CHAPTER – 1

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE
INTRODUCTION

Job Satisfaction

The significance of work experience and how it affects attitudes and values about work is much important for individual as well as the organisation. The success or failure of an organisation to a great extent depends upon a satisfied/dissatisfied work force because people spend a sizeable portion of their waking life in their work, so on 'humanitarian' grounds this portion of their working life should be to an extent pleasant, agreeable and fulfilling. A dissatisfied work force can distort and blur the organisational game plan, hence it becomes essential for every organisation to maintain a congenial and conducive work environment, which may evoke high level of job satisfaction among the employees and it is better placed to persue its objectives.

The term “job satisfaction” was brought to lime light in the research literature by Hoppock in 1935. He reviewed numerous studies on job satisfaction conducted prior to 1933 and found that job satisfaction is a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say, “I am satisfied with my job”. Such kind of descriptions indicate a variety of variables that influence the satisfaction of the individuals but it does not make more clear about the nature of job satisfaction.

While reviewing the literature on job satisfaction, it is observed that the term job satisfaction has been used differently by different investigators. They used terms like “morale”, “motivation” and job satisfaction interchangeably in different studies (Milton, 1956).
According to Drever (1956) job satisfaction can be defined as "the end state of feeling". In this definition the use of word end is emphasized that the feeling is experienced by an individual after a task is accomplished or an activity that has taken place whether it is highly individualistic effort or a collective endeavour in completing the task. The tasks or the activities could be very minute or large. They could be easily observable or could just be experienced. But in all cases they could be satisfying certain needs. The feeling might be positive or negative depending upon whether the need is satisfied or not and could be a function of the efforts of the individual on the one hand and situational opportunities available to him on the other. Job satisfaction may be described in terms of attitude towards the job. Like any other attitude, it represents a complex assemblage of cognition (beliefs or knowledge), emotions (feelings, sentiments or evaluations) and behavioural tendencies. But here it is necessary to focus on the concepts of morale and the job satisfaction. Both morale and job satisfaction refer to positive emotional states which may be experienced by employees. As defined by Viteles (1953) "morale is an attitude of satisfaction with desire to continue in and willingness to strive for the goals of a particular group or organisation." It appears from this definition that morale is more future oriented, while satisfaction is more present and past oriented. Morale is often group based on a sense of common purpose and the belief that group goals can be attained and are compatible with individual goals while satisfaction typically refers to the appraisal made by an individual regarding his job situations. As pointed out by Kahn and Katz (1953) that the morale comprising three dimensions, viz, satisfaction with job, satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with organisation/company/enterprise. Gordon (1953) on the basis of factor analysis of scores on 'morale' and 'need satisfaction' has derived four factors: (i) general satisfaction, (ii) recognition of
status, (iii) self-respect, and (iv) an undefined factor. Ganguli (1954) on the basis of factor analysis of a morale survey, derived three factors — satisfaction with technical and organisational aspects of supervision, satisfaction stemming from supervisor as a person, and satisfaction derived from the benefits of employment and over-all confidence and satisfaction with the organisation.

Roach (1958) found twelve factors of job satisfaction. In addition to a general or 'halo' factor, and a sub-general factor of general attitude toward supervision. Besides these two factors he also found ten group factors: (i) pride in company, (ii) intrinsic job satisfaction, (iii) satisfaction with setting up and enforcing job standards, (iv) satisfaction with supervisory considerations, (v) work load and pressure, (vi) feeling that management is interested in the individual worker, (vii) salary administration, (viii) communication, (ix) development and progress, and (x) co-workers. Pestonjee (1973) reviewed various factor analytic studies and defined morale as “an attitude of employee which predisposes them to view their leaders (supervisor), their company and its policies as contributing to or thwarting their need satisfaction - an index of their regard for the organisation which employs them”.

Crites (1969) tried to make distinction between job satisfaction, vocational satisfaction and morale. He states that job satisfaction refers to the satisfaction derived from over-all job in which the individual is employed at present. If it is the type of work in which the individual has been trained and/or has gained experience in several jobs (two or more), then the concept would be referred to as vocational satisfaction. And if, the referent includes the work group and/or employing organisation as well as job or vocational satisfaction, the concept would be morale. Crites states that Harman's study of 1966 also made distinction between the vocational satisfaction and job satisfaction.
Smith (1955) suggests that job satisfaction is "the employees judgement of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs." The concept of need satisfaction as advocated by Maslow (1943) seems to be good analytical tool. The theory of need hierarchy makes certain basic assumptions. There is cause and effect relations i.e. human behaviour is caused an individuals need structure and the behaviour is goal-directed and ultimately achievement of goal is being the satisfaction of need. In other words create a sort of dissonance or tension in an individual and motivates him to take such action which will lead to need fulfilment. Thus, Maslow’s need hierarchy theory of motivation explains that the job which are able to satisfy more of the needs of the individuals, job would be the resultant in greater satisfaction on the part of the employees.

“Job satisfaction refers to the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work,” Paul (1977). It express the amount of agreement between one’s expectations of the job and the rewards that job provides to the person. Since job satisfaction involves expectations, so it is to be related with Adams’ (1965) equity theory of motivation. This theory explains that the perceptions of fairness or equity have a major influence on motivation of the person. It is greatly concerned with each person’s feelings of fairness about the rewards - psychological, social and or economic received from an organisation. The theory states that employees tend to determine fairness by considering their inputs and rewards on the job in comparison with those of other people. If the comparison is equal, the employee feels treated fairly, which leads to job satisfaction. If it is unequal, the employee feels inequality and is motivated to take corrective action by the management if not would lead to dissatisfaction.
Locke (1976) gave a comprehensive definition of job satisfaction as "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience". Job satisfaction is a result of employees perception of how well their job provides those things which they view as important.

Sinha (1974) defines job satisfaction as a "reintegration of effect produced by individuals perception, fulfilment of his needs in relation to his work and the situations surrounding it. "Janet et al. (1978) states" job satisfaction is part of life satisfaction." The nature of one's environment off the job. Similarly, a job is an important part of life, job satisfaction influences one's general life satisfaction.

Van de Ven and Ferry (1980) described job satisfaction as an effective reaction of feeling of employees with job, supervision, co-workers, pay and his/her current and future career progress. The causes of employees satisfaction are not restricted to implant factors alone but they run the whole gamut of men's needs and aspirations.

Blum (1956) and Blum and Naylor (1963) described job satisfaction as a resultant of many attitudes possessed by a worker. It is a general attitude which is the result of many specific attitudes in three areas viz. specific job factors, individual characteristics and group relationships outside the job.

Further it becomes imperative to make a distinction of job satisfaction from job climate and job involvement. Here, it is important to note that job satisfaction is an affective or evaluative state while the concept of climate is a descriptive, cognitive, and non-evaluative construct (Wall, 1973). This classification is further emphasised in the work of James and Jones (1974), Locke (1976), Payne and Pugh (1976) and Payne, Fineman, and Wall (1976). La Fallette and Sims (1975) and Schneider and Snyder (1975) have also emphasised this distinction between job satisfaction and climate. However, Hellrigell and
Slocum (1974) have suggested that a dynamic relationship exists between job satisfaction and climate.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) distinguished job satisfaction from job involvement. As a matter of fact, a person who is involved in his job is one who takes it seriously, for whom important values are at stake in the job, whose needs and feelings are significantly affected by his job experiences and who is mentally preoccupied with his job. Thus, a person who is highly involved in his job should be more likely to feel extremely satisfied or extremely dissatisfied (depending upon the degree of success or failure) while an uninvolved person could have less emotional reactions to the same or analogous job experience (Locke, 1976).

A job is not an entity but a complex interrelationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards etc. Thus, a thorough understanding of job attitudes requires that the job be analysed in terms of its constituent elements. These elements may be classified as conditions/events and agents. Every condition or event is ultimately caused by someone or something i.e. agent. The agent may be the self or any other individual. Every agent is liked or disliked because he is perceived as having done or having failed to do something. A more logical type of analysis should involve a consideration of not only conditions and agents separating but also interaction between them.

French, el al. (1946) compiled a list of on-the-job factors which are found by various investigators as underlying causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of workers. Which are as stated below:

1. Factors in the individual - ability, health, age, temperament, desire and expectations, neurotic tendencies, unconscious conflict.
2. Factors in life away from work - home conditions, recreation, consumer problems, labour union activities etc.
3. Factors in employment relations—wages or earning procedures, kind of work performed, supervision, training, conditions of work, opportunities for advancement, social relations on the job etc.

Worthy (1950) found job satisfaction to be composite of the six factors namely:
1. Company in general
2. The local organisation
3. Local management
4. Immediate supervision
5. Co-workers, and
6. Working conditions.

On the basis of inter correlation between ten factors, Grove and Kerr (1951) concluded that 'wages' and 'liking for work associates' appear to be major components of job satisfaction.

Herzberg and his associates (1957), in their review of job attitude studies, revealed ten major factors:— (i) intrinsic aspects of job, (ii) supervision, (iii) working conditions, (iv) wages, (v) opportunity for advancement, (vi) security, (vii) company and management, (viii) social aspects of job (xi) communication, and (x) benefits.

In the industrial and organisational situations the Two-Factor Theory proposed by Herzberg and his associates (1959) occupies prominent place in the study of job satisfaction. The traditional theory of job satisfaction maintains that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are decided by the presence and absence of the same elements respectively. Contrary to this view the Two-Factor Theory holds that there are separate sets of elements that decide job satisfaction and job
dissatisfaction. They reviewed job attitude studies and found that the factors associated with high satisfaction are called satisfiers or motivators were somewhat different from those associated with low satisfaction which are called dissatisfiers or hygiene factors. Satisfiers or job content dimensions are: achievement, recognition, work itself and responsibility whereas hygiene or context factors are: Company's policy and administration, supervision, salary, security, interpersonal relations and working conditions. On the basis of the findings Herzberg et al. postulated that the presence of satisfiers leading to job satisfaction but absence of satisfiers not connected with job dissatisfaction while absence of hygiene factors leading to job dissatisfaction but presence of these factors are not connected with job satisfaction.

Soliman (1970) reported a large number of studies supported Two - Factor Theory using Herzberg's technique while very few studies using the same technique did not support the Two - Factor Theory. Similarly Soliman quoted a number of studies that have used different methods from that of Herzberg et al. did not support Two - Factor Theory; while only a few studies supported this theory. The contradictory findings showed that Two - Factor Theory is method - specific.

Farr (1977) holds the view that attributional biases are evident in the structuring of the data in Herzberg's study. Because it is the tendency found in human beings that the unfavourable outcomes to be attributed to the environment and favourable outcomes to be attributed to the self. So, the sources of job dissatisfaction are found related to the environment (job context)
and removal of these hygiene factors from the context of work reduces job dissatisfaction but does not necessarily increases job satisfaction.

Wolf (1970) propounded the "Need Gratification Theory" using Maslow's need hierarchy model to unify the traditional theory of job satisfaction and Herzberg's Two - Factor Theory. He stated that an individual actively seeks to gratify his active needs, ignoring both lower level needs that have already been satisfied and higher level needs that yet not emerged. Dissatisfaction results either from the frustration of the gratification of an active need or from an interruption to the continued gratification of previously gratified needs. Satisfaction results from the gratification of any need. However, satisfaction is greater when a previously ungratified need is fulfilled than a previously satisfied need is gratified on an on going basis. Job motivation occurs when an individual perceives an opportunity to gratify an active need through job-related behaviours. Therefore, both context and content factors can serve as both satisfiers and dissatisfiers. When a person's higher level needs are active, context elements will be strongly related to decreased satisfaction. In the same way, contents will be strongly related to both increased and decreased job satisfaction due to fluctuation in gratification of higher level needs. The context elements are essentially unrelated to job motivation, in which an individual cannot increase the level of satisfaction of his related needs through job-oriented behaviours. Hence, observer would not ordinarily classify context elements as job motivators. The content elements are closely related to job motivation, in that an individual can increase the level of gratification of related needs through job-
oriented behaviours. Thus traditional theory of job satisfaction and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory can be unified.

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory is more controversial but it can not deny the fact that it was the first significant step toward a multidimensional description of job attitude. Wood (1970) using factor analysis and suggests that job satisfaction is multidimensional and professional challenge, status, autonomy, professional recognition, interpersonal relations and supervisory relations are the dimensions of job satisfaction.

Hinrichs (1968) found nine independent attitudinal dimensions such as work itself, company, pay, management, associates, obstacles, security, future opportunities and job demands contribute to overall job satisfaction, of these, attitude about the company and work itself comprise the major share of overall job satisfaction variance.

Walsh, Taber and Beehr (1980) have identified a set of Perceived Job Characteristics (PJC) that holds psychological meaning for the workers and contribute to job satisfaction. The PJC often discussed are autonomy, variety, task significance, challenge and feedback. There are two components of PJC - an information and action component. These components are related to job satisfaction through their contributions to two intervening Psychological states - role clarity and challenge. The information component consists of knowing what needs to be done (goods), how to do it (methods) and how well it is being done (results). Each of these three types of information contributes to role clarity. The action components consists of materials, equipment, skills, and procedures.
necessar) to produce a product or perform a duty / service. Challenge is the psychological state associated with the action component which refers to the degree to which knowledge, skills and abilities of role incumbents are used by the job. This not only implies an opportunity to use current skills fully but also implies the stimulus to enhance and develop new skills. Thus job variety by involving the use of different skills and abilities of the employee to be related to challenge. Likewise autonomy in selecting goals and methods of work enhances the feeling that one's skills, abilities and knowledge are responsible for task completion or failure.

Abdel Halim (1980) says that an employee's higher order needs (HON) are an important factor that influences work motivation and job satisfaction. Individuals with strong higher order needs (HON) are more likely to place a higher degree of valance for the attainment of objectives than those with weak higher order needs (HON). The individuals whose performances are high represent a form of intrinsic rewards and lead to the receipt of positively extrinsic rewards from the organisation such as pay, promotion and recognition. To a great extent such rewards are perceived as a result of effective performance on the job and a sufficient degree will tend to be satisfied. On the other hand individuals with weak HON, may be motivated by some other needs such as security and social needs. Job satisfaction for those individuals probably depends on some other needs which are fulfilled on the job.

It may be seen from the above mentioned studies that typical job dimensions that have been studied include these conditions - work, pay,
promotion, recognition, benefits, conditions of work etc. Under the broad category of agents is included supervision, management, and individual characteristics etc.

Keeping in view as stated above conceptual framework of job satisfaction which are to be a summation of employees feelings in four important areas. Two of these are related to on-the-job factors and other two pertaining to off-the-job factors. All these four areas with their related aspects are:

- **Job** - nature of work, hours of work, fellow workers, opportunities on the job etc.
- **Management** - supervisory treatment, participation, rewards and punishment, praises and blames etc.
- **Social relations** - neighbours, friends and associates, attitude toward people in community etc.
- **Personal adjustment** - emotionality, health, home and living conditions etc.

As far as work is concerned a person brings with him, his total personality, attitudes, likes and dislikes, personal characteristics and these, in turn influence the satisfaction which he derives from his work. Work seems to be one of the important aspects of the total life experience of an individual. It is necessary to examine how his personal characteristic influence his job satisfaction. Personal characteristics refer to such biographical variables as age, sex, education, experience, marital status and religion etc.

A number of studies have been carried out on the relationship between job satisfaction and personal characteristics.

There could be a complex relationship between age and job satisfaction of incumbents. Generally one would expect that as the person grows older he
would get greater satisfaction with his / her job because of the experience that he would be able to perform it easily. Guha (1965) and Sinha and Agarwala (1971) found positive relationship between age and job satisfaction. Various studies revealed significant positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (Kakkar, 1983; Singh, 1985; Dixit, 1986; Srivastava, 1986; Okola and Eddy, 1994; Chandraiah, 1995; Birdi et al, 1995 and Panda et al, 1996) while other investigators revealed that age was found to be curve-linearly and significantly related with job satisfaction (Super, 1939; Dwivedi and Pestonjee, 1975). Whereas some researchers observed that age is not associated with job satisfaction (Sinha, 1958; Natraj and Hafeez, 1965; Sinha and Nair, 1965; Ghosh and Shukla, 1967; Rao, 1970; Vasudeva and Rajbir, 1976; Gupta, 1980; and Porwal, 1980; suggesting thereby that job satisfaction is independent of age.

Personal relations are established between individuals through marriage. Marriage is that social institution which admits men and women to family cycle based on mutual love and respect. Generally one would assume that with increasing responsibilities placed on an individual because of marriage, he would value his job little more than an unmarried employee / incumbent. Sinha and Sharma (1962) and Okola and Eddy (1994) found married employees were more satisfied with their job than unmarried / single employees. Rao (1970) reported that single employees are more satisfied with their job than married employees. Some of the investigators found that there is no relationship between marital status and job satisfaction of employees (Guha, 1965; Ghose and Shukla, 1967; and Agarwala and Sinha, 1971).

Now, it is important to mention here that whether education influences job satisfaction of the incumbents. Attempts have been made to find out the relationship between education and job satisfaction of employees. Sinha and Agrawala (1971) found out negative relationship. They found low educated
employees were more satisfied. The result of the study supports the findings of the study conducted by Padmavathi, 1995. Whereas Rao, 1970; found positive relationship i.e. higher the education higher was job satisfaction. But he has not provided any explanation for this kind of finding.

The contribution of work experience is considered that might make a man perfect. Several attempts have been made to find out the relationship between job satisfaction and year of work experience, but did not find relationship between job satisfaction and experience (Ghosh and Skukla, 1967; Rao, 1970; Sinha and Agarwala, 1971) whereas Narchal, Alagh and Kishore, (1984) found positive relationship between job satisfaction and work experience. Similarly Saiyadain (1985) found that respondents with 15 to 19 years of experience were found more satisfied than those with less than five years of job experience. Further he concluded that job satisfaction increases with increasing years of experience. Biggs et al. (1995) found a significant relation between experience and job satisfaction. Bhatt (1998) suggested that job satisfaction increases as the work experience increases. Whereas Vasudeva and Rajbir (1976) found negative relation between job satisfaction and work experience. Singh and Ojha (1989) reported a curvilinear relationship, and many researchers failed to find any such relationship between job satisfaction and experience (Kaur, 1984; Abraham, 1994; and Okola et al, 1994).

Most of the personality characteristics which are acquired but the gender is by birth. It is nature’s endowment, which an individual posses. It is the process of nature to make a balance and save the species from extinction. Henceforth it becomes an important biographical variable to study its effect on job satisfaction. Some of the studies have been carried out to explore the effect of sex (male - female) differences on job satisfaction. Dixit (1993) probed job satisfaction of male and female primary school teacher with respect to service
conditions viz. salary, physical facilities, institutional plans and policies, satisfaction with authorities, social status, family welfare, rapport with students and relationship with co-workers. The results revealed that the female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers with regard to their salary, promotion, authority, institutional plans and policies. The female teachers also enjoyed good rapport with the students and better relationship with their co-worker. Padmavathi, 1995; and Panda et al. 1996, found that female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers. The sex difference observed with regard to job satisfaction of incumbents (Nagarathnamma and Bharthi, 1990; Meena and Arzoo, 1990; and Agarwala and Das, 1990). Whereas Mason et al. (1995) intended to explore the gender differences in respect of job satisfaction, reported that men and women in management did not differ in terms of their job satisfaction which was studied with regard to their source of satisfaction at work.
Work commitment

The concept of commitment was brought in use by sociologists when they were trying to account for the fact that people engaged in consistent lines of activity. The consistent activity implies that it persists over some period of time. A person having commitment may engage in an activity in the course of his/her career. The notion of consistent lines of activity seems to imply a rejection of feasible alternatives in pursuit of the identified goal.

Sociological explanation of commitment based on the concept of social control, proposes that people act consistently because activity of some particular kinds is considered as right or proper in a society or social group and deviation from the set standards are punished. So, people are bound to act consistently because they think that it is morally wrong, practically not suitable or both, to do otherwise. The consistent line of activity is sometimes explained by the presumed existence of universally accepted cultural values which compel behaviour. Psychologically consistency of behaviour refers to a stable structure of personal needs, but needs are not directly observable and are often inferred from the presence of behaviour. The commitment can explain consistent human behaviour. It must specify that the characteristics of commitment is independent of behaviour commitment.

Becker (1960) explained consistent behaviour by using the concept of "Side bet". For example, a person is bargaining to buy a thing, he offers X bucks; but the seller insists on (X +5) bucks. If he has bet a third party five bucks that he will not pay more than X bucks. This commitment has been achieved by making.
a side bet. The committed person acted in such a way as to involve other interest of his, originally extraneous to the action he is engaged in, directly in that action. The consequence of inconsistency will be so expensive that inconsistency in his bargaining stance is no longer a feasible alternative. In this approach commitment can be specified independent of the consistent activity which has its consequence.

Side bets constraining behaviour also come into existence through the process of individual adjustment to social positions that he unfits himself for other positions he might have access to. Ease of performance of present job may prevent one from accepting a new job.

Commitment to work is an important topic of long standing interest to management scholars, as evidenced by the proliferation of concepts (job involvement, ego involvement, work values and so on) designed to operationalised the construct. Commitment typically is valued by practiceners on normative grounds - managers prefer loyal and devoted employees. Unfortunately, the growth in commitment related concepts has not been accompanied by a careful segmentation of commitment's theoretical domain in terms of intended meaning of each concept or the concepts relationships among each other.

Buchanan (1974) stated that commitment is a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one's role in relation to goals and values and to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely
instrumental worth. Methodologically commitment is consists of three components:

(a) identification - adoption as one's own the goals and values of the organisation;

(b) involvement - Psychological immersion or absorption in the activities of one's work role; and

(c) loyalty - a feeling of affection and attachment to the organisation.

A review of work commitment concepts used in organisational research indicates that many researchers have formulated their own definition and measures of work commitment rather than rely on an existing approach to commitment. It is evident from an examination of the authors' definitions of these concepts reveal some wide differences regarding the meaning. For example, it is presumed that individuals might view work as a determinant of their intrinsic worth but feel no special loyalty to the employing organisation. Wiener and Vardi (1980) provided empirical support for this argument that differences exist in organisational, job and career commitment between two separate groups. Some researchers argued that professional commitment (career salience) is antithetical to organisational commitment (Tuma and Grimes, 1981). On the other hand, some forms of work commitment necessarily appear to overlap. Individuals who regard their jobs as a central aspect of life would be unlikely to devalue the importance of their careers. Work commitment notion therefore appears to represent both unique and redundant components. In order to make clear these differences, similar forms of work commitment have been
grouped according to their major focus (i.e. personal values, career, job, organisation and union).

Although proliferation of these concepts go further back than the 1970s, such as Dubin's (1956) central life interest and Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) job involvement are among the earliest concepts and are still commonly used, and the emergence of work commitment is fairly new one. The interest in work commitment has emerged when interest in job satisfaction has been diminishing. If the employee commitment is defined as the level of attachment to some component or aspect of work, then the door is opened to various types of commitment. Paul Morrow (1983) identified more than twenty-five commitment related concepts and measures. She concluded that there is considerable conceptual redundancy and that there are five major types of commitment into which all of these commitment fall: commitment to work, commitment to the career, commitment to the job, commitment to the organisation and commitment to the union.

The theoretical and empirical linkage among the five forms of work commitment are not reality apparent, nor they have focused on much comparative study. The inductively formulated facets are reviewed, which will highlight the similarities and differences in work commitment concepts. It is now important to examine the formal, conceptual definition of each commitment concept in conjunction with its operational definition.

The concept of Protestant work ethic endorsement of Blood (1969) and Mirels & Garrett (1971) focuses the intrinsic value of work as an end in itself.
According to them work commitment is the extent to which a person feels that the personal worth results only from self-sacrificing work or occupational achievement. The essence of this concept is the belief that the hard work is intrinsically good and an end in itself. Personal worth and one's moral stature are to be gauged on willingness to work hard. One's job, career, organisation, or union is merely backdrop in which to exert high levels of effort. Bhagat (1979) proposed conceptual dimensions to be summed within work ethic endorsement, that overlap with other forms of work commitment but that have not received much theoretical attention or empirical confirmation.

Lascocco (1989) tried to investigate the impact of personal and job characteristics on work commitment and the relative importance of that work. He identified six job facets which were important: Supervisory status, seniority, autonomy, intrinsic rewards, promotional opportunity and financial rewards. It was observed that both job and personal characteristics affect levels of work commitment, those with the best jobs were having more commitment to the work, but personal characteristics also contributed regardless of job reward.

Career commitment is defined by Greenhaus (1971) as the importance of work and a career in one's total life. It also refers to as professional commitment or occupational commitment. The career commitment is the idea that one's vocation has temporal progression (stages) that requires an extensive time period to achieve proficiency. So, it is difficult to evaluate the level of isomorphism between career salience and measure because of the ambiguity of "importance of work".
Now, it becomes clear that the career commitment taps some aspects of work commitment that are redundant with work ethics endorsement, job involvement and central life interest. Its utility can not be underestimated because, it is one of the few commitment concepts that attempts to capture the idea of devotion to a craft, occupation, or profession apart from any specific work environment, over an extended period of time. The job involvement concept contains a job performance self esteem relationship and emphasised involvement as a component of self-image (i.e. personal identification with work). The former part of definition partially taps with the Protestant work ethic form of work commitment by suggesting that one's worth is a function of how well he performs on his job. For example, when a person says that "I am very much involved personally in my work". This kind of expression shows his attachment with the job.

Organisational commitment is described as a multidimensional concept that embracing an employee's desire to remain in an organisation, willingness to exert effort on its behalf, and belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979). Alternate concepts in this sphere are referred to as organisational involvement and organisational identification.

Brown (1969) discussed about the conditions under which individuals tend to identify themselves with an organisation. It includes memberships with an organisation. It includes membership which reflects the current position of the individual, provides prediction concerning certain aspects of performance motivation to work, spontaneous contribution and other related outcomes and
also suggests the differential relevance of motivational factors. Brown employed the concepts of symbolic and pragmatic motivation. Symbolic motivation refers to a state of ego-involvement in one's activities. Identification depends on satisfaction and anticipated goal-achievement derived from activities which are membership bound, ego-involving and intrinsically motivating. In contrast pragmatic motivation refers to a state of deficiency where the result rather than activity performed is valuable to the individual. Satisfaction of pragmatic motivation refers to a state of deficiency where the result rather than activity performed is valuable to the individual. Satisfaction of pragmatic motivational states are likely to lead to dependence but not to identification.

Hall et al. (1970) found a positive relationship between organisational identification and individual commitment to the organisational goals. Working toward goals that are simultaneously identified with the organisation and thus feeling identified with the organisation is a source of strong satisfaction to the individual.

Kidron (1979) and Gould (1979) reported that two of the three dimensions of organisational commitment correspond to Etzioni's (1961) notion of calculative (desire to remain) and moral (internationalisation of values and goals) involvement. As suggested by Gould that moral involvement incorporates job involvement. Hence potential for conceptual overlap between organisational commitment and value and job focus upon the forms of work commitment which is considerable.
One of the newest forms of work commitment to be recognised as union commitment. In some way this concept is similar to attitude towards union concepts and measures. These measures typically have emphasised opinions about unionism rather than loyalty to and feeling towards a specific union. So, union commitment is viewed as a broader concept embracing more than attitude toward organised labour and it is relevant only to union members.

Gordon et al. (1980) stated that union commitment is analogous to organisational commitment, representing primarily a shift in institutions, therefore, it should incorporate three dimensions of organisational commitment. However, organisations and unions differ in many respects but they are likely to be related to commitment. There is one important difference is that organisational membership is nearly always voluntary whereas union membership sometimes is a condition of employment. Keeping this view in mind Gordon et al. (1980) defined union commitment as a union member's willingness to remain a member of union, belief in the objectives of organised labour, and willingness to perform services voluntarily for the union.

While reviewing the literature on commitment Mowday et al. (1982) found little consensus on what the term commitment means, rather they noted that "researchers from various disciplines described their own meaning to the topic, thereby increasing the difficulty involved in understanding the construct." The commitment has been defined in various ways by different researchers. According to Kanter (1968) commitment is "the attachment of an individual's fund of effectively and emotion to the group". While Becker (1960) says
"commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity." Wiener (1982) defined commitment as "the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests". Although these definitions have been derived from academic literature, our experience that meaning varies as much or more in everyday use of the term. Numerous definitions accompany these concepts but the idea that seems to dominate is that attachment involves an emotional identification with the particular aspect of work. In fact, this attachment is sometimes referred to as loyalty. It was a paradoxical view that women are concentrated in low paying and unskilled jobs, despite they reported high level of job satisfaction. On the basis of early research Hakim (1991) made an attempt to assess the women's work commitment. He suggested that the majority of women prefer home made career in paid work is of secondary importance while on the other hand a minority of women are committed to work as a central life goal. It was found that women's commitment to work was significantly lower than their male counterpart.

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that common to various definitions of commitment is "the view that commitment is Psychological state that (a) characterises the employee's relationship with the organisation, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership with the organisation". The nature of Psychological state being explained by Meyer & Allen applied to describe three components of commitment as affective, continuance and normative. Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment
to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue the employment with the organisation because they want to do so. Continuance commitment states an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Employees whose primarily link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment to remain because they are more inclined to do so. Finally normative commitment refers to a feeling of obligation to continue employment. The Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation.

They argued that it is consider affective, continuance and normative commitment to be component, rather than types of commitment because employee's relationship with an organisation seems to reflect varying degrees of these three components. Combining to all these conceptualisation is aimed that commitment binds individual to his work as well as the organisation. While O'Reilly et al. (1986) stated that commitment reflects the "Psychological bond" that ties the employee to the organisation but the nature of bond may differ. According to them Psychological bond between an employee and organisation can take three distinct forms - compliance, identification and internalisation. O'Reilly's classification system might be weakened because of the difficulty of distinguishing identification and internalisation, when researchers undertake to study the multidimensional nature of commitment (O' Reilly et al. 1991, Vandenberg, Self and Seo, 1994; and Becker et al. 1996).

While reviewing available literature on work commitment, numerous definitions accompanying this concept, but the idea which seems to dominate is
that attachment involves an emotional identification with a particular aspect of work. In fact this attachment is sometimes referred to as loyalty. The work commitment is often treated in the same way as work motivation. It relates an individual's attachment to a particular work rather than to work in general.

Knoop (1995) examined whether involvement in work and job, commitment to the employing organisation and satisfaction with job would be significantly related. He found commitment was related to satisfaction with work and promotional opportunities. The degree of relationship between overall and specific facets of satisfaction and commitment; and between commitment and involvement was found moderately related.

Lynn et al. (1996) made a comparison of work commitment, overall job satisfaction, intrinsic and extrinsic reward satisfaction and organisational and professional turnover intentions of male and female accounting professionals at different career stages. Results indicated differences in work attitudes across career for males. Job involvement, organisational commitment and intrinsic and extrinsic reward satisfaction were positively related career stages which was measured by professional tenure, while organisational turnover and intentions were negatively related. There was no significant differences in work attitudes across career stages for females.

Russ et al. (1995) were interested to find out moderating impact of experience, gender, and performance on the relationships among job satisfaction dimensions and commitment and turnover intentions. Gender moderated link between organisational commitment and turnover intentions, experience and performance moderated the link between job satisfaction dimensions and organisational commitment. Gender and experience appeared as joint moderator.
effect on the strength of the relationship between turnover intentions and commitment. It was found that the job, the supervisor and the organisation were moderated by the extent to which employees attributed positive work experiences and affective attachment to these three domain (Meyer & Allen, 1995).

Tansky et al. (1997) attempted to ascertain the effect of demographics, work status and relative equity on commitment among part time workers. The result revealed that the most significant predictors of commitment among part-timers were their perceptions of relative equity and job satisfaction. Satisfaction acted as a partial mediator between relative equity and commitment. Dutta & Ghosh (1997) intended to investigate the impact of hospital environment on commitment among nurses and physicians. Result suggested significant differences in organisational commitment across hierarchies. The nurses' commitment was predicted by their awareness of the hospital environment, while the physicians' was predicted by awareness of external environment. However, satisfaction and commitment revealed high correlations with self-rated performance across the shops (Leug, 1997). Mishra and Srivastava (1999) made an attempt to find out the moderating effect of mental health on organisational commitment and job satisfaction relationship of doctors. They suggested that the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction was found high for doctors with higher mental health than the doctors of lower mental health.
Altruism

As it is observed in daily life that many of us helping one another, even taking risk of their life to provide aid to the people who are in distress. It is a natural act of comforting, caring and helping others without asking anything in return, people offer directions, donate money and blood to strangers. Hence altruism is mainly concerned in rendering help to others without conscious regard for one's self interest. Thus altruistic person is usually concerned and becomes helpful to unknown person without expecting anything in return from him. The concept of altruism comes from the Latin word “alter” which means “other” and generally connotes an orientation of toward other rather than towards the self. To make the concept of altruism more clear we cite the example of Jesus’s parable of the Good Samaritan: There was once a man who was going down from Jerusalem to Jerico when robbers attacked him, stripped him, beat him up and leaving him half dead. A priest was going down that road, but when he saw the man he changed his way. In the same way a Lavite also came there, he went over and looked at the man, and then walked on by on the other side. But another person named Samaritan who was also travelling that way came upon the man, and when he saw him, his heart was filled with pity. He went over to him, poured oil and wine on his wounds and bandaged them and took him to an inn on his own animal, where he took care of him. Next day he gave two silver coins to the innkeeper and asked him to take care of distressed man. The Samaritan told innkeeper that when I come back this way I will pay you whatever else you spent on him (luks, 1988)
The example of Samaritan as cited above illustrates altruism in pure form. Because he (Samaritan) filled with pity and he voluntarily spent time, exhaust energy, and gave money to a stranger without expecting repayment and appreciation from him for this act.

Illustration of another example will be helpful in understanding the characteristics of an altruistic person. Who takes risk of his life to provide help to a stranger. For example, two men lived in the same building heard a woman screaming in the parking lot. They rushed out to provide help (to stranger) independently. They said screams awakened them. They said what appeared in the parking lot they saw from their windows. As one person ran out of the door, his wife said she had call the police, but he said there was no time to wait for police. When he reached the parking lot, attacker was sitting on the woman's back, hitting on her head and telling her, he was going to sexually assault her. The attacker pretended that he was her boy friend but the rescuer said, "I don't care, get off of her". He pulled the woman to her feet and the second rescuer ran up and said police were in their way. The assailant ran off, but was later caught and arrested (De Mare, 1992).

It is apparent from the example cited above that the altruistic person provides help to others without expecting anything return from victim and even took risk of his life. Because in such situation attacker might harm the rescuer but without caring of his life came forward and provided help to the victim. The example cited above described meaning of altruism.
Altruistic behaviour may be defined empirically as an act of an individual who offers help to another person selflessly. Helping another person means prosocial behaviour, which we mean that the actions provide benefit to others without anticipation of extrinsic rewards. The terms altruistic behaviour, prosocial behaviour, helping behaviour and charitable behaviour are used interchangeably by researchers to describe the "good" things that some people do in order to provide assistance to needed people.

Pro-social behaviour is also called a voluntary behaviour that is carried out to provide benefit to another person without expectation of any extrinsic rewards. Amato (1983) suggested that prosocial behaviour can be classified in terms of three dimensions: (1) planned and formal versus spontaneous and informal, (2) serious versus non-serious, and (3) doing something versus giving. There are many examples of prosocial behaviour such as helping, giving and other socially desired responses rendered without apparent selfish motivation. Intervening to help others in life threatening circumstances, giving gifts to others, stopping on the highway to help people facing problems with their automobiles, assisting old people while boarding on train, bus, crossing busy road, calling rickshaw, taxi for them are the activities that denote prosocial behaviour.

Although the nature of altruism varies from study to study and situation to situation, therefore, it is not possible to give / offer a definition which covers all of these aspects of the research being carried out in this field. According to intention descriptions Severy (1974) states that altruism is helping behaviour
motivated by the other person's being in need". According to Worchel and Cooper (1976) "Altruism means behaviour which is motivated by a regard for another person". Later on they realised that this definition proposed by them do not serve the purpose so they defined that the "altruistic behaviour is an act that renders help to another person". Gibb (1964) described seven factors of helpful orientation of behaviour. These factors are as follow:

1. Reciprocal trust - confidence, warmth, acceptance,
2. Co-operative learning - inquiry, exploration, quest,
3. Mutual growth - becoming, actualizing, fulfilling,
4. Reciprocal openness - spontaneity, condone, honesty,
5. Shared problem solving - defining, producing, alternatives, testing,
6. Autonomy - freedom, interdependence, equality and,
7. Experimentation - play, innovation, provisional try.

In order to study altruism, we have to examine the theories of altruism. Three theories of altruism have been propounded. These are stated as social exchange, social norms and socio-biology theory.

The social exchange theory states that human interactions are guided by a "Social economics". In other words it may be stated that a social economics guide human interactions. It means we do not exchange only material goods and money but also social goods, love, services, information and status (Foa & Foa, 1975). In this way it is used "minimax" strategy i.e. minimize costs and maximize rewards. The social exchange theory does not contend (strive) that we consciously keep track of costs and rewards, but only that such considerations
can be used to predict our behaviour. It is said that men do not value a good deed unless it brings a reward.

Altruism as a disguised self interest refers to rewards which are either internal or external that motivate an individual to help others. When someone offers a ride to another hoping to receive appreciation or friendship, the desired reward is external. When someone is in distress and people typically respond with empathy. The benefits of helping stranger also include internal rewards which calming one's own anxiety. Thus altruistic acts increase our sense of self-worth. Hence helping stranger makes us feel good about our-self and it gives us a feeling of self satisfaction.

Batson et al. (1981) stated that our willingness to help others is influenced by both self serving and selfless considerations. When we feel distress on someone's suffering, it can motivate us to relieve our troubled state either by escaping from the distressing situation or to help. But when we feel attached to someone, we also feel empathy.

Eisenberg & Fabes (1991) defined empathy as responding to another person's emotional state with a vicarious emotional reaction that resembles what the other person is experiencing. By the time we reach adulthood, with the process of socialisation the capacity for empathic concern is a common one, especially, if the person grown up in a supportive family in which such reactions are encouraged. The empathy - altruism hypothesis proposed by Batson et al. (1981) suggests that at least some prosocial behaviour is solely motivated by the desire to help the recipient (Batson & Oleson, 1991). As pointed out by
Smith (1992) that the individuals who express sympathy or empathic concern have desire to control over the emergency situation and to be able to provide help. For example, when a person perceives an emergency in which help is needed, in such situation empathy is aroused, and then helping occurs. If empathy is not aroused and if the person can find a way out of the situation, helping will not occur; if it is difficult or impossible to escape from the scene, the person may provide help even in the absence of empathy. Without feelings of empathy some prosocial acts are motivated only for the welfare of victim (Toi & Batson, 1982).

Sherif & Sherif (1935) studied the nature of social norms - rules indicating how individuals ought to behave and so contributed many insights to our understanding of pressures towards conformity. Often we help others without any self interest because we have not made any plan before help, but something tells us that we ought to return the wallet (document, paper money) which we found anywhere else. So, norms are social expectations and prescribe proper behaviour the ought of our lives. Researchers studying helping behaviour have identified two social norms that seem to motivate altruism.

The reciprocity norm refers to an expectation that people will help not hurt, those who have helped them. Alvin Goulder (1960) believed that this norm is universal as the incest taboo. For example, politicians that the one who gives a favour during election later may expect a favour in return. So, reciprocity norm is the way to balance out. If someone receives help without giving in return violates the reciprocity norm. Thus high ambitious people most strongly assume
this norm of reciprocity often behave generously, preferring to have people in
their debt rather than to feel indebted (Eisenberg et al., 1987).

Social responsibility norm refers to helping others with future expectation
which is governed by the reciprocity norm of social exchange theory, which
reminds us to balance giving and receiving in our social relations. But the belief
that people should help those who need help without regard to future exchange
has been labelled as the social responsibility norm (Berkowitz, 1972b; Schwartz,
1975). Thus social responsibility is described as a social norm to the effect that
each of us has a responsibility to do our best to help others, taking care of those
in need. Since it is our social responsibility to provide assistance in distress to
others or strangers without expecting return in future from them.

Socio-biology explains altruism in the light of evolutionary theory of
social behaviour. It maintains that the essence of life is gene survival. Thus
prosocial behaviour is based on the motivating role of emotions. The genetic
determinism model, prosocial behaviour can be explained in evolutionary terms.
We are most likely to help others who are genetically similar to ourselves (a
relative or a similar friend or stranger) because among our ancestors such
behaviour increased the odds that their genes would be presented in subsequent
generations. Now, we consider how genetic selfishness actually could
predispose two specific types of selfless or even 'self-sacrificial' behaviour
(Rushton, 1989).

There is one form of self sacrifice that could contribute to the survival of
our genes is devotion of our children. Parents who are more devoted to their
children's welfare will be more likely to have their genes passed on to posterity than parents who ignore their children's welfare. The important point is to be noted here that before helping we would not calculate genetic relatedness because the social world which operate in such a way that close kin are usually favoured. But the Carnegie Medal for bravery is never awarded to person for saving the life of a relative, that is expected. The Medal for bravery is awarded to those people who risk themselves unexpectedly to save a non-relative is the altruism or prosocial behaviour.

The research literature on altruism reviewed by Buck and Ginsburg (1991) reported that there is no evidence of a gene that determines prosocial behaviour. Because among human beings, there is a genetically based capacity to communicate one's emotional state and to form social bonds. These inherited aspects of social behaviour make it possible for us to help one another when need arises, because people interaction takes place in social relationship, "they are always prosocial, usually helpful and often altruistic" (Fiske, 1991). Hence altruism based on kin selection is the enemy of civilization.

The genetic self interest underlies altruism toward others who carry one's genes also predicts reciprocity. Reciprocity works, effectively in small, isolated groups, the groups in which one interacts with people for whom one does favours. Thus reciprocity is stronger in small towns, small schools, and small work teams, it is conducive to a community sprit in which people are more likely to care for each other and enjoy being cared for in return. As Donald Campbell (1975) described that human societies have developed ethical and
religious rules that serve as brakes on the biological bias toward self-interest. Batson et al. (1983) believe that religious images of "brotherly and sisterly" Love toward all our fellow (all human beings) "Children of God" in the human "family" extend the reach of kin-linked altruism beyond our biological relatives. Those who are highly spiritually committed go beyond the reach of kin-linked altruism.

The explanation with regard to human altruism is problematic, because evolutionary theory suggests that there should be strong selection process in favour of self-interested behaviour. But recent sociological work modified this principle that evolutionary process can favour altruism leading to reciprocity. Nevertheless, kin and reciprocity theories likely to be inadequate to account for much altruism which is directed toward non-relatives or toward the welfare of large groups. It seems to be obvious that cultural factors may account for such behaviour, attempted to make specific mechanism for the cultural evolution of altruism could not be successful. Therefore it is pertinent to note that the developed elements of evolution theory of altruistic behaviour induced by culture. Hence, it is essential to transfer the notion of Kinship to the cultural sphere, by arguing that altruistic behaviour is directed toward close cultural kin, or toward others with a greater probability of sharing altruistic cultural elements. Allison (1990) argued that the special characteristics of mutual transmission leads to large groupings of mutual altruists than would be predicted by biological kinship mechanisms.
Social Psychologists were curious and concerned about bystanders' lack of involvement during emergency. The term bystander viewed by Social Psychologists that when the witness ignore the problem and fail to provide help. For instance Kitty Genovese was returning from her job, parked her car and was about to enter her apartment building. Suddenly a man ran up to her brandishing a knife, she ran but he chased and caught up, and stabbed her. She screamed for help, and lights came on in many of the apartment windows that overlooked the scene. The attacker ran away and after forty five minutes of initial attack Kitty died as a result of multiple stab. It was reported that thirty eight people heard her screams but no one came forward and offered assistance or even placed a call to police (Rosenthal, 1964). From this example we find that the inaction of the bystanders in this Genovese murder resulted from the fact that many people were present at the scene but not any person felt responsibility for taking action or providing help, this was owing to the diffusion of responsibility. As the number of bystander increases the possibility of providing assistance decreases. The hypothesis of Darley and Latane provided that the presence of others leads to diffusion of responsibility and makes helpfulness less probable.

Altruism is a cognitive aspect of personality traits. Latane and Darley (1970) formulated theoretical model to explain bystanders response to specific emergency situations that sometimes help and or sometimes do not help a victim. They described a helping response as the end point of a series of cognitive decisions. By analysing data to specific emergency situation Lang
(1987) suggested that the extent to which bystanders provide help or fail to help can be categorised at six levels. He found that their responses ranged at six levels of helpfulness and unhelpfulness based on attribution about the victim. Thus help is provided only if appropriate decision is made at each step.

According to Latane and Darly (1970) prosocial behaviour is the end point of a series of decisions. In the process of decision at each step, one decision results in no help being given while the other decision leads the individual one step closer is prosocial behaviour. Thus help is provided only if the appropriate decision is made at each step.

Despite situational variables, altruistic behaviour of individuals likely to be motivated by a strong need for approval, and they are more willing to provide help if they have previously received positive feedback for this kind of behaviour (Deutsch and Lamberti, 1986). Clary and Orenstein (1991) stated that altruistic motives are more important predictors for the individuals who provide help to the victim and altruism on his part seems to be based on his/her socialization experiences (Grusec, 1991).

Bierhoff, Klein and Kramp (1991) reviewed research literature available on altruism and identified a number of possible variables that had been found to be relevant factors of altruistic personality. They identified five characteristics as major components of altruistic personality. These are as stated:

1. Self-concept encompassing empathy - indicates that an individual himself or herself as being responsible and socialized, having self-control,
wanting to make a good impression, achieving goals by means of conformity, and being tolerant.

2. Belief in a just world - indicates the perception of fairness that everybody gets what they deserve.

3. Social responsibility - suggests the idea that we should do our best to help others.

4. Internal locus of control - assumes that individual can behave in such a way as to maximize good outcomes and minimize bad ones; individual is not a helpless pawn at the mercy of luck, fate and other uncontrollable forces.

5. Egocentrism - suggests that those who are primarily concerned with themselves are less willing to help others. Mc Clintock and Allison (1989) found that the individuals whose social values emphasise co-operation are more helpful than those whose individualistic or competitive values are emphasised.

As far as research literature on altruism is concerned a large number of studies have been carried out but we find very few studies which are directly or indirectly related with the problem of present research. However, in reviewing literature we found that classical definition of altruism in evolutionary biology requires that an organism incur a fitness cost in the course of providing others with a fitness benefits. Tooby and Cosmides (1996) stated that new insights are gained by exploring the implications of an adaptationist version of the problem of altruism, as the machinery designed to provide benefits to others. Brink (1997)
developed a metaphysical view of egoism which asserts that people's interests are metaphysically interdependent, that acting on others moral requirement is a way to promote their own interest inspired by the idea of Plato, Aristotle and Green, although it is extending the boundaries of self-love to the good of others. It is argued that metaphysical egoist view can explain interdependence as a social good and as a kind of interrelationship.

Baron (1997) examined the hypothesis that people's voluntary co-operation in social dilemmas, or altruistic behaviour in general will pay off in terms of long run self-interest. Although this is often true, it is typically false in large scale social dilemmas among strangers. He found that subjects endorsed self-interest frequently for large scale dilemmas because in overfishing and population benefits of co-operation are delayed.

Cheung (1998) explained prosocial behaviour by testing the hypothesis of conceptions of success or goal achievement and suggests that success or goal achievement affects both the inclination to and actual performance. He found that task orientation increased the inclination to help, share, co-operate and maintain effective relationship with other while ego orientation was not associated with prosocial inclinations. However, ego orientation was found correlated positively with inclination to co-operate for boys but not girls. Sex differences were also found with regard to the conception of success and antisocial behaviour. Task orientation increased with the number of altruistic acts performed in the past years. Whereas Mills et al. (1989) observed no sex differences regarding altruistic choices, but they differed in terms of the reasons
and emotions about decision, and reported more conflict perhaps attributed to appear empathic due to feminine roles. Women recalled more choices involving caring, while men remembered more task oriented helping.

Gothil, Matthew (1998) attempted to explain the doctor's motivation in terms of altruism and satisfaction. Doctor's consulting behaviour was interpreted in terms of diverse types of audience for whom it is intended. The concept of patient centredness and other possible sources of satisfaction were explored including connection with and disconnection from patients. It is suggested that satisfaction may be determined less by the achievement of specific outcomes than by the experiences of complex interpersonal process.

Khaury et al. (1981) tried to find out the relationship between job satisfaction and altruism. They found a significant correlation between job satisfaction and altruism, particularly among new employees. But no causal relationship was established.
Locus of Control

Behaviour of an individual is controlled to a large extent by its consequences, locus of control was observed to be a dominating factor in determining the person's behaviour. It has been one of the most pervasively employed concepts in psychological researches. Locus of control refers to the disposition to perceive one's own behaviour or as due to extrinsic or external factors. Those who believe that they can exercise some control over their destinies are considered to be internally controlled. Externals believe that their reinforcements are controlled by luck, chance or powerful others (Rotter, 1966).

The locus of control construct is an integral part of social learning theory (Rotter, 1954; Rotter, chance and Phares, 1972). In social learning terminology locus of control is a generalized expectancy pertaining to the connections between personal characteristics and or actions an experience outcomes. This develops out as an obstruction from a number of specific encounters where the person perceives the control as a causal sequence occurring in their lives. For some individuals many outcomes are experienced as dependent upon the effort experienced in their pursuits. Such people may come to believe that the outcomes are generally contingent upon the work put into them. So, they are supposed to act/exert themselves when engaged in important tasks on the other hand the individuals who were less responsive may fail to perceive the connections between efforts and the outcomes. As pointed by Rotter (1954) in social learning theory that the degree to which individual perceives the events in their lives as being a consequence of his own actions and thereby controllable (internal control) or as be uncontrollable on their own behaviour and therefore beyond personal control (external control).

In general locus of control has been reported as a tendency of individual predictability and control over his environment. It assumes individual
differences in terms of degree to which a person feels reinforcing events in the environment as subject to his personal control, perceiving the events in life as being a consequence of his own action/effort and thereby controllable or as being unrelated to his own behaviour, therefore beyond personal control (externally controlled). Empirical researches have shown that there are some people who developed unshakeable belief that valued reinforcement occur only by chance and that man is not the master of his fate. In contrast to it, some others believe that humans get their due desserts because man is responsible for his fate. When these two concepts are put together constitute a major construct in psychological enquiry known as locus of control.

In the literature of psychology when we make use of the abbreviated terms such as I-E (internal-external) for the expedience expression, these two terms (I-E) refer to the descriptions of one's belief or expectancies. If someone describes a person as internal, it means we are designating a person as member of a group who have expressed internal control expectancies about the particular events. A systematic descriptions of Internal-External control dimension which was given by Rotter, Seeman and Livernat (1962) and Rotter, 1966. Their analysis differentiates between I-E on the basis of the degree to which each accepts the personal responsibility for what happen to them. Another description to belief characterising I-E was given by Lefcourt (1966). Internal control refers to the perception of positive and negative as a consequence of one's actions and thus under personal control. The external control refers to the perception of positive or negative event as being unrelated one's behaviour in certain situations and therefore beyond personal control.

The I-E control has been described by De Charms (1972) in terms of origins and pawn variables whose work focuses on personal causation which is somewhat different construct than Locus of control. He defined personal...
causation as the initiation by an individual's behaviour intended to produce a change in his environment. When a person initiates intentional behaviour he experiences himself as having originated the intention and the behaviour. He is the locus of causality of behaviour and the person is said to be intrinsically motivated. Since he himself is the originator, so we refer to the personal as an origin. When something external to the person impels him to behaviour, then the person experiences himself as the instrument of outside sources, and he is said to be extrinsically motivated. Since the person is impelled from without we refer to him as a pawn. We sometimes talk of people as primarily pawns implying that they more characteristically see themselves as pushed around by outside forces. De Charms dimension focuses more upon the perception of one's self as a subject or object of actions whereas the locus of control pertains more to the perception of contingencies between actions and outcomes. Nevertheless the congruities are more salient than differences between these constructs particularly with regard to behavioural references.

Many situations in nature contain cues depending on the degree to which the reinforcements are contingent upon the subject's instrumental acts. So that the individuals have found that they are able to influence the outcomes of situations. They may behave in such a way that their actions produce the reinforcement which follow their efforts or they may feel that rewards and punishments can be meted out to them are as a discretion of powerful others and are in the hands of luck or fate. In fact the same reinforcement in the same situation may be perceived by an individual within his own control and by others as outside his own influence. If an individual is convinced that he has little control over the rewards and punishments he receives, then he has little reason to modify his behaviour in an attempt to alter the probability that those results will occur. It appears from foregoing explanation that the rewards and
punishments should not be so effective in strengthening and weakening the response of the subject.

The locus of control construct utilizes three major components as far as the measurement and the prediction of one's behaviour is concerned. These three major components are as stated below.

1. Behaviour Potential: It may be defined as the potentiality of any behaviour that occur in any given situation as calculated in relation to any single reinforcement or set of reinforcement. It has been recognised that reinforcement is a major determinant of behaviour and the reinforcements are identifiable events that have the effect of increasing or decreasing the potentiality for occurrence of the behaviour. The value of any reinforcement is ideally defined as the degree of preference for any reinforcement to occur. If the possibilities of occurring of that behaviour were all equal.

2. Expectancy: It refers to the probability or contingency held by the person that any specific reinforcement or group of reinforcements will occur in any given situation. Expectancy is not a probability that determine in actual terms but it may be considered to be operational in both ways (a) a functional probability and (b) a generalization of expectancy from other related behaviour.

3. Reinforcement Value: Individual differences have been found out in terms of degree to which a person perceives the Locus of control event is determined by his own behaviour or attributes rather than by fate, luck or external forces. When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as a result of some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his actions, then it might be typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, or fate as under the control of powerful others or as unpredictable because of the much complexity of the forces surrounding the person. When an event is interpreted by an individual in this way then we have levelled this kind of belief as external control. When a person
perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behaviour or his own relatively permanent characteristics and this type of belief is termed as internal control.

Various measures have been developed to assess internal vs. external control. The first attempt to measure individual difference generalized expectancy was begun by Phares (1957).

In fact credit goes to two eminent disciples of Rotter-Phares (1957), James (1957) have honor to develop a scale for the measurement of locus of control as an interpersonal variables. Undoubtedly Rotter’s (1966) I.E scale has been widely used by the researchers to assess the generalized locus of control orientation.

Weiner (1974) added a new dimension to locus of control construct through conceptualization of causal attribution, whether a person attributes the outcomes to internal or external causes. He further classified internality-externality on stability variability dimension providing a total of four categories of factors to which outcomes may be attributed. These are as follows:

Internal Stable - Internal stable which do not change easily for example ability.
Internal Variable - that can vary or change for example effort.
External Stable - for example difficulty of a task.
External Variable - for example luck, fate or chance.

As pointed out by Lefcourt (1976) persons with such contrasting perspective differ considerably in terms of degree to which they are able to assimilate and learn from their experiences. According to him the fatalists perceive no contingency between action and outcome while those persons exposing internal control beliefs readily perceive such contingencies.

Many studies have been conducted related to social learning theory of Rotter. The theory explains that the perceived control occupies a central place within a systematic formulation (Rotter, 1954, 1971; Rotter, Chance and Phares
(1972) where perceived controlism referred to as a generalized expectancy of internal or external control of reinforcement. The generalized expectancy of internal control refers here the perception of event whether positive or negative as being consequence of one's own action and thereby potentially under personal control. The generalised expectancy of external control on the other hand, refers to the perception of positive or negative events as being unrelated to one's behaviour and thereby beyond personal control (Lefcourt, 1976).

Researches have shown that the locus of control is associated with the cognitive activity of individuals, i.e. person holding internal control expectancies are found more cautious and calculating about their choices, involvement and personal entanglement than those with external control orientations. Seeman and Evans (1962) reported that external oriented tubercular patients had less knowledge about tuberculosis than internal tubercular patients. Investigation of this finding has been verified in a number of researches (Davis and Phares, 1967; Phares, 1968).

Another cognitive function that has been found to be associated with locus of control is attention. Phares, 1957; James, 1957; Rotter, 1970; Rotter; 1990; Rotter and Mulry, 1965 and Lefcourt, 1976, reported that internals devote more attention to decision about skilled related matters than externals. According to Wolk and Du Cette (1974); "it appears that the external does not make full use of his attentional system until stimuli are more prominent but for the internal subjects such an explanation is redundant, since his strategy has been to deal with task in more organised fashion all alone". Research findings have generally supported the notion that a belief in the contingency between one's efforts and outcomes. It is argued that the characteristics like persistence despite prominent failure, postponement of immediate pleasure etc., which are essential to any prolonged achievement effort, will occur only among those who strongly
believes that they through their own efforts, achieve the desired goals. Initially
this notion was supported by the work of Crandall, Kalkovasky and Preston
(1962). As pointed out by Gore (1962) internals are not more resistant to the
external influence, in general than external but they resist a certain type of
influence. It is reported by Retchie and Phares (1967) that externals shifted their
ways when the influential arguments were attributed to a prestigious
government official. However, internals did not differ in their response as a
function of the status of source. Further, results obtained by James, Woodruff
and Weiner (1965) supported to the Gore’s findings.

In the realm of industrial and organisational researches locus of control
has been considered as an important factor affecting job attitude and behaviour
of people in organisational life.

Organ and Greene (1974) have reported that locus of control was
significantly related with role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Mitchell, Smyser
and Weed (1975) found out significant relationship between job satisfaction and
locus of control. Pestonjee and Singh (1982) observed that locus of control was
significantly related to only one role stressor viz. self role distance, out of eight
different types of stressors studied. However, the result obtained by Pestonjee
and Singh (1982) supported the contention of Organ and Greene (1974) that the
relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction differs from those
having belief in their own control of the situation (internal) to those who believe
that they are controlled by some outside forces (external). Lester (1982) reported
that the subjects having belief in an external locus of control experienced more
stress than the subjects who believed in an internal locus of control.

Spector (1982) reported that internals have been found more satisfied with
their job than externals. In a study of bank and insurance employees Kulkarni
(1983) reported a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and
locus of control. Rahman and Kumar (1984) explored the relationship of locus of control with absenteeism among blue collar workers. They found that absenteeism was independent of locus of control, job experience and educational level. Marino and White (1985) reported a significant negative effect of stress among externally controlled subjects. While Blau (1987) fully supported the finding of Spector (1982).

In a study of public sector and private sector engineers Das and Agrwal (1990) found that the engineers of internal locus of control has significantly better job satisfaction in comparison to engineers with external locus of control. It indicates that the locus of control dimension can serve as a potential personality variable that is capable of determining the goal-oriented behaviour of employees. The locus of control construct may also facilitate the understanding of individual differences in organisation.

Ruggiero et al. (1997) by an empirical study tried to examine the self-esteem and perceived control to explain the attitude of minority group members regarding discrimination. Minority group sometime perceived discrimination but most of the time minimize the discrimination, and attributed their failure to themselves. By perceiving discrimination as a reason for failure, they protected their performance and self-esteem. Contrary to this, by minimising discrimination they protected their social state, self-esteem and maintained the perception of control in the performance and social domains. It is suggested that they minimize discrimination because consequences of doing so are Psychologically beneficial to them.

Siu and Cooper (1998) found that internals were highly satisfied with their job while externals were dissatisfied with their job and thought of quitting the job. Valentine (1999) examine relationship between locus of control, job
satisfaction and job complexity. It was found that locus of control was related to job satisfaction.

It is obvious from the review of the above studies that job satisfaction has been extensively explored phenomenon. But it does not mean that shut the door of research on job satisfaction. However, much efforts have been made by a number of investigators towards understanding and describing the concept and nature of job satisfaction and its impact on overall organisational performance. While progress has been made in finding out the effects of work related situation of personality of the person on job satisfaction. Comparatively a very few studies have been done to find out or to see the influence of personality variables on levels of job satisfaction of medical professionals. Keeping this view in mind the present study was planned, taking altruism and locus of control as personality variable in proposed research. It was also aimed to determine the effect of certain biographical variables such as age, sex, marital status, experience and religion of the subjects on the level of job satisfaction. The sample selected seems to be a unique feature of the present study. Job satisfaction has been mostly studied on industrial employees, university, college, school teachers, banking employees etc. Therefore, present study was planned to conduct on doctors working in medical college. As far as the context is concerned very few attempts have been made to examine the influence of locus of control on job satisfaction.

Madhu (1997) explored the medical profession and practice in an Indian hospital, focusing on the social background and role of doctors in the context of their behaviour and attitudes. Results indicated that most of the doctors were satisfied with their profession, despite unfair terms of service, hard and tedious work and unsatisfactory financial rewards.
The doctor's job satisfaction is much important for hospital management in creating patient caring culture in the hospital and high turnover of doctors with altruistic attitude. The level of satisfaction of doctors with the working conditions and other related factors seem to play significant role in dealing with the patients. A satisfied work force of doctors may provide greater support to patients.

Keeping in view the factors as discussed earlier which are associated with job satisfaction, the present study aims to investigate job satisfaction among doctors as related to work commitment, altruism and locus of control, and certain biographical factors such as age, sex, marital status, experience and religion. The hypothesis plays significant role in drawing inferences regarding population from which the sample is drawn. In the light of available literature the following null hypotheses are formulated to verify the results.

Null Hypotheses

Ho1. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of highly committed and low committed group of doctors.

Ho2. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of high and low Altruistic groups of doctors.

Ho3. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of internally and externally controlled group of doctors.

Ho4. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction score of high age and low age group of doctors.

Ho5. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction score of male and female doctors.

Ho6. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of doctors having high and low experience.
Ho7. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction score of married and unmarried group of doctors.

Ho8. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Hindu and Muslim doctors.

Ho9. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of High commitment High age and Low age group of doctors.

Ho10. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low commitment High age and Low age group of doctors.

Ho11. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Highly committed Male and Female doctors.

Ho12. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low committed Male and Female doctors.

Ho13. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Highly committed High experience and Low experience group of doctors.

Ho14. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low committed High experience and Low experience group of doctors.

Ho15. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Highly committed Married and Unmarried group of doctors.

Ho16. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low committed Married and Unmarried group of doctors.

Ho17. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Highly committed Hindu and Muslim group of doctors.

Ho18. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low committed Hindu and Muslim group of doctors.
Ho19. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Highly Altruistic High age and High Altruistic Low age group of doctors.

Ho20. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low Altruistic High age and Low Altruistic Low age group of doctors.

Ho21. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of High Altruistic Male and Female doctors.

Ho22. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low Altruistic Male and Female doctors.

Ho23. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of High Altruistic High experience and High Altruistic Low experience group of doctors.

Ho24. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low Altruistic High experience and Low Altruistic Low experience group of doctors.

Ho25. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of High Altruistic Married and Unmarried doctors.

Ho26. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low Altruistic Married and Unmarried doctors.

Ho27. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of High Altruistic Hindu and Muslim doctors.

Ho28. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of Low Altruistic Hindu and Muslim doctors.

Ho29. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of married male and unmarried male doctors.
Ho30. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of married woman and unmarried woman doctors.

Ho31. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Internally controlled High and Low age group of doctors.

Ho32. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Externally controlled High and Low age group of doctors.

Ho33. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Internally controlled Male and Female doctors.

Ho34. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Externally controlled Male and Female doctors.

Ho35. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Internally controlled High and Low experienced group of doctors.

Ho36. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Externally controlled High and Low experienced group of doctors.

Ho37. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Internally controlled Hindu and Internally controlled Muslim doctors.

Ho38. There will not be significant difference between the level of job satisfaction scores of Externally controlled Hindu and externally controlled Muslim doctors.