CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION
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1.1.0 PRESENT STUDY

Indian Educational System, copied from the western model and initiated by the colonial government, was geared to the administrative needs of creating a body of Indians who could help running modern administration (Naik 1965). It seemed to be functional to the extent the alumni with general higher educational credentials were absorbed in the administrative and top white-collar jobs. Even today, as intended in the initial period, the bulk of alumni in India who pass through the University, including the failed graduates and the drop outs, think of salaried jobs rather than independent livelihood; and the University education is primarily regarded as a passport to salaried employment (Rao, 1961). The University education thus seems to generate and heighten the job aspirations in its clients. With such escalated job aspirations the alumni seem to enter
the job market.

The unprecedented expansion in general higher education in recent years, coupled with the inherent limitations of the nation in absorbing the entire University products in the top positions, however, seems to make such alumni with escalated job aspirations opt for low level clerical jobs which could be performed even by persons with no college education. The employing agencies too seem to look certain superior qualities in candidates with higher education. Thus their alleged superiority helps them in getting appointed to such positions in preference to candidates with no college education.

In such a context the present investigation is undertaken with the main objective of finding out if in reality the employees with higher educational certification, working in certain positions which are normally open to persons who do not hold such credentials, are significantly superior in job efficiency to the latter. It is also sought to be established which type of employees, e.g., the ones with higher or lower credentials, are likely to feel greater job satisfaction in the job functioning and what is the interrelationship between job satisfaction and job efficiency.

Likewise it would be of academic interest to know what type
of pre-job job aspirations get generated and/or escalated during the period of education and in what way such aspirations get associated with the job satisfaction and job efficiency of such alumni when they take up jobs. Finally, it would be of significance to know (a) the relative strength of the concomitant job satisfaction of length of education and length of service, and (b) the relative strength of the concomitant job efficiency of length of education and length of service. That is, it is sought to be found out: (1) who would be more job satisfied, the one with more education or the one with more service, and (2) who would be more efficient, the one with more education or the one with more service.

Thus the present investigation sought to find out the relationships between the following pairs of job correlates:

1. Education and Pre-job Job Aspirations;
2. Education and Job Satisfaction;
3. Education and Job Efficiency;
4. Pre-job Job Aspirations and Job Satisfaction;
5. Pre-job Job Aspirations and Job Efficiency;
6. Job Satisfaction and Job Efficiency;
7. Job Efficiency Vis-a-Vis length of Service and Education; and
8. Job Satisfaction Vis-a-Vis length of Service and Education.

A review of the research done in these areas is attempted
in the following pages in order to place the present problem in a proper research perspective.

1.2.0 EDUCATION AND PRE-JOB JOB ASPIRATIONS

Some research in the field of job, vocational or occupational aspirations is reported. Mostly it deals with the occupational preferences of high school students. Some studies focus on the demographic determinants of such preferences which generally are the determinants of the academic status of the students as well. These demographic determinants are: age, sex, community background, socioeconomic, educational and professional status of the parents, the level of the intelligence (and academic achievement) of the student, and, the academic status (performance) of the institution where the student has studied.

Muthiah (1967) wanted to explore if, among the adolescents, change in age consistently brings about a change in the levels of aspirations. Drawing his (N = 235) subjects from the age group of 13-17 from classes, IX to XI, of Madras city schools, he reported a gradual and consistent (though not significant in all cases) increase in the levels of aspirations with age.

Grigg and Middleton (1960) reporting a study of (N = 26,313)
white 9th grade students in Florida find support for the hypothesis that a positive association exists between the size of the community orientation and occupational aspirations of the male, but not the female students. They also report that an overwhelming choice of the girls is to remain as housewives rather than to seek jobs.

Haller and Sewell (1957) sought to test Lipset's hypothesis that the farm persons achieve relatively inferior urban occupations. They sought to test the hypothesis by comparing the occupational and educational aspirations of a rural with an urban sample. They found out that among the high school senior girls neither educational, nor occupational aspirations are significantly related to residence. Among boys, it is the educational aspiration, rather than the occupational, which is found to be associated with residential background and is not to be explained by intelligence.

George and Mathew (1966) who studied the school leaving pupils reported; (i) relatively higher vocational choices and a greater dispersal of such choices of boys when compared to girls'; and (ii) a positive correlation between (a) high castes and high professional choice, (b) urban background and high Professional choice, (c) academic achievement of the students and high professional choice, (d) high parental income and high professional choice and (e) high parental
Boyle (1966), using the data from a survey of Canadian high school girls, wanted to establish the priorities of the possible explanations (viz., (1) financial resources, (2) educational opportunities, and (3) the socio-cultural context of the community life) for the adolescent residents of smaller communities having lower aspirations than the adolescent residents of larger communities. His analysis indicates that educational opportunity explains most of the relationship; and when both educational opportunity and community context are controlled, all relations between community size and college aspirations disappear.

Mathur (1974) reported adolescents having a higher level of educational aspiration and vocational aspiration than their economic conditions would permit.

Bender et al. (1967) report the results of an Arkansas study concerned with occupational aspirations of senior high school boys. The major conclusions of the analysis are that occupational capabilities and aspirations are not closely related, and that a lack of capabilities may be a more limiting factor than aspiration levels in the occupational achievement of the rural youth. The level of occu-
pational aspirations of the senior boys in the low income rural Arkansas countries appeared to be similar to those in higher income industrial countries, where the same instrument had been administered. A large proportion of the students aspired to the professional, technical, and managerial occupations than could be expected to succeed under current conditions.

Muthiah (1968), investigating (N = 252) adolescent boys and girls studying in classes IX to XI in the schools in Madras and Coorg, reported that the subjects were characterised by having aspirations just above their levels of performance.

Joshi (1963) studying the college students in Saugar found that intelligence and levels of vocational aspirations were positively correlated.

Passi (1968), who studied patterns of vocational aspirations among higher secondary school students in relation to levels of intelligence and grades, reported that over the two-thirds of the students of different levels of intelligence studying in IX, X and XI grades aspired for professional (medical and engineering) and teaching occupations. Generally they disfavoured agriculture, skilled work (mechanic), clerical and certain other occupations.
Thus a review of research done indicates (1) a discernible trend to the effect that the pupils generally have higher level of occupational aspirations than their own native intelligence or socio-economic situation would permit, and (2) a positive relationship between age, sex, community size, educational opportunities, cultural context, academic achievement and the financial and the professional status of the parents, and the academic achievement of the students (in which are generally reflected the rest of the demographic factors mentioned) on the one hand and their higher occupational aspirations on the other. In summing up it can be said that while there is a positive correlation between education and the occupational aspirations, students tend to have relatively higher occupational aspirations than their situation would permit.

But the general thrust of the research has been to focus on the occupational aspirations of the high school students. So far no study has been undertaken to measure the association of general higher education and the occupational or the job aspirations of the college students, particularly in view of the fact that the general higher education, unlike the professional education, generally does not seem to prepare the students for specific professions, though the students have to take to some occupation or the other during their post education period. And no study has envisaged to measure
the association of such aspirations with the future job satisfaction and job efficiency, after the alumni have joined the service. Thus an investigation directed to study the job aspirations and the associations of such aspirations, which the alumni are likely to carry with them to the job situations, with their job satisfaction and job efficiency as job-holders, appeared to be in order.

1.3.0 EDUCATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

Even a casual look at the academic credentials held by clerical workers in various offices would reveal the entire range and gamut of qualifications: from non-matriculation to double post-graduation and even still more (Rao, 1961). Obviously, some are more qualified than their compatriots. The question that logically stems from such a situation is, who will be more job satisfied, the one with more or with less qualifications?

Considerable quantum of research has been directed to answer this question mostly in the U.S., where the research evidence seems to suggest an inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction. A review of the research done would confirm such a suggestion.

Carrel and Elbert (1974) undertook a research work with the
objective of identifying some of the personal and organisational variables which determine the job satisfaction of postal clerks. Besides other findings, they found an inverse relationship between 'education level' and satisfaction, with the college graduates being the least satisfied and those with less than a high school diploma being the most satisfied.

Vollmer and Kinney (1955) report unambiguous results in a study of more than \( N = 2220 \) civilians employed by the U.S. Army's Ordinance Corps in the 1950s. The per cent of those employees "satisfied" and "highly satisfied" went down, and the per cent "dissatisfied" went up, as educational achievements went up from grammar school, through high school, and up to college.

Goldner, as quoted by Berg (1973), considered satisfaction with their promotion of \( N = 337 \) managers employed by a large electronics manufacturer in 1963. He reported that satisfaction was inversely related to educational achievements among managers.

Anjaneyulu (1974), who studied the job satisfaction in the secondary school teachers in A.P., India, found that the post-graduate teachers were more dissatisfied than the other teachers with less educational qualifications.
Iver Berg (1973) cites in his book two IBM researchers who studied the educational credentials and work satisfaction of (N = 727) employees, half of the first level supervisory personnel in a large American corporation in the context of the so called reference groups of these personnel. The researchers conclude, "we would expect that having attended college would negatively affect satisfaction with pay since, for any given pay level, the college trained person will be further away from the set of expectations he holds for himself". Berg sums up thus, "The findings were that satisfaction goes down with increasing education and that, although optimistic 'external' expectations reduced the magnitude of observed relationship, the differences by educational achievement remained greater than would be likely by chance".

Centres and Centril (1956) who made an investigation to find out the relationship between education and job satisfaction concluded that the best paid workers, who presumably were not doing tedious work and had lower educational achievements, were the employees with the highest levels of job satisfaction. This conclusion indirectly supports the theory of inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction.

In a 1957 review, Herzberg et al. located 13 relevant
studies and they reported that

"... five show no difference in job attitudes among workers differing in education, three show an increase in morale with increased education, another five show that the higher these workers' educational level, the lower their morale ... . The three studies showing increased morale with education are in no case inclusive ..., (they) were carried out either with groups having a restricted range of education, or with groups in unusual circumstances (e.g. retarded workers)".

Thus the research evidence conclusively seems to support the hypothesis that an inverse relationship exists between education and job satisfaction.

And yet in India the job situation is slightly different. Because of the kind of unemployment situation that is obtained here, the competition for the scarce jobs seems to help people with more education to trickle into clerical job positions, enlarging the range of educational credentials of the clerical workers. The difficult employment situation, moreover, has curtailed the scope for inter-occupational mobility of the job-holders to the maximum. Nor do we come across, generally, the tradition of the pre-job job training of the prospective clerical personnel. These aspects add new dimensions to the situation of job satisfaction of the clerical workers in India. Such dimensions therefore warranted a separate investigation into the phenomenon of job satisfac-
tion of clerical workers with varying educational qualifications. Hence the attempt.

1.4.0 EDUCATION AND JOB EFFICIENCY

There does not seem to be a single relationship between education and job efficiency, particularly when the education is not directly related to the job performance. The research evidence available does not seem to be conclusive either, yielding all types of relationships, positive, neutral and negative, between years of education and job performance.

Some studies have revealed a positive correlation between education and job efficiency.

Becker (1964) sought to determine, among other things, whether the individual returns on marginal investments are explained by the fact that higher paid, better educated employees are more able. In that context a positive association between ability and educational achievement of the employees was identified.

Brockaw (1963) undertook an extensive study of \( N = 4458 \) graduates of eight technical courses. One of the purposes
of the study was to appraise the prospective enlistees as desirable addition to the U.S. Air Force. His data reveal a modest but positive relationship between high school completion and course grades in only three of the eight programmes. Brockaw concludes that information about educational achievement makes a significant contribution to an effort to predict technical school success.

Flyer (1959), a U.S. Air Force investigator, who studied factors relating to discharge for unsuitability among 1956 airman accessions to the Air Force, concluded that high school graduates have a lower probability of being discharged as unsuitable than high school drop outs.

Wise (1975) examined the relationship between the measures of academic achievement and other personal characteristics and job productivity of college graduates working in a large corporation. He concludes that the hypothesis of no relation between academic achievement and job performance must be rejected for the sample of college graduates. He says that if persons with the same level of education can be distinguished by the "quality" of their degrees, then surely there would be an even greater difference in job performance between persons with different levels of education; for example high school versus college. The measures used in selection and certification are not only related to productive traits, but
the evidence suggests that college education enhanced the productive capabilities of these persons.

Palwi and Sudhani (1968) studied the factors that contributed to the job effectiveness of village level workers (V.L.Ws). They interviewed \((N = 97)\) V.L.Ws. They found a strong association between formal educational status and the job effectiveness of the V.L.Ws.

While the above cited researches yield a positive correlation between years of education and general performance or productivity scores during the post-education period, there are studies which do not find any relationship at all. Berg (1973) mentions two studies to this effect.

In a 1967 communication to Berg, Uhlaner, Director of Laboratories, U.S. Army Personnel Research Officer, Department of Army, noted that Army's Personnel Laboratory had for years sought to make the Army classification Battery a more valid device for personnel assignment. Towards this end, the Laboratory compared enlisted men's scores on this battery with their formal educational achievements in conjunction with performance in Army Schools of all kinds. The "formal education" variable, he wrote,
...may be dismissed... (Its) validity
efficients... were substantially less than the magni-
tude of the co-efficients for the more valid ACB (Army
Certification Battery) tests.

After obtaining the above findings for occupa-
tional group after group in our prediction studies, we
stopped mentioning the variable of years of education in
our reports, although it is still included in the design".

Milarsky, formerly of the Prudential Insurance Company,
who conducted studies of "debit agents" employed across
the U.S., by the Prudential Insurance Company, in a commu-
nication to Berg (1973) provided data on the sales accompli-
ishment and education of each of four age groups among the
(N = 4000) subjects that had been studied by Prudentials'
personnel researchers. The results were entirely anamolous
when the agents' records were examined in connection with
their educational achievements. The records of high school
graduates rarely differed by more than a few percentage points
from those of comparably numerous college graduates of simi-
lar age, operating in similar markets; sometimes the less
educated men did the better, although, a few did no well as
their better educated compeers. Prudential, which did
extensive research in its personnel practices, does not
even consider formal education in the weighted application
forms now used in the selection of agents.
Chatterjee et al. (1974) intended to examine the effect of educational level, culture, grade or division, and age upon the scores on the General Ability Test of the applicants to various courses of Indian Statistical Institute in the year, 1968. The findings revealed that the above mentioned factors did not play an important role in making the performance on General Ability Test Battery different and that wide variations in the performance of candidates with different academic background on the G.A. Test Battery did not exist.

While some investigations have revealed positive association between education and efficiency or productivity, some have revealed no relationship as is evident from the foregoing discussion. Here under are listed some researches which have found out a negative association between the two i.e., education and efficiency.

In a study of \(N = 762\) workers in four departments of a Southern hosiery manufacturing plant, Abramoff (1968) found productivity and turnover being related to age, family stability and a number of intra-organisational factors, but they were not associated with educational achievement among day-shift workers; education was inversely related to both measures of performance among employees on the night-shift in the company.
In a U.S. Navy study, Anderson (1962), correlating the educational achievement of \( N = 415 \) electronic technicians with their proficiency scores on each of seventeen concrete tasks, in conjunction with their age and pay grades (which is to say, the experience of these skilled men), found that educational achievements were negatively (though not significantly) associated with performance.

As reported by Berg (1973), Humphery (1973), another U.S. Air Force researcher commented that "years of education are almost unrelated to objective measures of proficiency on the job . . . . Within the Air Force, completing of High School is thus not a useful criterion for assignment to school or on the job".

Yet in another white-collar study by Cannon (1969), the performance in 125 branch offices of a major New York Bank, measured by turnover data and the number of lost counts per teller, was inversely associated with the educational achievements of \( N = 500 \) workers. There was also evidence that performance was worst in precisely those branches in which, the educational achievements being higher, the managers stressed education in consultation with tellers concerning their future with the bank.

In a blue-collar workers' study, Inskeep and Berg (1967)
collected data on the productivity, turnover and absenteeism of (N = 585) female workers in a Multi-plant Mississippi Textile Manufacturing company. They found an inverse relationship between educational achievement and worker performance. They concluded that the education of high producers did not differ from that of low producers to any statistically significant degree, although the less productive ones were slightly better educated.

Thus the evidence emanating from the researches done in the area does not seem to indicate a conclusive relationship between years of education and performance on the job during the post-education period.

Moreover, inspite of the fact that quite a large number of highly educated people join the clerical services in India, no research has sought, so far, to find out if the education they got will any way gets associated with their performance on the job. In the absence of a conclusive evidence from the research done so far, a research need in this direction, to establish the relationship between years of education and job performance of clerical workers, appeared quite relevant.
1.5.0 OTHER CORRELATES

Considerable research has been done in the areas, (1) 'education and job aspiration', (2) 'education and job satisfaction', and (3) 'education and job efficiency' and the researches have been well documented. But certain other related areas, particularly, (4) 'pre-job job aspirations and job satisfaction', and (5) 'pre-job job aspirations and job efficiency' did not attract the attention of the researchers so much. To a great extent the area, (6) 'job satisfaction and job efficiency' has been well attended to. But again the areas pertaining to the measurement of 'the relative effectiveness of education and length of service (7) on job satisfaction and (8) on job efficiency' still remain to be virgin fields. So the correlates (4 - 8) have been clubbed together for the sake of convenience for the review of the related literature, as not much of literature is available in these areas as a whole.

1.5.1 Job Aspirations (pre-job) and Job Satisfaction

Pre-job job aspirations get formed because of various demographic factors like sex, age, caste, community size, region, parental education, profession and economic status, and educational achievement of the incumbent, etc., (1.2.0). As all these demographic factors generally influence the
formation of the levels of pre-job job aspirations, it is not difficult to hypothesize that individuals enter jobs with such aspirations. The job one enters may or may not be in consonance with the level of his own pre-job job aspiration and his job satisfaction thus seems to depend upon the congruity of these two factors viz., pre-job job aspirations and the level of the job held. The greater the congruity, the higher the level of job satisfaction one is likely to have. Berg (1973) says that workers who hold high level jobs and whose occupational expectations have therefore been more nearly fulfilled, are more likely to be satisfied than those with frustrated job dreams.

If the level of the job one enters falls short of the level of his pre-job job aspiration, it could be assumed that the job performance will not yield him the desired satisfaction. In case one enters a job which falls far above his level of pre-job job aspiration, probably one is likely to get relatively more satisfaction. There is a considerable research support for the hypothesis that job satisfaction increases with job level. Katzell (1964) documents the association of personal expectations of workers with their job attitudes. Inkles (1960) concludes that, 'that the job satisfaction increases with job level' gets fully and consistently supported in other industrial nations, although the over all percentage differences in satisfaction among countries are considerable.
In the Indian situation the present research seeks to find the state of job satisfaction of clerical workers in the context of the relationship between pre-job job aspirations and levels of jobs held by them presently.

1.5.2 Job Aspiration (Pre-job) and Job Efficiency

Not much research has been done in this area too. Most of the job entrants seem to have pre-job job aspirations. With varying levels of job aspirations they enter the jobs and display varying measures of job performance. But will there be any relationship between the pre-job job aspirations and the job performance when they enter the jobs?

Muthiah (1961) attempts to find out the relationship between aspirations and performance in different tasks administered in a normal experimental setting. A trial-by-trial analysis of performance and aspiration was made in one task to find out whether one's performance influences in setting one's aspiration level or whether one's performance is dependent upon the height of the preceding aspiration. The results of the experiment lead to the conclusion that one's past performance influences one in setting one's aspiration rather than aspiration tending to have any influence or force on one's performance. One's aspiration is mostly decided on the basis of one's performance which is a sign of one's ability.
one's aspiration will not have any influence on one's performance.

Muthiah (1961) worked in a work setting where each performance helped in formulating the subsequent level of aspiration relating to that specific work. But the pre-job job aspirations as contemplated in this research are not the ones formulated in a job setting. They might have been the results of the multiple demographic factors and may not have direct relevance to a job situation. Thus when individuals with a variety of aspirations enter identical jobs, can a meaningful relationship between such pre-job job aspirations and the job performance be discerned? In the absence of an empirical answer to the poser, a research need in this direction was felt warranted.

1.5.3 Job Satisfaction and Job Efficiency

The mutual relationship between job satisfaction and job efficiency has been the subject of many a research venture and considerable research evidence is available which indicates no simple relationship between these two correlates.

Ronan (1970) collected data concerning job satisfaction using 32 items from a questionnaire for a sample of \( N = 1310 \) managerial-supervisory, \( N = 364 \) salaried, and \( N = 6212 \) hourly
employees. In the same organization, data descriptive of work units and behaviours in the units (as tardiness) were collected. The two sets of data were inter correlated and factor analysed. In general this study has shown relatively modest relationship between satisfaction, contextual, and performance variables.

Wanous (1974) gathered job satisfaction and performance data from about 80 newly hired female telephone operators after one and three months experience. This was not an experimental study, but tentative casual inferences were drawn from longitudinal data. The overall relationship between satisfaction and performance was highly positive, but the direction of causality was not clear.

Kesselman at al. (1974) examined relationship between performance and satisfaction with specific job facets for two samples of telephone company workers. In the contingent system, pay was based on piece rates and promotions were tied to performance. In the non-contingent system, these rewards were based on seniority. Performance levels were similar under these two systems. However, in the performance contingent sample, performance was related to satisfaction with the work itself, pay and promotion. In the seniority sample, performance was related to satisfaction with interpersonal factors, pay and work.
Even (1973) citing Vroom (1964) says that industrial and organizational psychologists are well aware that satisfied employees do not necessarily perform better on the job, than those who are dissatisfied as the extensive review of literature by Vroom has revealed a median correlation between job satisfaction and job performance of only .14, indicating that there is no simple relationship between these two variables.

Many different explanations for these findings have been offered. One theory hypothesizes that correlation between job satisfaction and job performance is influenced by the pressure of production (Triandis, 1959). This hypothesis was put to test in an educational setting to the students offering a course in introductory psychology, wherein the main goal of the students was to earn credits. The results suggest that differences in pressure for production and task difficulty may, at least to some extent, explain the perplexing variety of results that are obtained when researches correlate job satisfaction with job performance.

Sutermeister (1971) has propounded a cyclical model of the satisfaction and performance relationship. Life style ("climber, conserver, or slider") is viewed as an important determinant of level of aspiration, which, in turn, effects individual effort in the work situation. The cyclical model
states that satisfaction and performance are causes of each other. The closer (and presumably stronger) linkage, however, runs from performance to satisfaction.

Basing their investigation on the findings of the previous researches, namely,

a) that goals and intentions are the most immediate motivational determinants of task performance;

b) that external incentives affect behaviour through their effects on goals; and

c) that emotional (affective) reactions are the results of value judgements.

Locke et al. (1970) sought to find out how evaluation and emotions lead to goal setting. It was argued that being dissatisfied with one's past performance generates the desire (and goal) to change one's performance, whereas satisfaction with one's performance produces the desire (and goal) to repeat or maintain one's previous performance level. Five experiments were reported in which

a) satisfaction was predicted from value judgements;

b) goal setting was predicted from satisfaction, and

c) performance was predicted from goals.

In nearly all cases the correlations were both high and/or
significant. It was however, found that in some cases the level of performance that yielded satisfaction in the past was not necessarily that produced in the future. In these cases it was individuals' anticipated (rather than past) satisfaction that best predicted subsequent goal setting.

In a separate paper, Locke (1970) presents a theoretical rationale for understanding the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. It is argued that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are properly conceived of as outcomes of action. The effect of performance on satisfaction is viewed as a function of the degree to which performance entails or leads to the attainment of the individual's important job values. It is acknowledged that emotions such as satisfaction and dissatisfaction are important incentives to action in that they entail action tendencies (i.e., approach and avoidance). Emotions are, however, not seen as determining action. It is argued that performance is the direct result of the individual's specific task or work goals and that these goals are, in turn, determined by the individual's values, knowledge, and beliefs in the context of the situation as he understands it.

The present researcher has attempted a diagrammatic representation of ideas contained in Locke et al. (1970) and Locke (1970), the review of which has immediately preceded.
External Incentives

Goals \rightarrow Motivation \rightarrow Task Performance \rightarrow Satisfaction

Emotions

Values

(Value judgements)

Thus it can be observed that while satisfaction is one of the factors that help in shaping the goals, and indirectly influences the performance, it flows entirely from performance, demonstrating a stronger and a closer linkage between performance and satisfaction than between satisfaction and performance, though the mutual linkage cannot be denied. As the research review has indicated, the linkages between performance and satisfaction do not seem to indicate a single relationship. This prompted taking up the present research which has been directed to find out the relationship between the clerical satisfaction and the clerical efficiency in the Indian context.

1.5.4 Job Efficiency Vis-a-Vis Length of Service and Education

While some alumni join clerical (white-collar) jobs soon after
achieving minimum requirements of schooling, many enter the jobs after prolonged periods of schooling (education). It is reasonable to assume that length of schooling and length of service will have their own influence on job efficiency. But, so far, no research has sought to measure the relative influence of these two factors, viz., education and length of service on job efficiency of clerical workers. Hence the present research.

1.5.5 Job Satisfaction Vis-a-Vis Length of Service and Education

While some alumni join clerical services with matriculation as their basic qualification, others attain higher educational credentials and become clerks. It is not unreasonable to assume that all of them would not derive an identical measure of job satisfaction in their day to day functioning as clerks.

But so far no research has sought to measure the relative influence of these two factors, i.e., education and length of service on job satisfaction of clerical workers. Hence the present research.

1.6.0 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The research under report sought to find out the 'Relationship
Between General Higher Education and Job Aspirations, Job Satisfaction and Job Efficiency of Non-Professional Job-holders.

The professional education, like engineering or medicine, trains its clientele for specific occupations. The job or occupational aspirations, the professional education generates, are normally in congruity with the kind of the occupational positions one is likely to hold in future and the education that is imparted is in accordance with the occupational role one is expected to play. Since one is likely to get into a profession one aspires for and since one is likely to be asked to play a role one is trained for, a certain measure of uniformity in the resultant job satisfaction and job performance of such personnel can be reasonably expected.

1.6.1 But the general higher education is not normally intended to prepare individuals for specific occupational roles. The majority of the students in colleges and Universities obviously seem to drift from year to year without any specific occupational purpose. The higher education, nevertheless seems to help generate certain job aspirations in its clientele. But what is the relationship between the higher educational credentials and the possible levels of the aspirations generated? What type of job aspirations get associated with higher education? Will the alumni be prepared
to do any work which involves physical labour and whereby they soil their hands? Will the college or University education help them in preferring professions which lay great premium on individual initiative, dash and dynamism - the self employment ventures? Or does it mentally prepare them only to undertake teaching executive and white-collar positions? It would be quite interesting to ask, of all those persons who are presently working as clerks, how many did actually aspire to become clerks as students? In short, what is the direction of the thrust of such pre-job job aspirations which get associated with general higher education?

1.6.2 In the context of the dynamics of 'employment situation' many an alumnus, with varying lengths of schooling or various types of educational credentials, end up their job seeking ventures by landing themselves in clerical positions - the white-collar or non-professional jobs. They find themselves rubbing their occupational elbows with their less educated compatriots, some times even working as their subordinates. What kind of emotional consequences flow from such situations and the like? What type of job satisfaction will result when persons with varying educational credentials work as clerks? Will the Job satisfaction of clerks increase or decrease with education?
1.6.3 The various disciplines which the students specialise at different levels of higher education do not naturally prepare them for ministerial occupations. Yet many of them become clerks. Will the higher education, which is not a training for clerical positions, improve the clerical efficiency? What is the relationship between the education credentials and the efficiency of the non-professional Job-holders?

1.6.4 The job aspirations may be assumed to get generated during the educational process. But the job aspirations so generated in all the students may not be of the same level. Some of the present clerical workers might have had pre-job job aspirations, much above that of their present clerical positions, some of the same level and some, even of a lesser level. Thus we are likely to come across 3 types of clerical workers; (1) whose pre-job job aspirations were not realised, (2) whose pre-job job aspirations have been realised, and (3) whose pre-job job aspirations have been more than realised. What emotional consequences flow from such realised or un-realised pre-job job aspirations? Or, what is the relationship between the Pre-job Job Aspirations and the Job Satisfaction of the clerical workers?

1.6.5 Again, many alumni with various levels of pre-job job aspirations take up the clerical jobs. The performance
of all these workers may not be of identical level. Some may perform better than others. Are these individuals, who perform better, the same who had higher levels of pre-job job aspirations? Or, is there any relationship between the levels of the Pre-Job Job Aspirations and the levels of the present Job Performance of the clerks?

1.6.6 Some employees are more satisfied or more dissatisfied than the others. Some are more efficient or more inefficient than the others. Are the more satisfied necessarily more efficient? Or are the more efficient necessarily more satisfied? Is there any relationship between Job satisfaction and Job efficiency of clerical workers?

1.6.7 Likewise, it is reasonable to assume that the years of schooling and years of service will both influence the levels of job efficiency. Out of these two factors, viz., years of schooling and years of service, which one will have relatively more positive association with job performance? Or, who will be more efficient, the clerks with more education or the clerks with more service?

1.6.8 It is not unreasonable to assume that years of schooling and years of service will get associated with certain levels of job satisfaction. Out of these two factors, viz., years of schooling and years of service, which one will
have relatively more positive or more negative influence on job satisfaction? Or, who will be more Job Satisfied, the clerks with more Education or the clerks with more Service?

The research under report was directed to answer the questions posed.

1.7.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the present research were to find out:

1) in what way general higher education and job aspirations are related;

2) in what way the general higher education and the clerical job satisfaction are related;

3) in what way the general higher education and the clerical efficiency are related;

4) in what way the pre-job job aspirations and the clerical job satisfaction are related;

5) in what way the pre-job job aspirations and the clerical efficiency are related;

6) in what way the clerical job satisfaction and the clerical efficiency are related;
7) in what way clerical efficiency is related to length of education and length of service; and

8) in what way clerical job satisfaction is related to length of education and length of service.

1.8.0 ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions have been made while pursuing the present research.

1. Demographic Factors get reflected in the Factor of Education

It is assumed that demographic factors like sex, age, caste, community size, educational opportunities, income, educational and professional status of the parents and the status of the educational institution where one studies, influence the education of an individual, both quantitatively and qualitatively. And thus the demographic factors are reflected in the education of an individual in a general way. So, in measuring the education of an individual, it was assumed that the influence of the demographic factors - socio-economic background - was, to a greater extent, taken care of.
2. Education as a Factor cuts across the Institutional Vagaries in influencing the job Correlates

Job Satisfaction has been defined as the Fit between the job expectations of the employees and the measure of realization of such expectations in job situation.

Employees get satisfied or dissatisfied in their jobs because of the attitudes and structures of the employing organizations (democratic or authoritarian, centralised or decentralised etc.) as well, which help or hinder the realization of the employee expectations.

The element of being more educated (being more educated than the requirements of the job functioning) influences the job expectations of the employees. This influence of "being more educated", it is assumed, cuts through the welter of attitudes and structures of employing organizations. And hence the dependence of the present research on only two organizations viz., The Life Insurance Corporation of India (L.I.C.) and the State Bank of Hyderabad (S.B.H.) in measuring the relationship between the General Higher Education and the various clerical Job Correlates.
3. Semi-Government Institutions represent the characteristics of both the Government and Private Institutions

Organizationally, the government, semi-government and private institutions seem to stand in a continuum. While some of the characteristics are mutually shared by all types of institutions, other characteristics seem to run in a sequence. For example, the characteristics like security of service which could be seen in the government institutions in a greater measure, are seen in a lesser measure in the semi-government and still in much lesser measure in the private institutions. On the contrary, it is presumed that certain other characteristics like advancement linked to performance rather than to seniority (only to quote one of the host of examples) — greatly observed in private concerns are seen in a lesser measure in the semi-government institutions and still in a much lesser measure in the government institutions. The semi-government institutions thus seem to stand in the middle of the continuum. So it is assumed that the semi-government institutions reflect in a measure the variety of organizational characteristics of both the government and the private and represent both of them.

1.9.0 HYPOTHESES

The following null hypotheses were formulated which the research undertaken sought to test.
H.1 There will be no significant relationship between the levels of educational credentials acquired and the levels of job aspirations entertained.

H.2 There will be no significant relationship between the levels of educational credentials acquired and the preparedness of such credential-holders to soil their hands in occupations involving physical labour.

H.3 There will be no significant relationship between the levels of educational credentials acquired and the readiness of such credential-holders to undertake non-salaried self-employing ventures.

H.4 There will be no significant relationship between the pre-job job aspirations and the clerical jobs held by such aspirants.

H.5 There will be no significant relationship between the levels of academic credentials acquired and the job satisfaction of clerical workers who hold such credentials.

H.6 There will be no significant relationship between the levels of academic credentials acquired and the clerical efficiency of such credential-holders.

H.7 There will be no significant relationship between the levels of pre-job job aspirations of clerical workers and the measures of job satisfaction experienced by them.
H.8 There will be no significant relationship between the levels of pre-job job aspirations of clerical workers and the levels of their job efficiency.

H.9 There will be no significant relationship between the job satisfaction and the job efficiency of clerical workers.

H.10 There will be no significant difference between the concomitant job efficiency of length of service and the concomitant job efficiency of length of education.

H.11 There will be no significant difference between the concomitant job satisfaction of length of service and the concomitant job satisfaction of length of education.

1.10.0 MEANINGS AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

The meanings and definitions of certain terms used in this research are as hereunder.

1. General Higher Education

Post school education (like B.A., B.Sc., B.Com., M.A., M.Sc., M.Com., etc.) which is non-professional in content and scope.

2. Aspirations

Strong desires of goals.
3. **Job**

   A position of employment, work or occupation.

4. **Job Aspirations**

   Strong desires or goals regarding (future) positions of employment, work or occupation.

5. **Job Satisfaction**

   The attainment of a good fit between what an individual expects in a work situation and what he thinks he achieves regarding such expectations.

   ![Diagram]

   \[
   \text{JOB SATISFACTION} = \text{A GOOD FIT BETWEEN}
   \]

   \[
   \text{REALIZATION OF SUCH EXPECTATIONS}
   \]

6. **Efficiency**

   The ability to achieve desired results with economy of time and effort in relation to the work accomplished.

7. **Job Efficiency**

   The overall assessment of the 'work role' of a job-holder by his immediate supervisor.
8. **Profession**

An occupation requiring advanced education and involving intellectual skills (like medicine).

9. **Non Professional jobs**

Jobs not requiring specialised advanced education and training of intellectual skills. In this research the **clerical jobs**, which require neither specialised advanced education, nor training of intellectual skills (pertaining to clerical performance), are defined as non-professional jobs.