conflict, Unreasonable
group / political pressure, Under participation, Poor peer relations at work, powerlessness, Low status, Intrinsic improvement, Strenuous working conditions and Unpredictability. Ego-strength has been measured by Hasan's Ego Strength Scale. The satisfaction has been measured by S.D. Employees inventory. It includes four subscales namely, Job management, Social relation and Personal adjustment.

The study has been conducted at Diesel Locomotive Works, Varanasi. The sample consists 400 first level industrial supervisors. The results are analyzed in terms of mean, standard deviation, critical ratio, analysis of variance and correlation. A significant difference in job involvement was also observed between high job satisfaction / low job satisfaction group. A significant positive correlation between job involvement, job satisfaction and ego-strength, job satisfaction has been found.

In a study of 325 accountants, Morrow (1983) suggested that professionalism- "defined as the degree of commitment to one's profession" - had no relation to job involvement. Apparently it is possible to be committed to one's profession a large without having a corresponding sense of identification with one's job.

Dhar & Jain (1992) attempted to explore the nature of relationship between job satisfaction, job involvement, age and length of service amongst academicians. The sample consisted of 47
university and college teachers who were participants in a Research Methodology Course conducted by Academic Staff, College of Devi Ahilya University, Indore. Job involvement was measured by a modified version of Kanungo's Scale and job satisfaction by Singh and Shrma's Scale of Job Satisfaction. Pearson's correlation was used for the analysis of data. Job involvement and job satisfaction were found to be positively correlated but job satisfaction was found negatively correlated to both, age as well as length of service.

Mishra (1994) investigated the moderator effect of under participation stressor on the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction. The sample comprised 4000 first line supervisors from north India (mean age 45 years). The Occupational Stress Index (Srivastava & Singh, 1981), the Job Involvement Measure (Kapoor & Singh, 1978) the Job Satisfaction Measure (Pestonjee, 1973) were administered. Data were analyzed using moderator regression analysis and subgroup analysis. Results reveal that under participation stressor did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement.

Karrir & Khurana (1996) examined the relationship of quality of work life (QWL) with demographic variables (age, educational qualification, experience, native or migrant status, number of dependents and income level) on the one hand and motivational
variables (job satisfaction, job involvement, and work involvement) on the other. A sample of 491 managers (public sector 182, private sector 143, cooperative sector 166) from top, middle, and lower levels of management was administered Sashkin and Lenegermenn QWL Feeling / Condition (1984), the Job Involvement Questionnaire (Kanungo et al., 1976), the Work Involvement Questionnaire (Kanungo et al., 1976), the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Kanungo et al., 1976), and a personal information schedule, QWL was significantly correlated with educational qualification, native or migrant status, income level and with all the motivational variables. An increase in QWL was observed with an increase in income.

Bhatt (1997) investigated the correlation between job stress, job involvement and job satisfaction among primary school teachers (PSTs). A random sample of 120 male and 120 female PSTs (age 18-59 years) from public and private schools of Jamnagar city completed D. J. Bhatt's (1994) Job Stress Scale, T. M. Lodahl and M. Kejner's (1965) Job Involvement Scale and Bhatt's (1986) Job Satisfaction Scale (Gujrati adaptation). Results indicate that the PSTs job stress was highly negatively but significantly associated with job involvement and job satisfaction while, job involvement was highly positively significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Job involvement was significantly positively correlated with 14 job factors and in 2 cases the correlation was positive, but not significant even at the .05 level. Four
factors of job stress were significantly negatively correlated with overall job satisfaction. There was a significant negative partial correlation between the PSTs' job stress and job involvement but there was a negative insignificant partial correlation between job stress and job satisfaction.

Joshi (1998) compared private and public sector employees and work involvement. The sample consisted of 165 public sector and 121 private sector employees who were administered the Job Satisfaction Scale, the Job Involvement Scale and the Work Involvement Scale (Kanungo, 1982). A personal data sheet was used to collect information on gender, age, and length of service, work experience, monthly income, and educational level. Results reveal that the employees of public and private sectors differed significantly in their job satisfaction, job and work involvement. Demographic variables such as age, length of service, monthly income and work experience in the present job also affect job satisfaction, job and work involvement. However, gender of the employees did not influence these variables.

Biswas (1998) examined the effect of six lifestyle stressors—performance, threat, boredom, frustration, bereavement, and physical damage—on organizational commitment and job involvement. A sample of 160 managers, supervisors and workers (age 35-53 years) of 3 large and medium public and private sector organizations in Baroda
completed the Demographic Information Schedule, the Life Style Stressor Questionnaire, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and the Job Involvement Questionnaire. Performance, threat and frustration stressors were significant predictors of organizational commitment whereas none of the stressors predicted job involvement. Organizational effectiveness was positively correlated with organizational commitment and job involvement. Managers scored higher on organizational commitment and job involvement compared to supervisors and workers. Workers experienced maximum performance stress. The relevance of these findings in the organizational context has been discussed.

Sayeed (1998) evaluated the conceptual frame work of Biswas (1998) study and conduct meta analysis to revise the learning - effort model. A re-analysis of the intercorrelation matrix showed that career utility and job involvement directly contributed to learning effort. Multiple criteria were introduced to establish the robustness of the model. Decision involvement, training transfer climate, source credibility, job involvement, and organizational commitment were proposed as multiple predictors, it was observed that source credibility, job involvement, and decision involvement were important predictors of the training impact. The re-analysis dearly highlighted the lacunas in Biswas' model. The implications of the re-analysis for understanding the effectiveness of training have been discussed.
Patel (1999) investigated the impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment of nationalized and cooperative bank employees. A randomly selected sample of 200 bank employees with an equal number from nationalized and cooperative banks, divided into three age groups; younger (age below 35 years), middle (age 35-45 years) and elder (age above 45 years), was administered Lodahl & Kejner's Job Involvement Scale (1965) and Mowday's Organizational Commitment Scale (1979). Results revealed less job involvement and less organizational commitment in the younger age group in both the nationalized and cooperative banks. Significant differences in organizational commitment but not in job involvement were observed only between the middle age group employees with the nationalized bank employees being higher on organizational commitment than their counter parts in the cooperative banks.

Naaz (1999) examined the influence of job characteristics (autonomy, task identity, feedback, and skill variety) and demographic variables (chances of advancement and salary) on job involvement. A sample of 362-production line workers was administered the Job Characteristic Scale (Naaz & Akhtar, 1993) and an adapted version of Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) Job Involvement Scale. Regression analyses revealed that skill variety and task identity were significant predictors of job involvement implying that job involvement was significantly determined by job characteristics.
Joshi (1999) investigated the interrelationship between job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement and the relationship of these three variables with age, job experience, monthly income and educational level. The sample consisted of 165 public and 121 private sector employees at various levels. Ss were administered measures of job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement developed by Kanungo (1982). Results revealed a significant association between job satisfaction and job involvement. Employees age, job experience and monthly income were significantly correlated with job as well as work involvement. Job satisfaction was significantly correlated only with monthly income.

Yadav & Halyal (1999) investigated the influence of job involvement and family involvement on job and marital satisfaction. Purposive sampling was used to obtain a sample of 500 male college teachers who had at least 5 years of married and teaching experience, at least one child and an unemployed wife. The Job Involvement Scale (Kanungo, 1982), the Family Involvement Scale (Mishra, Ghosh & Kanungo, 1990), the Job Satisfaction Scale (Kanungo, 1982) and the Marital Satisfaction Scale (Roach et. al., 1981) were administered to all the Ss. Psychological identification with job and family were positively correlated with job and marital satisfaction. Job involvement and family involvement were positively related to each other having an
additive interactional influence on job satisfaction and marital satisfaction.

Barkat, Shah & Parveen (1999) examined the interrelationship among skill, job involvement, and work performance of 100 weavers employed in different carpet manufacturing enterprises. Subjects were administered the shorter version of Lodahl and Kejner's Job Involvement Scale. Their performance and skill appraisals were assessed by a scale developed by the authors. Correlational analysis revealed positive but insignificant correlation among various levels of skill; job involvement and work performance, the only between high skill and low work performance which were inversely but not significantly related.

Ahmad and Ansari (2000) studied the effect of income and job tenure on job involvement of craftsmen in carpet manufacturing industries. The sample consisted of 100 craftsmen (age 26-48 years) working in various small-scale carpet industries. Subjects were administered the Hindi version of Lodahl and Kejner's Job Involvement Scale (1965) and a Biographical Information Blank. Two-way analysis of variance revealed that the main effects of income and job tenure were not significant. However, income mark of multiplication job tenure effect was significant.
Bhargava and Kelkar (2000) explored the prediction of job involvement, job satisfaction and empowerment from organizational structure and corporate culture. A sample of 102 (age 24.53 years) managers, officers and supportive staff of a business organization completed a questionnaire assessing organizational structure as well as corporate culture, job involvement, job satisfaction and empowerment. Job satisfaction and empowerment were positively related, but both were unrelated to job involvement. Centralization was positively related to job involvement but negatively to job satisfaction and empowerment. A negative correlation was found between centralization and job satisfaction and empowerment, highlighting the importance of decentralization for managing people in organizations. The measures of human resource development could be predicted by the corporate culture. It has been argued that organizations should opt for strategies that take into account the all around development of their members through strategic human resource management.

Verma & Asthana (2001-2003) aimed to find out relationship between social support on job involvement in working women. Sample consisted of 160 female lecturers from different degree colleges of Varanasi district. Job Involvement Scale (Singh, 1994) and P.G.I. Social Support Questionnaire (Nehru and others, 1998) were administered and coefficient of correlation between the scores of these two scales was worked out. A significant negative correlation reveals
that female lecturers getting more social support are highly involved in their jobs.

Mehra and Mishra (2004) made an attempt to explore the potential moderator effect of involvement on the intrinsic job satisfaction occupational stress relationship. The psychological participation index developed by Singh and Pestonjee (1978), the S.D. Employees Inventory developed by Pestonjee (1973) and Occupational Stress Index developed by Srivastava and Singh (1981) were administered on a sample of 250 blue-collar industrial workers of “UPTRON INDIA LTD.” in Lucknow. The subgroup analytical strategy and moderated regression analysis were applied for determining the effect of involvement on the relationship of job satisfaction with occupational stress. The moderated regression analysis confirmed that involvement has moderating effect on the intrinsic job satisfaction occupational stress relationship. The subgroup analysis reaffirmed the moderating effect.

Research related to the job involvement in India is started perhaps considerably much later and less rapid in comparison of the west. Recently Indian investigators have attempt to investigate the influence of job involvement on very few variables like demographic (Anantharaman, 1980; Sharma and Sharma, 1978; Sharma and Kapoor, 1978), perceived importance of job factors (Kulkarni, 1976), different

**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

The phenomenon of organizational commitment has become increasingly recognized in the Organizational and Industrial Psychology. It is an outcome of physical working conditions and organizational climate other than individual employee's work related attitude and behaviour. Organizational commitment is the feeling and attitude about the entire work organization. Commitment refers to individual's attraction and attachment to the work and the organization. The attachment of the employees to his organization has received a considerable attention in management and organizational behaviour orientation and as a result the phenomenon like attachment,
identification, loyalty to the organization etc., has clearly emerged as the most recognized research construct.

Commitment embraces three separate but independent attitudes (1) a sense of identification with the organizational mission, (2) a feeding of involvement or psychological duties, and (3) a feeling of loyalty and affection for the organization as a place to live and work, quite apart from the merits of its mission, or its purely instrumental values to the individual.

1. **Identification**: Identification implies the alignment of individual and organizational goals. The employees came to think of the aims of the organization in personal terms and to incorporate them into his self-system. To share in its work, he believes, is to contribute to his important social ends. There is an element of romance in the process of identification. In this sense identification can contribute considerably to the psychic well being by linking a person to sustaining purpose and giving him a sense of direction.

(ii) **Involvement**: The second of the commitment matter is the individual's immersion and absorption in work as a matter of absolute pleasure. And it is measurement of the extent to which he sees his job as an extension of himself. The organizational value of involvement is obvious. People who like their work are
likely to put more into it and be more effective than those whose true interests lie elsewhere.

2. Loyalty: The last commitment component is of special value to the organization. Identification has its object the organizational mission, but the sentiments are readily transferable to other organizations with similar missions. Involvement arises in relation to a set of intrinsically satisfying and self-validating activities, but many jobs are virtually interchangeable from one organization to another. Loyalty is the mucilage that binds people firmly to the particular organizational setting in which identification and involvement take shape (Buchanan, 1974).

Whyte (1956) developed the concept of "The Organizational Man" that refers to one's over-commitment to the organization. In Whyte's opinion organizational man is a person who works for organization as well as, possesses a feeling of psycho belongingness. Similarly, Lawrence (1958) asserted, "ideally we would want one sentiment to be dominant in all employees from top to bottom, namely a complete loyalty to the organizational purpose."

According to Becker (1960), commitment involves "consistent of action" in his behaviour that is produced by exchange considerations to which he called side-bets that would be lest if the activity were discontinued.
Etzioni (1961) is the first who developed a typology of commitment and pointed out that the power or authority that organizations have over their employees is rooted in the nature of employees' involvement in the organization. He described this involvement or commitment involving behaviour as (a) moral involvement, (b) calculative involvement, and (c) alienative involvement. Moral involvement is that which has positive and high intense orientation toward the organization based on internalization of organizational goals and values and/or identification with authority. Calculative involvement on the other hand, represents a less intense relationship with the organization and is largely based on a rational exchange of benefits and rewards. He suggests primary control mechanisms that organizations often employ to secure compliance with organizational directives. Normative power, which rests largely on the allocation of symbolic rewards is most often associated with moral involvement, where as remunerative power is typical with calculative and lastly, coercive power is used in a situation where alienation involvement is concerned.

Kanter (1968) suggested three forms of commitment viz., continuance commitment that refers to the members' dedication to the survival of the organization. Cohesion commitment is referred as the attachment to the social relationship in an organization context, which is bought through public renunciation of previous social ties or by
engaging in different social ceremonies. Thirdly, the control commitment, which is the result of members' attachment to the organizational norms that shape behaviour towards desired direction or develop employees' pro-activity conducive to organizational objectives.

Further Brown (1969), while describing commitment highlights three important facets that includes (a) the notion of membership, (b) current position of the individual, and (c) predictive potential concerning certain aspects of performance, motivation to work, spontaneous contribution and other related outcomes. He suggests the differential relevance of motivational factors.

Hall et. al. (1970) considered that commitment is the process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent. This contention is highly logical, as it is important in enhancing human working efficiency.

According to Sheldon (1971), an attitude or an orientation towards the organization, which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization, is called commitment. Organizational commitment is a powerful tool that can be used as an aid to achieve higher level of performance and to develop and maintain discipline in an organization. The construct has been found related to many important outcome variables like performance, absenteeism, employee's turnover, and tardiness etc. Lack of commitment to the
work and the organization can contribute to the major problems faced by organization like high cost of production and poor services (Sherwin, 1972).

According to Porter et.al. (1976), it is the strength of one's identification with the job and the involvement in a particular organization, hence, characterized by one's willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a desire to maintain membership in it. Further they described commitment as more active and positive orientation towards the organization. This definition clearly highlights to the aspects of functional desire to continue at work.

Salanik (1977) differentiated commitment as seen by organizational behavioural researchers and social psychologists. Organizational behavioural researchers describe commitment as the process by which employees come to identify with the goals and values of the organization and consequently are desirous of maintaining membership in the organization i.e. attitudinal commitment where as the process by which an individual's past behaviour serves to bind him/her to the organization is called as behavioural commitment by social psychologists (Kiesler, 1971).

Steers (1977) developed a model to describe the antecedents and outcomes of commitment. According to the model there are three
main categories of variables that influence commitment are personal characteristics / attachments (it include the variables such as, need for achievement, work experience, age and education). Work experience the second category of influence describes socializing forces as to have an impact on attachments formed with the organization. This category includes the experience and attitude of the individual and the group towards the organization. The third category viz. job characteristics includes, job challenge, opportunities for social interaction and feedback.

Katz & Kahn (1978) suggested that developing high organizational commitment, maximizing innovative and spontaneous behaviour which implied that organizations need not go beyond attracting and holding people in the system to achieve better efficiency. Commitment is based on internalized motivational patterns where competence is implied being an inevitable aspect of commitment at work or in the organization.

Stevens at al. (1978) have suggested that different conceptions of organizational commitment can be classified into broad categories namely, exchange approaches and psychological approaches. The exchange approach views commitment as an outcome of inducement / contribution transactions between the organizational and the member, with an implicit emphasis on the instrumentality of membership as
primary determinant of members, accrual of advantage or disadvantage in the on-going process of exchange. In this approach, Stevens and associates said that the greater the favourability of the exchange from the member perspective, the greater will be his / her commitment to the organization. It contrast to the exchange-based conception of commitment, the psychological approaches which is originally conceived by Porter et al. (1976) describe commitment as a more active and positive orientation towards the organization. Here, Porter et al. (1976) contention clearly indicates that the person willingly keeps committed himself to the organization's goal and subsequently becomes difficult for such person to leave the organization.

As an attitude, organizational commitment is most often defined as (1) a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organization; (2) a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization; (3) a definite belief in, and acceptance of, the values and goals of the organization (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). In other words, this is an attitude reflecting employees' loyalty to their organization and is an ongoing process through which organizational participants express their concern for the organization and its continued success and well-being. These three factors refer to behavioural dimension to evaluate employees' strength of attachment (Welsch & La Van, 1981; Morrow, 1983).
Organizational commitment is concerned with psychological attachments to the organization that keeps the employees to have difficulty in isolating themselves from the organization. The three facets of organizational commitment that force attachment have been identified as goals and values agreement, behavioural investment in the organizational desire to retain organizational membership (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). They claim that there are many instances where organization needs individual members, specially, those in critical position, to perform above and beyond the call of duty for the benefit of the organization. The motivational basis for such extra-role behaviour is likely to require more than simple compliance. They suggested that the antecedents of company commitment might group into four major categories: personal characteristics, role-related variables, work experience and structural characteristics. Each of these factors is assumed to have a bearing on the subjective utility of organizational membership, which directly affects level of commitment. That the

Rechiers (1985) viewed organizational commitment as a process of identification with the goals of organizations multiple constituencies and these constituencies include from top management to the public at large. This approach represents the commitment in the organization to the concept of goals and values as the foci for multiple commitments. The relative complexity of this approach as compared to previous
global concepts of commitment may more realistically reflect the nature of employee's organizational attachment as individuals actually experience them.

O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) contends to the fact that an employee's psychological attachment to an organization can reflect varying combinations of the three psychological foundations like compliance that occurs when attitudes and behaviours are adopted not because of shared beliefs but simply to gain specific rewards whereas, identification occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship, that is, an individual may feel proud to be a part of a group respecting its values and accomplishments without adopting them as his / her own. And thirdly, internalization occurs when influence is accepted because of the induced attitudes and behaviour that are congruent with one's own values, that is the value of the group or organization are same. The impact of O'Reilly's classification system has been found weakened as they failed in distinguishing between identification [e.g., Caldwell et al. (1990), O'Reilly et. al. (1991), and Vandenberg et al. (1994)]. Caldwell et al. (1990), O'Reilly et al. (1991) in most recent research combined the identification and internalization items to form a measure of what they called normative commitment.
Mottaj (1988) in his study defined organizational commitment as an effective response (attitude) resulting from an evaluation of work situation which links or attaches the individual to the organization. Romzek (1989) asserts Employee commitment as a sense of attachment to the work organization. Further Sharma & Singh (1991) enumeration that organizational commitment is the product of two independent sets of factor viz. personal and organizational, which simultaneously operate in every organization.

The organizational commitment attitude is deter mind by a number of personal (age) tenure in the organization, and dispositions such as positive or negative affectivity, or internal or external control attributions) and organizational (the job design, values and the leadership style of ones, supervisor) variables (Luthans, Baach & Taylor, 1987; Finegan, 2000). Even non-organizational factors, such as the availability of alternatives after making the initial choice to join an organization, will affect subsequent commitment (North craft & Neale, 1990)

Because of this multidimensional nature of organizational commitment, Meyer & Allen (1991) proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment. These dimensions are as affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.
1-Affective commitment involves the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.

2-Continuance commitment involves commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization. This may be because of the loss of seniority for promotion or benefits. It means if an employee perceives that he/she has to pay more cost then it is most likely that they will remain attached to the organization but on the other hand if they believe that leaving the organization and joining the other will be beneficial then such condition become instrumental in discontinuing their affiliation to organization.

3-Normative commitment involves employees' feeling of obligation to stay with the organizational because they should; it is the right thing to do.

There is considerable research support for this three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1996; Hackett, Bycio & Hausdoft, 1994; Somers, 1995). It also generally holds up across cultures (Ko, Price & Mueller, 1997; Sulimand & Iles, 2000).

Hunt & Morgan (1994) suggested that commitment to specific constituencies might be better viewed as exerting their influence on the influence on the outcome variables indirectly through their
influence on overall commitment to the organization, that is, commitment to each constituency contributed to employee's over-all commitment to the organizational which in-turn influences on various outcome measures. In a very interesting study when Becker & Billings (1993) used another statistical analysis viz. cluster analysis to identify commitment to the various constituencies within the organization, they found four dominant profiles: (1) The locally committed (who are attached to their super-visor and work group), (2) The globally committed (who are attached to management and the organization), (3) Committed (who are attached to both local and global foci), and (4) The uncommitted (who are attached to neither local nor global foci).

Kim & Mauborgne (1993) found that those with strong affective commitment to the organization reported higher levels of compliance with strategic decisions made at the corporate level than did those with weaker commitment. Significant positive relations have also been reported between employees' affective commitment and potentiality for promotion as assessed by employees respective supervisors (Meyer et al; 1989) as well as their over all performance on the job (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Meyer et al, 1989.). Like those with strong affective commitment, employees with strong continuance commitment are more likely to stay with organization than are those with weak commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996).
Workers personality, personal needs and values have been reported associated with commitment (Hulin & Blood, 1968; Goodale, 1973; Buchanan, 1974; Dubin et al, 1975; Robinowitz & Hall, 1977; Steers & Spencer, 1977; Kidron, 1978). Education is inversely and negatively related (Steers, 1977; Koch & Steers, 1976; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Sharma & Singh, 1991; Sommer et al; 1996; Leong et al; 1996). Work rewards found to be the key determinates of commitment (Steers, 1977; Mowday et al; 1982; Angle, 1983) justice and fairness in organization is also positively related to commitment (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Koys, 1991; Folger & Konovsky, 1989).

While surveying the concept of commitment, it is noticed that commitment is multidimensional construct and this term has been defined in many situations due to the flexibility given for the use of the term. Commitment is a general term which in work context refers to either organizational commitment or to work commitment where earlier concept is generally broad in meaning and the later refers to specific commitment which Known as work commitment, though, these two are generally interchangeably used. Most of the time researches talk about organizational commitment. Marrow (1983) & Mc Elory (1993) suggested that organizational commitment is the most maturely developed aspect of work commitment family of constructs. In spite of such controversies, it is imperative to point out here that in this large investigation work commitment is used which in itself bears the nation...
of organizational commitment as these two terms are so interdependent where one can not be explained over-looking the other. Hence, in this investigation work commitment combines the notion of organizational commitment.

Having given the description of the nature, concept and relevance of the phenomenon of organizational commitment, it is imperative to point out at this juncture that commitment is one of the intensity with which motivation at organization take place and subsequently one feel satisfied with organization.

Moreover organizational commitment is found conducive at work and has very positive influence on work related outcomes.

REVIEW OF RESEARCHES IN THE AREA OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment has always been important but in the present scenario of hi-tech word, it has become of much concern for management and employers. Because of such reasons, the last decade of 1990s has witnessed increasing importance over organizational commitment aspect; hence, a large number of studies were conducted. Organizational commitment is one of the organizational related behavioural phenomena, which has its positive impact on
organizational productivity and effectiveness at large. The available studies since 1990s follows:

Luthans et al. in 1992 conducted a study to evaluate the importance of social support for employee's commitment and they found strong positive correlation between strong supportive climate and bank tellers' organizational commitment.

Cannings (1992) conducted a study to analyze the extent to which corporate employees are merely attached to their firm rather than committed. A model of managerial loyalty was developed where loyalty were describe as a function of percentage pay increase that a employees would require to leave the correct firm for alternative employment. This model got strong support during a stable environment and not found strong support in case of turbulent environment (i.e. during privatization and deregulation).

Cohen (1992) examined whether the relationships between organizational commitment and its antecedents differed across occupational groups. The member model focused on personal variables, while the organizational model focused on role related structural and work experience variables. The study was based on the sample group of N=98. The total sample was divided into two main occupational groups: white-collar employees who where again subdivided into professionals and non-professional, and blue-collar
employees. In general, the relationship between organizational commitment and personal antecedents, representing the member model was stronger for blue-collar and non-professional white-collar employees then for professional employees. For the organizational model, differences among the occupational groups were less consistent.

Allen & Meyer (1993) examined affective, continuance and normative commitment as a function of age, service tenure, and positional tenure. Also they examined were the contributions across stages of various work experience to the prediction of affective commitment. Study was conducted on library employees and hospital employees and they were more closely related to increase in organizational commitment and positional tenure. Further relationships between work experiences and affective commitment was witnessed to be differed only slightly across tenure levels and not at all across employees' age groups.

Angle & Lawson in (1994) conducted a study to examine the relationship between employee's commitment and performance in a manufacturing firm. Results suggest that the link between organization commitment and performance may depend on the extent to which motivation rather than ability underlines performance. . Findings also
support the distinction between affective and continuance commitment suggested by Meyer and Allen (1991)

Vanderberg & Scarpello (1994) in one of their longitudinal study determined the relationship between employees commitment to the occupational commitment as causal antecedent to organizational commitment. Based on longitudinal data from N= 100 management information system professionals. This view was supported through cross-lagged analysis. Further, the authors examined a longitudinal causal model of the turnover process in which occupational commitment was placed as an antecedent to organizational commitment.

Akhtar & Tan (1994) assessed and conceptualized the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment by administering the organizational commitment questionnaire on 256 retail bank employees. Factor analysis yielded three dimensions proposed by porter et al. one dimension i.e., desires to maintain organizational membership overlaps the withdrawal construct. Consistent with the 3-dimensional attitude theory, organizational commitment was reconceptualized in terms of cognitive, emotive, and conative meanings. Proposed dimensions include normative commitment (amount of cognitive consonance with organizational norms), affective commitment (intensity of emotional attachment to the organizational),
and volitive commitment (extent of conative orientation towards organizational goals).

Zeffane (1994) examined organizational commitment and perceived management style (MS) using survey responses from 474 public and 944 private sector employees in Australia. Attachment to organization, flexibility and adoption work discontinuity change, tenure, and number of employees were also assessed. Private employees had higher organizational commitment and scored higher on flexibility and adoption than public sector subjects. Tenure and supervision also had some effect on organizational commitment but more so in terms of feelings of attachment to the organization (for tenure) and in terms of feelings of loyalty /citizenship (for supervision). Variations in MS were found to have a significant effect on employee's commitment but more so in terms of the degree of emphasis on flexibility and adoption that perceived. Organization size had a moderate negative effect on organizational commitment, especially, in the private sector.

Wilson (1995) investigated the effects of power and politics on organizational commitment. Two theoretical explorations for organizational commitment were developed which incorporates 5 independent variables (1) a power-based theory of commitment (including sub-unit power, leadership power and leadership behavior variables) and (2) theory of politics (including "arbitrary personnel
practices" and the "political control" variables). The theories were tested on a group of 942 senior executive service managers in the federal government who completed a commitment scale, which measured strength of loyalty, involvement, and identification with their sub-units. Results provide empirical support for the effects of team power, good leader member relations, and political control on the commitment levels of top executives in the federal government.

McCaul, Hinz, & McCaul (1995) studied the proposition that organizational commitment could be measured as a global attitude towards an organizational. 174 employees from three organizations completed the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) and measures of (1) global attitude towards the organization, (2) willingness to work hard for the organization, (3) intention to leave the organization, and (4) degree of the goals and values of the company management, co-workers, and supervisors. Subjects completed the questionnaire twice over a period of six months. The attitudinal measure correlated strongly with the OCQ. Measures of efforts, value acceptance, and intentions to stay with the organization predicted little additional variance, in the OCQ. Results support the proposition.

Sharma & Pandey (1995) tested the hypothesis that the quality of work life (QWL) perception will show significant relationship with the organizational commitment of managers in India. Two hundred young
managers (age between 25 - 27 years) were selected from five levels of the managerial hierarchy. Results reveal that perceptions of QWL were significantly and positively related to organizational commitment. Moreover, QWL work involvement, organizational effectiveness, and pursuit of individual and organizational goals were found to be significant predictors of organizational commitment of managers.

Shore et al. (1995) on the basis of their study advocated that organizational citizenship behaviour positively predicted manager-rated affective commitment, whereas Continuance commitment was found negatively related to a variety of outcomes including managerial potential and promotability.

Mishra, Mishra, & Patnayak (1995) in their efforts, studied 80 employees of a public sector industrial organization. Results indicated that experience of commitment was satisfactory and often high among employees. No difference existed between the technical and non-technical subjects and moreover, technical education had not influenced experiencing commitment or a resistance towards accepting the work environment.

Sommer, Bae & Luthans (1996) analyzed whether demographic and situational factors identified in US-based literature had the same influence on the commitment of 1192 employees of 27 large Korean firms. Consistent with US studies, the Korean employees' position in
the hierarchy, tenure in their current position and age were all significantly related to organizational commitment. Total tenure and education were not found related to commitment. All the situational antecedents, except management style were significantly related. It is interestingly observed from the study that with the increase of organizational size, commitment decreased whereas, the structure became more employees-oriented, the commitment witnessed to be increased; and the more positive perception towards organizational climate, the more the commitment. This study provides beginning evidence and suggested that the theoretical constructs predicting the organizational commitment of employees may have cross-cultural validity.

Brown (1996) studied popular concepts and types of organizational commitment in the light of the definition of commitment and common factors that pertain to all type commitments. Commitment is best conceptualized as a single fundamental construct that may vary according to differences in focus, terms, and time-specific evaluation. The commitment development process not only affects focus and terms of commitment, but also has strong implications for the evaluation process. Analysis of affective commitment measures indicates that certain measures contain more than one constraint to the basic meaning of commitment.
Aminabhvi & Dharanendriah (1997) determined factors that contribute significantly to the job involvement of professionals. A sample of 100 professional men (doctors, engineers, lawyers and teachers), in age group of 30-60 years completed the job Involvement Scale (T.M. Lodahl & M. Kejner, 1965), and a personal datasheet. Results reveal that selection of occupation, expressed job satisfaction, and socio-cultural background collectively and individually contributed significantly to the variance in job involvement of professionals. The authors concluded that professionals who choose their occupation, who had higher expressed job satisfaction, and who came from upper middle stratum of socio-cultural background experienced higher job involvement than their counterparts who had entered their occupation by chance.

Daftuar & Anjali (1997) explored the levels of three organizational commitment, and job involvement among the sattva, rajas and tamas personality types. A sample of 50 managers in the lower and middle levels (between 23-51 years of age) drawn from a heavy electrical manufacturing company in Western India was administered Daftuar's Organizational Effectiveness Scale, Srivastava & Singh's Occupational Stress Index and Ranu Sharma's SRT questionnaire. Results reveal significant negative and positive correlations between job involvements and several areas of
occupational and organizational commitment and sattva type of personality types.

Vashishtha & Mishra (1998) evaluated the potential moderator effect of social support on the relationship between occupational stress and organizational commitment in a sample of 200 supervisors (mean age: 42 years) of a factory manufacturing autos. Ss were administered the General Population Form of Interpersonal Support Evaluation List (Cohen, Mermelstein, Kamarch, & Hoberman, 1985), the Occupational Stress Index (Srivastava & Singh, 1981), and the organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Moderated regression analysis revealed that social support had a moderating effect on the relationship between occupational stress and organizational commitment.

Jha & Verma (1998) investigated organizational commitment (OC) as a function of employee's morale (EM), ambiguity tolerance (AT), and job status (JS). A group of 200 executives of the Bhilai Steel Plant was selected out of which 96 executives working either as junior managers or as managers/higher position were retained for the final sample. Subjects were administered the Employee's Morale Scale (Pestonjee, 1981, 1985), the IA Scale (Hussain, 1981,1985), and the organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter et al., 1974). A 2 (high vs low EM) x 2 (high vs low AT) x 2 (high vs low JS) analyses of
variance revealed significant main effects of EM, AT, and JS. None of the interactions were found to be significant. Employees having high morale, high ambiguity tolerance, and at higher position expressed greater organizational commitment.

Ahmad & Ansari (1998) explored organizational commitment among 50 years mills owners and 100 blue-collar employees' of various flourmills of Darbhanga. Subjects completed the Organizational commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979), and the Biographical Information Blank. Though both owners and blue-collar workers were favourably inclined towards organizational commitment, they differed significantly from each other. Blue-collar workers expressed a comparatively higher degree of organizational commitment.

Patel (1998) investigated the relationship between perceived organizational health and organizational commitment. One hundred employees from a private sector manufacturing organizational located in Rajkot were administered Mile's Organizational Health Scale, Mowday’s Organizational Commitment Scale and a Personal Data Sheet. The results revealed significant and positive correlation between overall organizational health and organizational commitment. Further skilled staffs perceived more favourably the overall health of their organization and were also more committed to the organization
than the workers. In case of skilled staff high organizational health perceivers were found to have better perceived organizational commitment than low organizational health perceivers.

Ahmad & Ansari (1999) examined and compares the organizational commitment among flourmill workers and flourmill owners. The sample comprised 50 flourmill owners and hundred blue-collar workers. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowdey et al., 1979) was administered to assess organizational commitment and the Biographical Information Blank was used to obtain information on age, income, job tenure, turnover, etc. Results indicate that owners and blue-collar workers differed significantly in their degree of organizational commitment. Blue-collar workers expressed a comparatively higher degree of organizational commitment than the owners. Although the owners expressed a moderate level of organizational commitment, they were affected by factors like lack of organizational resources and lack of proper guidance and cooperation from the local authorities and state governments. There is a need to pay greater attention to the overall development of small-scale industries.

Mishra & Shrivastava (1999) examined the moderating effect of mental health on organizational commitment and job satisfaction relationship. A sample 250 male doctors (age 42-50 years) from a
government medical college was administered the Mental Health Inventory (Jagdish & Shrivastava, 1983), the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1984), and the SD Employee’s Inventory (Pestonjee, 1973). Moderated multiple regression analysis and subgroup analysis were applied. Results indicated the moderating effect of mental health on organizational commitment and job satisfaction relationship.

Vashishta & Mishra (1999) studied the relationship between social support and organizational commitment. A sample of 200 supervisors (age 40-45 years) employed in Scooters India Ltd, Lucknow was administered the general population form of the International Support Evaluation List (ISEL) (Cohen, Maramelsteen, Kamarch, & Hoberman, 1985) and the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Correlation analyses revealed a positive and significant relationship between social support and organizational commitment of supervisors.

Vashishta & Mishra (1999) explored the moderator effect of tangible support on the occupational stress and organizational commitment relationship. An incidental sample of 200 supervisors (age 40-45 years) with a diploma/degree in electrical or mechanical engineering working in a factory manufacturing scooters was administered the general population form of the International Support
Evaluation List (ISEL) (Cohen, Mermelstein, Kamarch, & Hoberman, 1985) the Occupational Stress Index (Srivastava & Singh, 1981) and the organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Results revealed a partially moderating effect of tangible support on the occupational stress and organizational commitment relationship.

Mishra and Srivastava (1999) investigated the moderating effect of mental health on the organizational commitment- job satisfaction relationship. The Mental Health Inventory, the Organizational commitment Scale and S.D. Employee's Inventory were administered to a sample of 250 physicians employed in a government Medical Collage in Lucknow. The moderated multiple regression analysis and subgroup analysis shows that mental health has moderating effect on organizational commitment and job-satisfaction relationship.

Vashishta and Mishra (1999) attempted to explore the moderator effect of tangible support on the occupational stress-organizational commitment relationship. The General Population from of Interpersonal Support Evaluation List (ISEL, Cohen, Mermelstein, Kamark and Hoberman, 1985) the occupational Stress Index (Srivastava and Singh, 1981) and organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer and Allen, 1984) were administered to a sample of 200 supervisors in a factory making auto scooters. Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis and Subgroup analysis confirm that tangible
support has a partially moderating effect on the occupational stress and organizational commitment relationship.

Pattanayak (2000) investigated the effects of shift work and hierarchical position in the organizational on job satisfaction and perceived organizational commitment of 360 employees of the Rourkala steel plant. The tools used were Minnesota Job Satisfaction Wueastionnaire (Wessis, Dawiss, England, & Lofquist, 1967), the Perceived Organizational Commitment Scale (Sayeed, 1989), facets of MO's interactions with the various machines and the resultant stress. Machine product stress was significantly correlated with mental health. These results have been discussed in terms of work ethics and esthetics.

Vashishtha & Mishra (2000) examined the moderating effect of appraisal support on the relationship between occupational stress and organizational commitment. The incidental sample of 200 supervisors (age 40-50 years) selected from a large scooter manufacturing factory was administered the General Population From of Interpersonal Support Evaluation List (Cohen, Mermelstein, Kamarch, & Hoberman, 1985), the Occupational Stress Index (Srivastva & Singh, 1981), and the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Moderated multiple regression analysis and subgroup analysis revealed
partially moderating effects of appraisal support on the occupational stress and organizational commitment relationship.

Rai & Sinha (2000) explored the relationship between factor analytically derived dimensions of transformational leadership and dimensions of organizational commitment, and the moderating effect of organizational climate on the basis of responses obtained from 261 middle level male executives of banks. To assess transformational leadership, Ss gave ratings of their immediate superiors. Self-ratings were obtained on climate and commitment measures. Multiple regressions revealed that the superior's transformational leadership style had a significant relationship with commitment. Also, facilitating climate enhanced the strength of association of leadership with commitment. Some of the dimensions of superiors' leadership and commitment were significantly correlated with aspects of Ss' financial performance.

Rai & Sinha (2000) examined the relationship between dimensions of transformational leadership and organizational commitment. The sample consisted of 261 male middle managerial level officers from five public sector banks. Transformational leadership was assessed by a measure developed by Singh and Bhandarkar (1990) and the tool for organizational commitment was developed by Buchanan (1974). A facilitating climate and a social
facilitation questionnaire (Sinha & Srivastava, 1993) were used to assess the organizational climate. In addition, the number of personal loan sales and recoveries of loan sales upon maturity were used as measures of financial performance. Scores on all the measures were factor analyzed and it was observed that superiors' transformational leadership had a meaningful relationship with the commitment of employees. This relationship was moderated by facilitating climate of the workplace. Capable and participative leadership was the most important dimension out of the eight dimensions of transformational leadership in significantly predicting organizational commitment. The concept of transformational leadership had relevance across cultures. Some of the transformational leadership dimensions showed greater promise for increased financial outcomes.

Ahmad (2000) assessed organizational commitment in relation to organizational change among blue-collar and white-collar employees. The sample consisted of 150 employees of saree manufacturing companies with an equal number of blue-collar and white-collar employees (age 18 to 52 years). The Organizational Change Scale (Rahman & Akhtar, 1991), the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) and the biographical information blank (BIB) were administered individually to all Ss. Results indicated that organizational commitment was not significantly correlated with organizational change in both groups of employees. Blue-collar and
white-collar employees differed significantly in their perception of organizational change as well as in the extent of organizational commitment although both groups were favourably inclined towards organizational change. A unique work culture and positive work ethics were observed in the saree weaving communities and those who were associated with saree manufacturing companies in Mau district.

Ahmad (2000) also investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational change among 75 blue and 75 white-collar Indian employees (age 18-52 years) of saree manufacturing companies in the Mau district of Uttar Pradesh. Demographic data were collected; Ss were administered the Organizational Change Scale (I. Rahman & S.S. Akhtar, 1991), and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (R.T. Mowday et al., 1979). Results reveal that organizational commitment was not a function of organizational change. Though both groups expressed high levels of acceptance of organizational change, white-collar subjects tended to exhibit a higher degree of organizational commitment.

Kaur & Singh (2000) examined the relationship between self-actualization, work values, work environment, and organizational commitment. The Organizational Commitment Scale (Porter et al., 1974), the personal Organizational Inventory (Schostrom, 1966), the Survey of Work Values (Wollack et al., 1971), and the Organizational
Climate Scale (Chattopadhyay & Agrawal, 1976) were administered to 100 non-teaching university employees (age 21-59 years). Commitment of groups high and low on commitment, formed on the basis of median split of scores on organizational commitment, revealed significant differences on self-actualization, self-regard, time competence, social status, activity preference, pride in work, and job involvement. Factor analyses revealed with self-actualization, self-regard, and aggression, and negatively associated with time competence and inner directedness. Works values such as social status, activity preference, upward striving, and pride in work were positively associated with organizational climate.

Bhargava & Kelkar (2000) examined the relationship between organizational structure, and human resource development (HRD). The sample comprised 33 managers, 22 officers and 28 supporting staff of a soap manufacturing organization in the age group of 24 to 53 years. Organizational structure was evaluated by a 9-item scale (Hage & Aikes, 1967). Corporate culture was assessed by a scale developed by Parida, Mathur and Khurana (1990) consisting of subscales of different dimensions. A 10-item scale (Agrawal, 1981), a 34-item scale (Taylor & Bowers, 1974) were used for the assessment of job involvement, empowerment, and job satisfaction respectively. A positive relationship was observed between empowerment and salary promotion, and job satisfaction. Empowerment and corporate culture were also positively
related. Measures of HRD were capable of being predicted by the corporate culture, adaptability, and empowerment indicated the importance of decentralization. Findings were interpreted and major implications discussed.

Mishra & Shrivastava (2001) attempted to find out the moderating effect of the job stress on the organization commitment and job satisfaction relationship. The Occupational Stress Index developed and standardized by Shrivastava & Singh (1981), the Organizational Commitment Scale developed and standardized by Meyer and Allen (1984) and S.D. Employees Inventory developed and standardized by Pestojee (1973) administered on a sample of 250 doctors employed in King George's Medical College Lucknow (U.P.). The moderated multiple regression analysis and job stress has moderating effect on organizational commitment and job satisfaction relationship.

Khan & Mishra (2002) estimated the canonical correlation between need satisfaction and organizational commitment. A sample of 150-rail engine drivers (age 26-59 years) was administered the Indian adaptation of Porter's Need Satisfaction Scale (Khan & Mishra 2001) and the Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1993). The Need Satisfaction Scale measure five needs—compensation, social / common, autonomy / egoism, esteem, and self-accomplishment. The Organizational Commitment Scale measures three dimensions of
organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Needs of social attachment and esteem were significantly correlated with affective and normative commitment. The canonical correlation between the five needs and three dimensions of organizational commitment was significant.

Aryee, Budhwar & Chen Zhen (2002) reported a study to test a social exchange model of employees work attitudes and behaviours. Data were obtained from full-time employees (males and females) of a public sector organization in India. LISREL results indicated that the three organizational justice dimensions (distributive, procedural, and interactional) were related to trust in organization and only interactional justice was related to trust in supervisor. The findings also indicated that relative to the hypothesized fully mediated model a partially mediated model better fitted the data. Trust in organization fully mediated the relationship between interactional justice and related work attitude but partially mediated the relationship between distributive and procedural justice and the work attitude of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and organizational commitment.

Sinha, Talwar & Rajpal (2002) investigated the relationship between organizational commitment, and perceived psychological barriers to technological change. The sample consisted of 167 male managers. It was found that organizational commitment was positively
related to age, length of service in present cadre and self-efficiency; it was negatively related to psychological barriers to technological change. Psychological barriers to technological change were positively related to age, length of service in present cadre and negatively related to self-efficiency. There was a negative correlation between self-efficiency and age as well as between self-efficiency and length of service in present cadre. Multiple regression analysis was done to examine the relative contribution of the different variables.

Mishra & Mishra (2005) explored the relationship between achievement motivation and organizational commitment of supervisory level officers of one of the fastest growing Govt. Department, the telecom department. The sample consisted of 100 supervisory level telecom officers of U.P. East Zone. The correlational analysis revealed a positive relationship between the achievement motivation and organizational commitment.

**Employees Motivation**

According to one definition (Steers & Porter, 1975), motivation is a force that serves three functions: It energizes, or causes people to act; it directs behavior toward the attainment of specific goals; and it sustains the effort expended in reaching those goals.
Since motivation cannot be observed directly, it is very difficult to study. We can only infer motives either by observing goal directed behaviour by using some psychological measurement techniques. Throughout its history, Industrial/Organizational Psychology has offered many theories of work motivation. According to Frederick Taylor, workers are motivated by money and material gains, whereas Elton Mayo stressed the role that interpersonal needs play in motivating workers. Since these early days, more sophisticated theories of motivation have been developed. Some stress the importance of specific needs in determining motivation, and others focus on the role of job design. Still another category of theories argues that motivation is a rational process and that workers cognitively weigh the advantages and disadvantages of expending work energy.

Theories of Motivation

Although several theories of motivation e.g. Maslow's Need Hierarchy theory, Alderfer's ERG theory, Mc Clelland Achievement theory and Herzberg's Job Design theory were propounded by eminent theorists but I will examine here only the last theory because it is more relevant and pertinent to my research.
Job Design Theory of Motivation

There are two job design theories, Herzberg's two-factor theory and the job characteristics model, stress the structure and design of jobs as key factors in motivating workers. They argue that if jobs are well designed, containing all elements that workers require from their jobs to satisfy physical and psychological needs, employees will be motivated.

Job design theories of motivation stress the structure and design of jobs as key factor in motivating workers. Herzberg's two-factor theory focuses on job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as two independent dimensions important in determining motivation: Motivators are factors related to job content that, when present, lead to job satisfaction. Hygienes are elements related to job context that, when absent, cause job dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, hygienes will prevent job dissatisfaction, but motivators are needed for employees' job satisfaction and hence motivation. His theory has led to the development of a strategy for increasing work motivation known as job enrichment, which involves redesigning jobs to give workers greater responsibility in the planning, execution and evaluation of their work. Hackman and Oldman have proposed the job characteristics model, another job design theory of motivation, which stated that five core job characteristics influence three critical psychological states
that in turn lead to motivation. This model can be affected by certain moderators, including growth need strength, the notion that certain workers need to grow on their jobs. Workers must be high in growth need strength if programs such as job enrichment are indeed going to produce motivation.

The lack of understanding of motivation is the result of difficulties in definition and the sheer complexity of the phenomenon. The term motivation is used to refer to so many different aspects of behaviour that its meaning is far from clear. Man, in common with other living organisms, has needs and desires that impel him toward certain goals or ends (Stratton & Aleen, 1952). His behaviour is therefore purposive in the sense that it is directed, and hence is organized in reference to particular ends (Tolman, 1932). Motivation might be thought of as the process by which a need or desire is aroused, and a motive through of as a particular need or desire.

Some writers, however, find it more satisfactory to think of motives as psychic forces within the individual. Presumably these forces initiate and direct behaviour. By some these forces are considered to be wholly innate in the individual and by others to be both innate and acquired. Motivation has been conceptualized in a variety of other ways (Krech & Crutchfield, 1948). Since concepts with respect to motivation are not well formulated, it is impossible at the
present time to provide a rigorous definition of the problem. The best that can be said is that motivation concerns the dynamic processes producing goal-oriented behaviour.

The second factor that makes motivation difficult to understand is its sheer complexity. A man quits his job stating that the pay is insufficient. It might therefore be said that his motivation is economic gain. However, on further investigation it turns out he wants more money so that he can refurbish his home. It seems, then, that his motive is to achieve more gracious family living.

The original problem is lost sight of in the very complexity of the situation. Rather, as Krech & Crutchfield (1948) have suggested the best that can be done is to seek the determinants of behaviour in terms of the external environment of the individual, his internal psychological status, and his part experiences. Even seeking an adequate and complete description of these three conditions is difficult and complex. Hence it will be necessary to be satisfied with considerably less than a complete description of the motivation determinants of behaviour.

It has only been in the last ten or fifteen years that industry has given any significant recognition to worker as human beings. While it would be stretching the truth too far to say that in the past the worker has been regarded as a mere machine, it is nonetheless true that behaviour was thought of as being determined in a simple mechanical
fashion. A given set of circumstances was expected invariably to produce the same kind of reaction. If intensity of illumination were increased 10 percent, production was expected to show a comparable increase. Sometimes, however, production was found to drop while on other occasions it was found to rise in a striking fashion. This "pervers" character of human behaviour was given some cognizance, but it was regarded more in the nature of "error" rather than being lawfully determined.

In more recent times, the "human" aspects of the worker have been subject to much closer. As a consequence there has been increased understanding of the dynamic factors underlying behaviour, and an increased appreciation of the importance of feelings, attitudes, and motivation.

The worker is no longer regarded as a compartmentalized creature the man at home being completely unrelated to the man at work. He is seen as a whole person whose feelings, attitudes, and motivations interact in complex ways with his capacities and with the physical and social environments in which he finds himself.

As a result of this recognition considerable progress has been made toward better understanding of the factors that determine human behaviour and better ways have been developed for dealing with the individual so that he can become not only more productive but also
better adjusted occupationally. Business, industrial, and governmental organizations are showing great concern for what is called "human relations".

There are three types of methods for studying motivation: those which infer motivation from behaviour, those which involve direct reports from the individual concerning his motivations and those which utilize the so-called "projective" techniques (Krech & Crutchfield, 1948). None of these methods is entirely satisfactory but all in one way or another, serve to furnish some information concerning motivation of employees. For each method there are many types of specific techniques and modifications.

**Factor in the development of employees' motivations:**

**Factors in the working situation**

The attitudes and feelings that employees develop on their jobs enter into the determination of their motivations. If management appears fair and working conditions good than one pattern of motivations will emerge. If pay schedules are good but quality of supervision is poor, then another pattern will result. In any event, since motivation is to some degree a function of the individual's experiences, those experiences which are job-connected may be expected to play an important part.
Factors outside of the working situation

If the employee's attitudes and feelings growing out of the working situation affect his behaviour on the job, it is not unreasonable to suppose that attitudes and feelings developed in his home life and other off-the-job activities would also have important effects.

But the present study aims to explore the relationship between job involvement and employees motivation, therefore it is necessary to examine the literature related to employee motivation for the functioning of the public sector enterprises and private sector employees. Meaning and reviews of literature in relation to employee's motivation is given in following paragraphs.

Need for Personal Achievement (nPA)

Need for personal achievement or personal achievement motivation indicates desire for competing for personal success in relation to certain standards of excellence. This is reflected in desire for personal carrier development, desire for improvement in one's own life, desire for better education and better prospects for children, and desire for improving one's own work performance. In each situation there is personal achievement goal. In the context of an organization, it could be reflected in the concern for carrier advancement as well as concern for improving one's own performance. Conceptually, it is
similar to need for achievement with somewhat different sub
categories.

Researches have identified middle class white collar employees
as showing higher achievement motivation than workers and others low
in social status (Rosen & D' Andre 1959; Veroff at al., 1960). Several
studies have indicted that, in developing countries, respondents from
low social classes show higher achievement motivation than
respondents belonging to high classes. Similarly socio-economically
and culturally disadvantaged respondents show high achievement
motivation (Mehta, 1969; Gokulnathan & Mehta, 1971; Mehta & Mohta,
1974).

**Need for Social Achievement (nSA)**

Need for social achievement or motivation for social achievement
is indicated by desire for some kind of collective success in relation to
some standards of excellence. It is indicated by desire for raising
overall productivity and production, desire for national prosperity,
desire for better life for the community, and desire for safety. These
desire reflect some kind of super ordinate achievement goals. In the
context for better group performance and desire for overall human
resource and production development. The difference between
motivation for personal achievement and motivation for social
achievement essentially lies in the nature of achievement goals. This
is similar to the concept of group achievement motivation (Forward, 1969; Zander, 1971).

Mehta (1977) found that the workers representatives showed a significantly greater mean score for social achievement than the managerial employees. Mehta (1976 b) clearly showed that the workers tended to think more about production, general safety, eradication of poverty, national prosperity and well being than the managerial employees.

**Desire for Influence (Inf)**

This is indicated in Desire for influencing other people and the surrounding environment may be at work in family and elsewhere. In the context of an organization it may be reflected in desire to be “important”, to have better status and power, desire to influence subordinates and / or superiors, desire to take in-initiative than to be a passive recipient of others instructions. Conceptually, this is more similar to Ulleman’s need for influence (1972) and less similar to need for power (Winter, 1973).

Mehta (1977) concluded that the managerial employees probably made good their low need for social achievement by showing much greater desire for influence than the workers representatives.
Need for Personal - Social Achievement (nPAS-SA)

This is indicated by the combined concern for personal as well as social achievement. In the context of an organization, it is indicated by desire for one's own personal achievement as well as advancement of others and the organization.

Mehta (1977) explored that when the two needs for achievement were combined, the worker's representatives emerged as the winners. They definitely showed greater combined achievement motivation than the managerial employees. The workers showed greater concern for good production and standard of excellence in their personal as well as social / group performance. This is interesting in view of other research findings on achievement motivation.

Influence Oriented Personal Achievement (nPAS-Inf)

Personal achievement is combined with desire for influence. It is, therefore, indicated by desire for personal advancement or personal improvement, or desire for some kind of standards of excellence in one's own performance and, at the same time, desire to influence others and the environment.

Mehta (1977) found that the managerial employees showed significantly greater influence oriented personal achievement motivation than the workers.
Influence Oriented Social Achievement (nSA-Inf)

Social achievement is combined with desire for influence. Persons with such motivation desire for some kind of social achievement; they also want to influence others and the environment.

Mehta (1977) found that the workers representatives showed significantly greater social achievement motivation backed by desire for influence. They showed much lower desire for influence by itself, but it was high when combined with need for social achievement.

Influence Oriented Social-Personal Achievement (Nsa-PA-Inf)

Motivation for achievement (both personal and social) is combined with desire for influence. In this case, persons have desire for personal achievement, social achievement, and influence.

Mehta (1977) concluded that the workers showed significantly greater combined concern that the managerial employees. It was more or less similar to the finding with regard to influence oriented achievement motivation. It is interesting however, to find the workers showing definitely greater concern for accomplishment, performance, and achievement related standards of excellence as well as desire for influence, presumably for achieving such goals, than the managerial employees.
**Review of researches in the area of employees motivation**

Numerous studies have been made of employee's motivation. These studies have employed various methods and have been aimed at different objectives. Their multiplicity makes it difficult to organize the findings into a coherent whole. For purposes of presentation typical studies will be considered under this heading.

Richards (1930), in his study found several topics of interest to the employee:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absence</th>
<th>Lighting</th>
<th>Social contacts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>Lockers</td>
<td>Steady work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aisles</td>
<td>Material</td>
<td>Temperature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Club for employees</td>
<td>Monotony</td>
<td>Thrift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dirt</td>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>Tools and machines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatigue</td>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>Transportation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floor</td>
<td>Placement</td>
<td>Vacation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture and fixtures</td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>Ventilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>Safety and health</td>
<td>Washroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours</td>
<td>Sanitation</td>
<td>Welfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Smoke and fumes</td>
<td>Working space</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kornhauser and Sharp (1932) found that, on a list of worries presented in a questionnaire, most factory workers checked the item "fear of loss of job" and on a list of dislikes most of them checked the item possibility of layoff. The importance of these fears in factory workers has also been confirmed through interviews with workers by Hall & Locke (1951). In addition they found that fear of novelty, ridicule, and disapproval are considered important by workers. The study of employees' fears would seem to be a fruitful source of information concerning the determinants of workers behaviour. Unfortunately most of the interest appears to have been centered around fears based on economic considerations.

Uhrbrock (1934) has suggested that the worker is motivated by three major fears, viz., fear of losing his job, fear of loss of power to earn resulting from sickness or accident and fear of an impoverished old age.

Hersey (1936) presented groups of employees with 14 items relating to the working situation and asked them to check the four most important ones and the four least important ones. The results indicate that steady employment, fair adjustment of grievances, amount of pay, working conditions and safely are important factors to the employee, where as a voice or share in the management, employee stock
subscription, medical and dental care and methods of pay are relatively unimportant.

Strong (1938) determined the aims of workers by noting down their desires mentioned below:

1. **Steady employment**: no discharge without cause, seniority.

2. **Job requirements**: clear instructions, definite allocation of responsibility, freedom to do job in own way, being consulted about changes in job, good equipment and materials.

3. **Working conditions**: protection against accidents and illness, proper heating, lighting, ventilation, sanitation.

4. **Wages**: equitable, higher, sufficient to provide for comfort, proper differential according to skill.

5. **Hours of labor**: shorter vacation.

6. **Escape from fatigue, strain, exhaustion, monotony**

7. **Treatment as an individual**: respect for opinions, voice in control of welfare conditions, individual freedom, freedom to consult and make suggestions, confidence of superiors.

8. **Enjoyment of work**: knowledge of results and larger affairs of business.

9. **Voice and free will in determining work conditions**, sense of responsibility.

10. **Grievances satisfactorily adjusted**
11. Opportunity to rise on merits
12. Decent boss, real leader, fairness not sympathy
13. Approval of fellows and public, prestige
14. Recreational facilities, leisure
15. Savings, ownership of home
16. Insurance against risks of life as in accidents, sickness, old age, death
17. Abundant life, more education for self and children, best existence and happiness for family.

Centers (1948) compiled specific complaints of workers who were dissatisfied with their jobs. The findings presented in Table-1.1 show striking differences between white collar and manual workers.

**Table-1.1 : Major Complaints of Workers Who Were Dissatisfied with Their Jobs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complaints</th>
<th>White Collar Workers</th>
<th>Manual Workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate remuneration</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insecurity</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work to hard</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitions</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little chance for advancement</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor hours of work</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of freedom</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work monotonous</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Almond & Verba, 1963; Blumberg, 1968; Pateman, 1970; Mehta 1976c, concluded on basis of their findings that the feelings of power and control over one's own fate increase when poor people are given roles of influence and responsibility (Gottesfeld & Dozier, 1966).

Druckman (1967) found that their strong ego is likely to be detrimental (Collins & Guetzkow, 1964) to group tasks where sublimation of self is required.

Jurgensen (1967) found that variation in motivation were related to marital status number of dependents, age, education, skill and occupation. While all three groups agree that "benefit" are quit unimportant, type of work is the most important factor for sales and clerical workers whereas for mechanical workers security is the most important factor.

Gruin et. al. (1969) have suggested, fraternal deprivation may lead the individual to perceive the problem in terms of a group instead of an individual and thereby predispose him to group actions.

Gorupic & Paj (1971) found that participation in management would, how ever, become successful only when objective conditions and proper employee motivations exit in the organization.

Winter (1973) and Ulleman (1972) found that the managerial employees showed significantly greater desire for influence than the
workers while the latter showed significantly greater need for social achievement.

Dhingra (1973) found, older managers tend to be more participative than the younger ones, but the letter were more rapidly promoted.

Abeles (1976) found that rapid socioeconomic changes in the conditions made the Negros more and more aware of their deprivations vis-a-vis the Whites.

Mehta (1976c), Mehta & Jain (1977) found that the workers' representatives and the officers provided data on satisfaction with various work related situations. The various need patterns showed varying patterns of relationship with work related satisfaction. Need for personal achievement showed practically no relation with work satisfaction. On the other hand, need for social achievement almost uniformly showed significantly negative correlations, while desire for influence showed uniformly positive correlations. The combined achievement orientation also tended to show negative correlations with work related situations. The combination of influence with personal achievement tended to enhance work satisfaction, while the need pattern formed by the combination of social achievement, personal achievement and influence tended to lower work satisfaction.
Mehta (1977) examined the implications of employee motivation, work satisfaction, and organizational climate for the functioning of the public sector enterprises with particular reference to workers' participation in management. The data on employee motivation in a large public enterprise were collected with the help of a semi-projective instrument consisting of a set of six pictures. The subjects wrote stories in response to each picture, following standard instructions. The stories were analyzed for personal achievement motivation or need for personal achievement (nPA), social achievement motivation or need for social achievement (nSA) and desire for influence (Inf) as well as for the combination of these three motivations. Each of the six stories was examined for each of the seven types of motivation, resulting in seven total scores for each individual. Details of the scoring system and certain conceptual issues are discussed elsewhere (Mehta, 1976a).

Mehta & Rao (1977) concluded that with high desire for influence showed a significantly positive correlation. Such persons also showed positive correlation with sense of political powerlessness as well as with social and moral dogmatism. Interestingly, need for social achievement as well as need for personal achievement tended to lower the sense of political powerlessness.
Mehta (1977) found that individuals with high desire for influence in the organization and satisfied with work situations showed clear authoritarian tendency in their personality, while persons with high need for social achievement and less satisfied with work situation tended to show democratic tendency in their personality.

Mehta (1977) found that the employees' age showed negative correlation with desire for influence. As the employees advanced in the occupational hierarchy, significant increase in desire for influence was noticed. He concluded that the younger employees had greater desire for influence and also that they increased their desire for influence as they progressed in the organization tend to suggest that the organization rewarded employees with non-participative and authoritarian tendencies. Greater reward for such employees, is likely to promote authoritarian and dominating work climate in the organization.

Mishra & Gupta (1994) examined the effects of motivation and job involvement on the performance of a sample of 50 blue-collar industrial workers. Motivation and job involvement both were significantly related to performance.

Malhotra, Shruti & Sachdeva (2001) studied the effect of work motivation, ranks, and job anxiety on job satisfaction of bank employees. From a group of 740 employees including assistant
managers and clerks, 180 employees (managers and clerks) with low, moderate, and high levels of work motivation and job anxiety as assessed by the Work Motivation Questionnaire (Agarwal) and the Job Anxiety Scale (Srivastava & Sinha) respectively were selected and were administered Muthaya's Job Satisfaction Scale, A 3 (work motivation) X 2 (ranks) X 3 (job anxiety) analysis of variance revealed significant effect of work motivation and job anxiety but not of ranks on the job satisfaction of the employees. A significant work motivation by ranks interaction effect indicated that job satisfaction was highest among managers (high ranks) with low motivation.

Therefore, it may be concluded that the pattern of employees motivation pose several problems for the functioning of public enterprises. Some implications may be concluded that strong motivation for influence among the managerial employees as well as influence backed motivation for personal achievement are likely to activize such people for power and status satisfying career goals. Such employees are likely to promote keen interpersonal competition, leading to mutual mistrust among them selves. They generally set the tone of work climate in an organization. They are likely to create competitive, mistrustful, and career oriented climate in the organization, which, in turn, is likely to further reinforce such motivations.
Derivation and Statement of the Problem

The preceding discussion of the relevant studies of job involvement reveal that job involvement is one of the important aspects of organizational behavior. It is evident that investigators have successfully isolated a number of variables that affect the magnitude of job involvement. Prior findings raise quite a few problems concerning the nature of job involvement. In this connection, an attempt is made to callout a few problems that have been subjected to investigation for the present dissertation are listed below.

(i) Organizational commitment is a measure of the employee's willingness to remain with a firm in the future (Newstrom & Davis, 1995). It involves three attitudes: (1) a sense of identification with the goals of organization (2) a feeling of involvement in organizational duties (3) a feeling of loyalty for the organization (Reichers, 1985).

Organizational commitment is affected by various factors. Higher level of responsibility, autonomy, interest and variety in a given job and satisfaction with job leads to higher level of organizational commitment (Baron, 1986; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1974; Pattanayak, et.al., 1993; Raval, 1994). However factors such as greater amount of tension, ambiguity and stress in a job, high involvement in union activities, feeling of helplessness and poor mental health may result in lower level of commitment (Baron, 1986; Patel, 1994; Mowday, et.al,
Commitment among organizational members hastens the process of organizational goal attainment and would reduce the problem of turnover and absenteeism (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

Work related attitudes such as job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment are often considered as the measures of individual effectiveness (Singh & Pattirajkumari, 1988; Sinha & Panday, 1990). Researches have indicated that organizational climate have determining effects on job satisfaction (Patel, 1993; Rao & Parvathi, 1986; Pratap & Srivastava, 1985).

Although several researchers (Lodahl & Kajner, 1965; Bass, 1965; March & Simon, 1958; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Vroom, 1962; Dubin, 1956; Lodahl, 1964; Hearn, 1962; Allport, 1947; French and Khan, 1962; Saleh & Hosek, 1976; Ruh, et al. 1975 and Mehta, 1977) have tried to study the phenomenon of job involvement in workers working in different organisational settings. Most of the studies conducted relating to job involvement include definition and measurement of job involvement, components of job involvement, factors that might affect the degree of job involvement and the conditions under which job involvement can be enhanced. Besides the physical and psychological conditions of work, there are certain other inherent characteristics of the job such as nature of the job, organisational structure and
organizational commitment, which might exercise considerable influence on the degree of the job involvement. To study this problem, an effort has also been made by Singh and Das (1977). They have studied various components of organizational culture and their impact on commitment to work. Here it may be pertinent to mention that Lodahl & Kejner (1965) have considered job involvement as an indicator of the individuals work commitment. The studies of Singh & Das (1977) reveal that scores on commitment scale in consultative and democratic organizations are higher than those for autocratic and benevolent autocratic organizations.

Keeping in view the above studies, it is evident that organizational structure and organizational culture exercise considerable impact on job involvement but no investigator has tried to extend the problem by investigating the impact of various degrees of organizational commitment on job involvement of private sector and public sector employees. This variable has not been directly investigated. Consequently, the present study is designed to investigate the functional relationship between organizational commitment and job involvement.

(ii). Research on job involvement is comparatively recent and are strong indications that the concept may assist in unraveling some
issues in the area of employee's motivation (Gechman & Weiner 1975; Lawler & Hall 1970; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965).

Job involvement is typically related to satisfaction of intrinsic rather than extrinsic needs (Lawler & Hall, 1970; Weissenberg & Guenfield, 1968). In fact intrinsic motivation and involvement have often been synonymously used because both psychologists and sociologists have assumed that person's involvement in a job is a function of intrinsic job factors such as autonomy and the responsibility rather than extrinsic job factors such as pay and security. Thus, it has been suggested that where job design provided greater responsibility and autonomy in job, employees were likely to be more involved in their jobs (Herzberg, 1968, Lowler & Hall, 1970).

In a recent review, Kanungo (1979) has criticized this position on the ground that satisfaction of needs on the job may be a sufficient but not a necessary condition for job involvement. He has proposed a motivational approach to the study of job involvement that maintains a conceptual distinction between intrinsic motivation and job involvement- a distinction supported by the work of Lowler & Hall (1970). While satisfaction might increase the likelihood of the job involvement, it is not a definition of job involvement itself. The approach also argues that job involvement is a cognitive state of psychological identification with the job and depends on the degree to
which the job is perceived to meet one's salient needs be they intrinsic or extrinsic. Thus, according to this approach, individuals with salient extrinsic needs will be as involved in their job as individual with salient intrinsic need provided. They perceive their jobs to have the potential for satisfying their needs.

Weissenberg & Gruenfield (1968) attempted to clarify the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction by applying Herzberg's dichotomization of motivation and hygiene variables. Results confirmed their hypothesis that involvement increases with increasing satisfaction of motivator variables.

Schuler (1975) studied the relationship between satisfaction and involvement among 325 employees of a large manufacturing firm. He found positive correlation between these variables.

Hall, Schneider & Nygren (1970) analyzed a sample of 141 professional foresters in term of their job involvement and higher need satisfaction. Results indicate that job involvement was significantly related to satisfaction of autonomy and self fulfillment needs only.

The prior researches were based on the assumptions that satisfaction is the direct cause of job involvement and performance. Porter & Lawler (1968) subsequently proposed a model in which successful performance of a task led to satisfaction. According to this
model, performance is linked to satisfaction and the nature of their linkage is determined by the rewards (intrinsic or extrinsic) for performance and the perceived equity of these rewards.

Although there are numerous studies which deal with job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, employees motivation etc. But there is not a single direct study, which intends in studying the relationship between employees' motivation and job involvement. The change in employees' motivation may affect the job involvement of respondents. Consequently, the investigators tried to find out the functional relationship between the various degrees of employees motivation and job involvement. In the present investigation employees' motivation is examined as a moderator variable of the job involvement.

**Broad objectives of the study**

The main purpose of the present study is to investigate the impact of several independent variables viz. organization commitment and employees motivation on job involvement of private and public sector employees. A comparison of two groups of respondents-private and public sector employees were made by administering several psychological instruments to understand the relationship between job involvement and above mentioned variables. The main emphasis of the
present investigation is the identification of those factors that affect job involvement significantly.

Specific objectives of the study

On the basis of the findings of previous researches and existing theories, it may be hypothesized that job involvement and some variables namely organizational commitment and employees motivation are jointly related to organizational behaviour. In order to test such a broad hypothesis the present study is designed to attend the following specific objectives.

1. To explore the impact of various levels of organizational commitment on job involvement.

2. To investigate the influence of various degrees of employees motivation on job involvement.

3. To investigate the impact of types of organization- Private and Public Sector on job involvement.

Hypotheses

1. There would be positive relationship between organizational commitment and job involvement.

2. There would be a positive relationship between employees' motivation and job involvement.
3. There would be a significant difference between job involvement of employees serving in different types of organization—Private sector and Public sector.

Specific research questions

The above-mentioned hypotheses are to be tested to find out the answers of the following questions.

1. Will there be any impact of organizational commitment on job involvement?
2. Will there be any impact of various degrees of employees' motivation on job involvement?
3. Will there be any significant impact of types of organization Private and Public sector on job involvement of the employees.

Variable to be studied

Independent Variables

1. Organizational Commitment
2. Employees Motivation
3. Types of Organization
Dependent Variable

Scores on Job Involvement Scale.