CHAPTER - I
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The organisational climate, job involvement, job anxiety and job alienation are the four important elements involved in all the industries. These four elements are interrelated and there exists a dependency among them. In some studies, the organisational climate is the outcome of the influence of the other three elements, while in some others, it is the vice-versa. Kaczka and Kirk (1967), Hinton (1968) and others found that organisational climate influences the job performance and job involvement. The authors like Litwin and others (1969) are of the opinion that organisational climate influences the job satisfaction. The organisational climate has been studied in relation to job anxiety by Bajaj (1978), Srivastava and Sinha (1979), and Srivastava and Krishna (1981). Further, the organisational climate is analysed in the light of the job alienation by Slater (1970), Rathna Mardia (1979) and Sekar (1989). Further, the interrelationship between the job involvement and job anxiety, job involvement and job alienation had been studied but few studies have been attempted so far on the relationship between the job anxiety and job alienation. Likewise, the investigator does not come across any study dealing with these four variables together which analysed the interrelationship. Hence, the present study has been attempted by taking into account these "four variables" together.
Every organisation has its own unique climate, i.e., the internal environment. Climate is a general concept and it is difficult to define it precisely. It is synonymously used to describe 'the weather', which is a result of the combination of environmental forces. Some of these forces are better understood by everyone. Applied to organisations, the climate can be said to relate to the prevailing atmosphere in the environment of the organisation. It is the level of morale, the strength of sense of belonging, care and goodwill among members. The measurement of organisational climate is based on the perception of members towards the organisation.

Organisational climate is a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation, that is experienced by its members. It influences their behaviour and can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the organisation.

Climate also relates to the recognition of the organisation as a social system and the extent to which membership is a psychologically rewarding experience. It can be seen as the state of mutual trust and understanding among the members of the organisation. Organisational climate is characterised, therefore, by the nature of the people-organisation relationship and the superior-subordinate relationship. These relationships are determined by the interactions among goals and objectives, the formal structure, the styles of leadership, the process of management and the behaviour of people.
CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

In the pertinent literature, one could see several similar definitions of organisational climate. There seems to be greater degree of commonality despite little differences among these definitions.

Forehand and Glimer (1964) defined organisational climate as a set of characteristics that describe an organisation and that a) distinguish one organisation from the other, b) are relatively enduring over a period of time, and c) influence the behaviour of the people in the organisation. Litwin and Stringer (1968) opined that the organisational climate refers to the perceived, subjective effect of the formal system, the informal style of managers and other environmental factors on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people, who work in a particular organisation.

For Tagiuri and Litwin (1968), organisational climate is the quality of the internal environment felt by its members that affect their behaviour and it can be described in terms of a particular set of organisational characteristics.

Although climate is generally seen to be a property of the organisational system, it is clear that considerable heterogeneity of perceptions of climate existed within any organisation (Shneider, 1972, Payne and Mansfield, 1973).
Organisational climate is a summary of perception, which people have about an organisation. It is then a global impression of what the organisation is (Benjamin and Robert, 1975).

The term, "organisational climate", in its classical sense refers to the perceptions that people have of their work settings. These molar perceptions have a psychological unity, being based on actual or inferred events, practices and procedures that occur in daily life of a system (Katz and Khan, 1978).

Organisational climate is a set of measurable properties of a given environment, based on the collective perceptions of the people, who live and work in that environment and demonstrated to influence their motivation and behaviour (Litwin, Humphrey and Wilson 1978).

Woodman and King (1978) are of the view that phenomenologically organisational climate is external to the extent that it is affected by individual perception.

Tagiuri (1978) highlighted the need to distinguish between the objective and subjective environments and between the person and the situation.
CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Although similar types of organisations will share certain common features and norms, each organisation will have its own and different and distinctive features. The normative climate of a particular organisation reflects the history of its internal and external struggles, its work processes, physical layout, patterns of communication, the type of people employed and the exercise of authority. Distinctive features of collective feelings and beliefs will be passed on to the new group of members.

A healthy organisational climate is expected to exhibit the following characteristic features:

- integration of organisational and personal goals;
- flexible structure with a network of authority, control and communications and with autonomy for individual members;
- style of leadership appropriate to the particular work situation;
- mutual trust, consideration and support among the different levels of the organisation;
- recognition of individual differences and attributes and/or of people's needs and expectations at work;
- attention to the job design and the quality of working life;
- challenging and responsible jobs with high performance standards;
- equitable system of rewards based on positive reinforcement;
- justice in treatment and fair policies for personnel and industrial relations practices;
- an open discussion on conflict with emphasis on the settlement of differences without delay or confrontation;
- democratic functioning of the organisation with full opportunities for genuine consultation and participation;
- a sense of identity with, and loyalty to the organisation; and
- a sense of being the needed as an important member of the organisation.

In addition to the arrangements for carrying out organisational processes and the execution of work, management has a responsibility for creating an organisational climate in which people are motivated to work willingly and effectively.

Considerable quantum of research has been done in identifying the properties. The following nine properties were identified by Balder R. Sharma (1982) in his study on organisational climate.

(a) **Scope for advancement**: Provision of adequate opportunities for advancement and growth, existence of definite career development plans for employees.
(b) **Grievance handling**: Existence of a sound grievance handling procedure, readiness of the management to look into the grievances and complaints of employees and sympathetic handling of their problems.

(c) **Monetary benefits**: Attractiveness of salaries, allowances and perquisites according to job responsibilities, market rates and qualifications and skills of employees.

(d) **Participative management**: Involvement of employees through meetings, committees or other forums, in decision-making for tackling day-to-day problems, and consultations with employees before taking important decisions.

(e) **Objectivity and rationality**: Impartial treatment of employees belonging to different categories, to different departments or doing different functions; impartial recruitment of employees on the basis of objective assessment of the merits of each case and consistent adherence to service rules and personnel policies.

(f) **Recognition and appreciation**: Appropriate recognition and appreciation of sincere and hardworking employees and those contributing to the productivity and efficiency of the company.

(g) **Safety and security**: Provision of safe and healthy working conditions, adequate job security, and attractive retirement benefits to the employees.

(h) **Training**: Provision of adequate facilities for general education and technical training to the employees.
(i) **Welfare facilities**: Provision of adequate welfare facilities and amenities to employees and their family, both at the work place as well as outside.

**VARIABLES OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE**

The variables that constitute the climate, are the definite characteristics that distinguish one working environment from another, as seen by members of organisation. These factors are thought to be measurable and manipulative to some extent, (Litwin and Stringer, 1968, Campbell and Beaty, 1971). Pritchard and Karsick, (1973) developed several factors contributing to organisational climate. The factors are:

(a) **Task structure**: The degree to which methods used to accomplish tasks to be spelled out by an organisation.

(b) **Reward - punishment relationship**: Granting of additional rewards such as promotions and increase in salary based on performance and merit, instead of other considerations like seniority, favouritism and so on.

(c) **Centralised decision making**: To some extent, reserving the important decisions to be taken by the management.

(d) **Achievement emphasis**: Laying emphasis on the people in an organisation to do a good job and contribute to the performance objectives of the organisation.
(e) **Training and development emphasis**: The degree to which an organisation tries to support the performance of individuals through appropriate training and development experience.

(f) **Security versus risk**: The degree to which pressures of an organisation lead to the feelings of insecurity and anxiety on the part of its members.

(g) **Openness versus defensiveness**: The degree to which people try to cover up their mistakes and pretend to be good rather than being open minded through free communication and cooperation.

(h) **Status and morale**: The general feeling among the individuals that the organisation is a good place to work.

(i) **Recognition and feedback**: The degree to which an individual knows what his supervisor and management would think of his work and degree to which they support the employees.

(j) **Competence and flexibility**: The degree to which an organisation knows what its goals are and following suitable policy having in-built characteristics of competency, flexibility and innovative for accomplishing its own goals.

Structure of an organisation is an important determinant of climate.

The other important determinants of climate are as follows.

(a) Technology

(b) External environment and

(c) Managerial policies and practices.
The researchers have opined that some personal characteristics interact with certain climatic dimensions and jointly cause various outcomes. Therefore, personal needs, goals and values must be consistent and compatible with the work environment if desired outcomes are to be realised and maximised.

**PSYCHOLOGICAL CLIMATE AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE**

As a part of an All-India survey on organisational climate, a comprehensive review of literature on organisational climate was carried out. The review highlighted, among other things, an unresolved controversy over whether organisational climate is a property of an individual or the organisation, (Sharma 1987).

This controversy arises from the fact that particularly all measures of organisational climate are based on the perceptions of the members of an organisation. Consequently, the term, "climate", has come to be used in two different ways. When members of an organisation are asked to give their perceptions of the organisational climate, there are differences in their perceptions. If such a study is confined to a single organisation and the climate scores are analysed using individual as the unit of analysis, it is supposed to be called a study of psychological climate. If, on the other hand, it is a study of several organisations and the climate
scores from each organisation are first aggregated and then analysed using organisation as the unit of analysis, it can be called a study of organisational climate. Although the basic data source is the same for both, the first one viz., "measure of climate", is considered a property of the individual, while in the other it is treated as a property of the organisation.

Roberts, Hulin and Rousseau (1978) have suggested that the composition theory relating psychological climate scores to organisational climate scores can be established if perceptions of climate are shared among the individuals whose scores are to be aggregated.

**IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE**

The internal environment of organisation is of two types:

(a) the tangible physical characteristics of the plant facilities, office arrangements, machinery and equipment, and the other aspects of technology and

(b) the human environment the relatively intangible, cultural and social atmosphere evoked by leadership and human relations. These physical and social elements vary widely in strength and meaning, and their influence on the members of an organisation depends heavily on the way the individuals perceive them. Some elements influence the behaviour of almost all the members of an organisation.
Organisational climate affects the behaviour of people in three important ways viz., a) defining the stimuli that confront the individual, b) placing constraints upon the individuals; freedom of choice; and c) providing sources of reward and punishment. Physical characteristics, task-related information, and the social interactions of individuals provide many of the stimuli presented to individuals. Their effects depend partly on the nature of the stimuli and partly on the perceptivity and personal attributes of the individuals. Constraints on individuals are necessary to achieve desirable group goals. Defining jobs, roles and responsibilities are ways of setting up some of these constraints. Rewards and punishments come not only from the formal system of authority but also from the informal system of colleagues and peers.

The importance of quality defined as climate is its potential for influencing such important factors as efficiency, productivity, motivation and job satisfaction. Individuals differ from one another in job involvement. People differ to the extent that

(a) work is central life interest,
(b) they actively participate in work,
(c) they perceive work as central to self-esteem, and
(d) they perceive work as consistent with self-concept.

Persons, who are uninvolved in their works cannot be expected to realise the same satisfaction as those who are.
the fact that two workers could report different levels of satisfaction for the same performance levels.

Individual difference is the perceived equity of the outcome in terms of what the job holder considers a fair reward. If the outcomes are perceived to be unfair in relation to those of others in similar jobs requiring similar effort the job holder will experience dissatisfaction and seek means to restore the equity either by seeking greater rewards (primarily extrinsic) or by reducing effort.

**ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE**

In future, the social structure in the organisations will have some unique characteristics. They are, adaptive, rapidly changing, temporary systems organised around the problems to be solved. The groups of employees will be formed on organic rather than mechanical models; they will revolve in response to the problems rather than programmed role expectations.

Adaptive, temporary systems of diverse specialists, and problem solving techniques are linked together by networking Task evaluative specialists, in organic flux, will gradually replace bureaucracy through an organic adaptive structure.
The organic - adaptive structure should increase motivation and thereby effectiveness. There is a congruence between the educated individual's need for meaningful, satisfactory and creative tasks and flexible structure of an autonomy.

In addition, the adaptive process itself may become captivating to many. At the same time, it is predicted that future is far from an utopian or a necessarily happy one, coping with rapid changes, living in temporary systems, and setting up meaningful relations and then breaking them all under strains and tensions. Learning to live with ambiguity and to be self-directing will be the task of education and the goal of maturity.

**JOB INVOLVEMENT**

Human interaction is indispensable and a requisite for society. The individual is primarily motivated towards his own physical self-perpetuation and his symbolic self-aggrandizement, yet both can be achieved only through a deep dependence and involvement with others. The organisational climate and job involvement have gained much popularity in the last few decades. It has gained currency because of its pivotal role in providing a link between performance on the one hand and employee's needs and the quality of working life on the other.
Individuals use organisations as instruments to achieve their goals just as much as organisations use people to reach its objectives. Among the many influences on work behaviour of the individuals in organisational settings, none is more important than the design of the organisation itself. Organisation design refers to the structural factors that constitute the basic form and nature of the organisation. The way by which the jobs are designed on the basis of organisation structure has got greater implications on those who are working under it.

Favourable organisational climate contributes to work efficiency by raising job involvement and job commitment. The organisational effectiveness is to be judged not by the quantum of profit or surplus generated by the activities, but by the means and methods adopted in achieving the objectives.

**CONCEPT OF JOB INVOLVEMENT**

Job involvement is the degree to which a person is psychologically identifying himself with his work or importance of work in his total self-image. Pactchen (1970) considered job involvement as a convenient label summarising several characteristics that make the job more important and potentially more satisfying to the individual. The person with high
job involvement is highly motivated and feels a sense of pride in his work. In recent years, it is considered that job involvement is a necessary condition, if an individual is to accept fully the organisational demand placed upon him by his membership in an organisation.

Job involvement is the psychological identification with one's work. It is closely tied up with work ethics, moral character and a sense of personal responsibility. The extent of involvement on the job is largely determined by situational factors, (Lawler and Hall, 1970).

Job involvement results from a psychological fact in the organisation, which facilitates the reaction of the individual's need for self esteem, (Likert 1961).

Maurer (1969) subscribes to the view that the job involvement is considered as a component of the employee's self image.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) consider job involvement as an indicative of an individual's work commitment, whereas Bass (1965) views it as representative of employee's ego-involvement in his job and thus, relates it to performance.

For Rabinowiz and Hall (1977), job involvement seems to be a feedback variable, both a cause and an effect of job involvement.
lead to an involvement which, in turn increases productivity, (Mehta 1965).

Tannenbaum (1966) had stated that individuals at higher rank are generally more interested and more involved in their jobs than persons at lower level. Mannhein (1975) found that those involved in occupations requiring specific skills and abilities had higher job involvement than others.

**JOB ANXIETY**

Any normal human beings engage themselves in a number of activities in day-to-day life with all their potentials wherein different situations would make individuals to behave in a number of normative ways. These in turn, would influence other individuals. In the modern society, various feelings like frustration, conflict, anxiety and so on are experienced by the individuals during their routine activities. Before discussing job anxiety, the meaning of anxiety is to be discussed first in general.
ANXIETY

Coleman (1969) describes anxiety as a state of emotional tension characterised by apprehension, fearfulness and psychic pain.

Srivastava and Sinha (1979) describe that the anxiety may be evolved by some, or a combination of situational and psychological variables. They are associated with one or the other phase of our life.

Anxiety is a series of symptoms, which arise from faulty adaptations to the stresses and strains of life. It is caused by over action to meet these difficulties. (Ross, 1979)

CHARACTERISTICS OF JOB ANXIETY

(a) Anxiety is a vague fear: Anxiety can be more painful and serious than fear itself. Generally, anxious employee, though he may be vague about the reason for his anxiety, is more difficult to deal with constructively than the fearful one. Anxiety indicates a threat to values which an individual holds vital for his existence as a personality. With a loss of these values, his whole life loses meaning, and he feels that he might as well not in existence.
(b) Anxiety is enduring: Once the fearful soldier is off the battle field, his fears subside. In contrast, the person pre-occupied with vague fears tends to remain anxious. If he is not worrying about one thing, he is worrying about another. He anticipates misfortunes and is apprehensive about things and people, when there is a little reason for concern. On the other hand, normal individuals are relatively free from such chronic worrying. A person's level of anxiety seems relatively independent of the immediate environment. In general, stage of anxiety may range from low to high.

(c) Anxiety results from conflicting needs: An individual becomes anxious when the satisfaction of one need appears to require the frustration of another. Such fears are mildest and least enduring when he must choose between two positive goals. Thus, an employee who is offered a supervisory position may find it difficult to choose between retaining the satisfactions of remaining with his work goal and gaining the additional status offered by a new job.

The choice between attractive but conflicting goals is relatively and easily made. The choice between two unattractive goals are more difficult. This is the predicament of an employee who hates his work but fears unemployment. Moving towards a goal which is both attractive and dangerous is still more difficult.
Anxieties are the greatest and the most enduring when the conflicting needs involved are not recognised. The employee, who hates his insulting boss and would like to hit him, may not admit it but he may talk and superficially act as if he liked him. Such individuals may be chronically preoccupied with vague but disturbing fears. They find it difficult to keep their minds on one thing. They feel that they are "going in to pieces," and feel things are piling up so high that they cannot overcome them.

(d) Anxiety produces hostility: Anxiety generates hostility and in turn, hostility generates more anxiety. An anxious employee reacts with hostility towards the supervisor who assigns him responsibilities which he feels he cannot do. He represses his hostility for the fear of arousing the hostility as he does. This increases the feeling that he is living in a hostile and threatening world.

The relationship between anxiety and hostility is often much more direct and obvious. Supervisors frequently employ punishment as a method of controlling human behaviour.
CONCEPT OF JOB ANXIETY

In the present age of anxiety, most of the individuals operating in the context of business, industry, or other employment, show a tendency of self-abasement, feeling of insecurity, apprehension and vague fear about various components of their jobs. This is due to the result of their interaction between certain specific personality characteristics and experiences and frustrating association with job consistents. The repeated interactions between the two sets of variables cause the development of a deviant trait among the employees concerned that may be denoted as job anxiety.

Job anxiety is a phenomenal state of the organism. It is a state of negative, aversive and unpleasant emotions existing in the minds of individuals. All workers in their field at one time or other experience stimulus that elicits anxiety. Anxiety as such exists in three faces as antecedent, organism, and consequent conditions. Anxiety may interfere with complex, and cognitive activities of the organism.

One of the most prominent and universal factors causing psychic pains for the majority of the people is "Anxiety" and that leads to several industrial and social problems in the modern society. Despite the welfare programmes carried out with the aid of scientific and technological
advancement, majority of the population, especially in urban areas, seems to be tensed, restless, depressed and has the feeling of vague fear and insecurity. The major emotional problem faced by most of the people is not that of controlling or coping with the more violent emotions of rage and fear but that of dealing with more subtle emotions of anxiety.

However, the stimuli which provoke job anxiety are likely to be remote and imaginary. Anxieties are so high today that they are the preoccupations of the overall behaviour of the employees at work.

Job anxiety is the reflection of certain specific personality characteristics of the employee in his perceptions of, and attitude towards various dimensions of job life. Job anxiety may be regarded as a personality variable. The significance of the personality variable, as a determinant of employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with job, job behaviour, social relations at work and adjustment with different aspects of the job life.

The degree of job anxiety may vary from one component to another in accordance with the relevance of the component for the employee and the frequency of the painful experiences with the components. The more the fear and apprehension the employee feels about his job life, the more likely he is to manifest job anxiety. At this level, the employee may be aware that "something is wrong" but may not be very sure what this
"something" is and consequently he may blame it on his co-workers, management or any other factor in his job life which was not at all the true cause of his apprehension. If he is not worrying about one thing, anticipates misfortunes and painful consequences and is apprehensive about the things, people or situation, while as a matter of fact, there is no reason for such concern. However, the level of job anxiety of the employees seems to be relatively independent of the immediate physical environment.

**DEFINITIONS OF JOB ANXIETY**

Job anxiety has been described as a generalised feeling of vague fear and apprehensive state of mind of an employee regarding various aspects of job life in relation to his frame of reference (Srivastava and Sinha, 1983).

Job anxiety may also be taken to denote a tensed mental state of an employee, vaguely fearful, apprehensive, pessimistic and emotional having no apparent and genuine reasons regarding such job aspects as job security, future prospectus, recognition and fear of evaluation of performance, human relations at work, rewards and punishment, capacity to work and to shoulder responsibilities, self-esteem, self-confidence, and the likes.
EFFECTS OF JOB ANXIETY

Increasing anxiety decreases efficiency quickly in complex jobs, and more slowly in simple ones. The emotion produces muscular tensions and unsteadiness, which interfere with the performance of tasks that require fine co-ordination.

Another fact is psychological. Upto a point, increased anxiety leads a man to flow on the goal which will satisfy his needs. He concentrates on overcoming obstacles. Beyond a point, however, the man forgets the goal and its obstacle. The anxiety is so painful that he concentrates on relieving his anxieties rather than achieving the goal.

The goal in dealing with an employee's anxiety is to produce a state of "Creative Anxiety". This is the level of authority which will stimulate the worker to the most productive attack upon his problems. Too little and too much anxiety are both "Uncreative".

The primary effort on the part of the employer in effectively dealing with employee's anxiety, therefore, should be to (1) select unanxious personnel, (2) provide counselling, (3) create warm relationships, (4) make communication more effective and (5) reduce obstacles to need and satisfaction.
JOB ALIENATION

The term alienation connotes 'the action of estranging', or 'state of estrangement in feeling or affection'. One of the most frequent terms one hears in discussion of organisational behaviour is alienation. Early interest in the phenomenon of alienation was triggered by Mark's description of the alienation of the workers as a condition in which man in his everyday life, denies part of his being in order to survive.

In an extensive study, it was found that everyone working in organisations suffers to some extent of the alienation (Bennis, 1967). Careful scanning of literature reveals that the alienation is not a single dimension, but a multidimensional concept and stated that alienation consists of five dimensions (Fromm, 1944; Seeman, 1969; Dodder, 1959; Levin, 1960; Middleton, 1963; Neal and Retting, 1963; Blauner, 1964; Strucning and Richardson, 1965 and Faunce, 1968).

MEANING OF ALIENATION

The concept of alienation is not new. Its early introduction by Karl Marx and the explanations given by modern authors enhance its importance.
Marx saw alienation as rooted in the capitalist social arrangements. For Marx, work is the most important activity for human beings. Through work, labourers create the world for all. The products of the labour reflect the nature and forms of the basis for one's self evaluation. The things the labourers produce become an extension of themselves, a part of them, because they breathe life into them. But according to Marx, people in the capitalist societies lose control of their labour and become commodities, objects used by others.

The alienation refers to the subjective feeling of powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation and self estrangement.

To Kurr Lang (1964) alienation is an estrangement or separation between parts and the whole of the personality and significant aspects of the world of experience.

Closlay and Schaar (1965) refer alienation to the feelings of loneliness and yearning for supportive primary relationships.

The Oxford English Dictionary (1973) defines alienation as "the action of estranging or state of estrangement, the state of being alienated or derangement of mental facilities".
Perkins (1982) explains alienation as 'the individual's sense of estrangement from the feeling of being foreign in relation to some referent.

**PHASES OF ALIENATION**

There are two phases of alienation, namely, pre-interaction and post-interaction.

**Pre-interaction**: In the pre-interaction phase of alienation, the individual stands on the thousands of the interaction web of a particular group. He does not participate in it. So long as he remains out of the threshold, he feels alienated. This phase is temporary in nature.

**Post-interaction**: In this phase, as individual after full participation drifts away from the interaction field for one or other reasons. If he participates again, the participation may be less as compared with the earlier participation. This makes the person concerned alienated. This phase of alienation is permanent.

**DIMENSIONS OF ALIENATION**

Faunce (1968) identifies the five dimensions of alienation. They are: powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, social isolation and self-estrangement.
**Powerlessness**: This term describes the emotions of an individual who feels that he has lost control over the events in his life that matter to him. He sees himself as a pawn in the hands of the events rather than an originator of events. Faunce argues that as a result of being in a state of powerlessness, the individual is more likely to see himself as engaging in behaviour that does not reflect his real self, i.e., he is more likely to see himself as being self-estranged.

**Meaninglessness**: The individual experiencing a sense of meaninglessness is one who has difficulty in finding and utilizing appropriate standards for judging the importance or use of actions and beliefs. What is meaningful and useful? The individual experiencing a sense of meaninglessness is one who has difficulty in answering these questions. He is more likely to feel a sense of isolation from effective social interaction with others.

**Normlessness**: The term describes the condition of an individual who sees a few effective rules or standards for guiding the behaviour; the social system and its behavioural regulations have, for him, broken down. Normlessness describes the emotional conditions of the individual for whom there are few guides, as opposed to the inappropriate guides that mark the condition of meaninglessness. In both the cases, however, the results are the same in that they generate a sense of isolation and ineffective social relationship.
**Social isolation**: This term describes the psychological condition of an individual who has lost the ability to interact meaningfully with others. He feels that he cannot understand the attitudes of other individuals; cannot predict their behaviour; and cannot explain himself and his feelings to them.

**Self Estrangement**: This term describes the state of an individual who engages in behaviour that does not truly reflect his values, needs or desires. Rather than expressing himself, he is engaging in trivial and non-meaningful activities.

Faunce (1968) has proposed that powerlessness, meaninglessness and normlessness are pre-disposing conditions of alienation. Alienation is composed of a sense of social isolation and self estrangement. Faunce suggests that they view the process as powerlessness, normlessness and meaninglessness that lead to social isolation (or social estrangement) and self estrangement.

As far as organisational alienation is concerned, many suggestions have been given by many researchers. For Aiken and Hage, alienation is the outcome of a 'feeling of disappointment', concerning one's position of employment. Alienation from work is explained in terms of one's career expectations and one's position in the hierarchy of employment. The
same point has been made by Perlin, who reports that alienation is the most intensive under conditions of great positional disparity.

Bruner (1958) puts forward evidence of different levels of alienation depending on the nature of technology involved in the work. Faunce points out the possibility of cultural variation in experiencing alienation. Faunce says that rapid social and technological change coupled with increase in structural differentiation may result in decreased social integration and break down of traditional norms and values which, in turn, create feelings of normlessness, meaninglessness, and powerlessness.

French and Caplan (1973) stated that role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, diffused organisational and structural boundaries, and lack of opportunities for meaningful participation were the relevant factors associated with alienation.

Factors responsible for alienation are: (1) difficulty one has had in finding a job; (2) the stress of being judged and evaluated by superiors; (3) inequality in work organisation; (4) feeling of anonymity in some organisations; and (5) feeling of adolescence with experience common in work settings.
Alienation is inherent in bureaucratization of organisation with its colossal size, over centralisation, division of labour, and task specialization, (Krisch and Lingermann, 1976).

**RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE CONCEPTS**

In the forthcoming part of the chapter the relationship between and among the four variables identified in the study has been reviewed.

Success or failure of an employee, in the performance of his job, depends not only on his own skills but also on the climate under which he is working. Therefore, a conducive climate is an essentiality for the successful achievement of target of an organisation.

Kurt Lewin's (1939) deliberated formula of behaviour helps to indicate the relationship that exists between organisational climate and job involvement. According to him, behaviour (B) is a function (F) of both the person (P) and the environment (E) in which he is living., i.e., \( B = F (P \times E) \).

This means that the living organisms not only live in an environment but also they are in a continuous state of interaction with environmental forces.
It is a well known fact that the achievement of satisfaction and goal accomplishment depend upon some specific pattern of employee's behaviour. Job involvement is a behavioural pattern and is determined by the interaction of an individual with his organisational climate/environment. If the climate of an organisation is conducive for an individual, he will interact with it in a positive manner which ultimately leads to job satisfaction. Hence the efficiency and involvement with which an individual carries out his work is determined partially by his own characteristics and partially by the characteristics of the climate of the organisation in which he is working. Following system is the explanation of the model of effectiveness.
SYSTEM MODEL OF EFFECTIVENESS

Education
Experience
Skill
Attitudes and Values
Power and Authority
System
Management values and Attitudes
Reward and Warmth
Structure
Rights and Responsibility

B- Behavior
P- Person
E- Environment

Job Work
Work Performance
Job Satisfaction
Innovation
Morale
Organisations differ not only in physical structure but also in their attitudes and behaviour of the employees. Some people like their work places, while some others dislike the same for environmental reasons. Hence different climates stimulate or arouse different kinds of motivation, generate different distinctive attitudes about a person’s relationship with his work and strongly influence both the feelings of satisfaction and performance level.

Among the different influences on the work behaviour of an individual in an organisational setting, none is more important than the design of the organisation itself. The ways by which the jobs are designed in the organisational structure have got greater implications on those who work under it.

Favourable organisational climate promotes work efficiency by raising job involvement and job commitment. The organisational effectiveness is to be judged not by the quantum of profit or surplus generated but by the means achieving the objectives.

Establishing interpersonal relationship with employees and a good support from the superiors seem to be instrumental in the development of responsibility and job involvement. Facilitating of goal achievement also leads to the feeling of prestige in the group and gives a sense right identification with the group and organisation.
Employees, who are deprived of opportunities to gratify higher order needs, will negatively react to work, misbehave and refuse to accept the responsibility. The employees will perceive that their effort is rewarded only when they feel that they are assigned works which call for their ability and that the management rewards their efforts as and when warranted through such measures as praise, giving promotions, and assigning greater responsibility and also authority in commensuration with responsibility. Thus effective organisational climate can alone bring healthy and useful attitudes on the part of employees towards their employments.

If the organisational climate is good, the motivated employee will integrate himself with his job by showing job commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. It results in the growth of both the organisation and the employees.

Good organisational climate stands to promote two sets of values in an organisation. One set of values is related to the process of humanisation that makes the employees enjoy their work, take pride in such a work, learn continuously and maximise their contributions to the organisation.

Enhancing job involvement of industrial personnel is one of the most important problems for researchers. It has been established by the
previous researchers that job involvement is directly related to worker's satisfaction and thus linked to performance. The area of job involvement has been explored to a limited extent and scientists have tried to relate job involvement only with the demographic situational and personal variables. Relationship between personality variables and job involvement varies depending upon the nature of the job and work environment and worker's participation with job involvement.

Studies conducted by Friedlander and Margulies (1969), Kaczka and Kirk (1968), Schneider (1972, 1973), Cawsey (1973) and Hall and Lawer (1969) clearly indicate that the organisational climate is related to job satisfaction in terms of interpersonal relations, group cohesiveness, job involvement and the like.

Anxiety is unpleasant and painful. Anxious workers are, therefore, dissatisfied with work. They may attempt to escape the anxiety through provoking situation by getting a transfer, or quitting, or by attempting to remove the causes of their anxiety. A company that increases the anxiety of its employees is certain to increase employees' dissatisfaction. A company that decreases the anxieties of its employees is certainly moving towards the industrial goal of satisfying the needs of its workers.

Kaczka and Kirk (1967), found that the performance of the firm is significantly affected by managerial climate, but that an employee-
oriented managerial climate does not always lead to higher level of performance. Hinton (1968) found that a climate of frustration significantly reduced creative problem-solving performance.

Friendlander and Newton (1969), found that an organisational climate happens to be a significant determinant of individual's satisfaction on interpersonal relations, task involvement, self actualization and advancement.

**REVIEW OF LITRETURE**

The forthcoming part of the chapter deals with the summary of the research studies already conducted by various previous researchers. This review of literature available enables the researcher to define the problem of study precisely, shape the methodology, and sharpen analytical tools.

**STUDIES RELATING TO ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE**

Argyris (1958) and Forehand and Gilmer (1964) had stated that to characterize employees' perception of the organisational climate has been a central theme in organisational research.
Dill (1958) had conducted a study of two firms that differed markedly in the degree of personal autonomy to their members, as indicated by differences in perceived autonomy and in observed conference behaviours. The two firms were found to differ both with respect to task environment (inputs of information from external sources, e.g., stability and homogeneity of customers, suppliers, competitors, and regulatory groups) and with respect to internal restraint characteristics of the firms themselves (e.g., stress on formal rules and procedures, and top management involvement in routine activities).

Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, Mc Donald, Turner and Lupton (1963) depicted those variables that influence organisational climate. Barker (1963) suggested using observational techniques to classify behavioural settings and behavioural episodes and thus, to objectively measure organisational climate.

Porter and Lawer (1965) had summarised the relationships between the sizes of the organisational sub units and each of several objective climate measures. Likert's (1967) description of casual intervening and end-result variables emphasised the conceptual difference between organisational structure and organisational climate.

Kaczka and Kirk (1967), using methods of computer simulation, found that the performance of the firm is significantly affected by managerial
climate. However an employee oriented managerial climate does not always lead to higher level of performance.

Hinton (1968) found that a climate of frustration significantly reduced creative problem-solving performance and also worked against personality development of the employees.

In their rigorously designed experimental study, utilizing the organisational climate concept, Litwin and Stringer (1968), found that job satisfaction is to be the highest in "affiliation"-induced culture, relatively high in the "achievement"-induced system, and low in "power"-induced climate.

Friedlander and Newton (1969) had used perception-based data to study the impact of organisational climate components on the individual's job values and their satisfaction. They found that an organisational climate is to be a significant determinant of individual job satisfaction (e.g., interpersonal relations, task involvement, self-actualization, and advancement). These things are affected differently by different organisational climates. In the study on two occupational groups in the same organisation, Lyon and Ivancevich (1974) found that organisational climate had the most significant impact on self-actualization; a lesser impact on autonomy; and only a slight impact on self.
Studies by Friedlander and Margulies (1969), Kaczka and Kirk (1968), Schneider (1972, 1973), Cawsey (1973), Pritchard and Karasick (1973), and Hall and Lawer (1969) clearly indicate that organisational climate is related to job satisfaction in terms of interpersonal relations, group cohesiveness, task involvement and the like.

Stern (1970), Pace (1968) and Gorman and Malloy (1972) identified major climate factors, each of which was concerned with fostering people's development and encouraging the growth and application of new ideas and methods.

Pheysey and Payne (1970) classified the dimensions into "climate and process" and "structure" categories. The climate dimensions were intimacy, participation, polarization, potency and viscosity. The structure dimensions included autonomy, flexibility, and stratification.

Schneider (1972), Payne and Mansfield (1973), Gorman and Malloy (1972) all showed that perception of organisational climate had varied with organisational level. Many approaches to the study of behaviour assumed that either the person or the environment had varied, but not both at the same time. Both the theoretical and the practical disadvantages of such an approach have been demonstrated (Cronback, 1957; Helson, 1964).
Schneider (1972) pointed out that the previous literature in organisational climate has confused the perception of structural characteristic events of behaviour and the summary climate perceptions.

Payne and Pugh (1972) noted the following aspects of structure and climate. They were:-
1. Relationships between the perceived measures of structure are relatively stable across different studies.
2. An organisation perceived as bureaucratic does not have a climate perceived as cold, threatening or low in cohesiveness.
3. Organisations perceived as having decentralized decision taking do not tend to have climate perceived as warm, supportive and encouraging risk taking.
4. Relationship between climate dimensions are not stable across different studies.

Prichard and Karasick (1973) had stated that the climate was the result of the behaviour and policies of members of the organisation, especially top management. They had viewed the values as a determinant of the climate. Two organisations having widely diverging value orientations would be expected to have markedly different organisational climates.

Payne and Mansfield (1973) studied the climate in fourteen different organisations. They found that the climate had varied between hierarchical levels in fifteen of the twenty climate dimensions measured. People at higher levels had described the climate as less authoritarian, more
friendly, more stimulating and more likely to promote innovation than people at lower levels.

Payne and Mansfield (1973) showed that hierarchical status had influenced an individual's perceptions of climate particularly with reference to aspects relating to interpersonal relations and organisational tasks; hierarchical level was strongly correlated with salary and less strongly with age; structural and contextual variables were related to the average perceptions of climate in an organisation. The relationship had differed depending on whether the analysis was at the level of the individual or of the organisation.

Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) had stated that several studies clearly indicated the existence of a relation between climate and job satisfaction. They had cited two studies based on the analyses at the individual level and at the organisational level. They also claimed to have found that many studies had demonstrated significant relations between the climate and performance. But, they had also pointed out that these relations were neither as easy to interpret nor as convincing as those referring to job satisfaction.

Payne and Pugh (1976) had presented a model for the major influences on organisational climate. The model is based on the idea that the structural variables had largely determined the climate. They found
that the two variables, namely decentralization and the size of the organisation, had exhibited highly consistent correlation with the climate.

The long-term employees had viewed that the organisational climate was flexible, supportive, non-authoritarian, concerned with integrating individual and organisational goals. On the other hand, newer employees saw that the climate was rigid, procedural, strongly based on hierarchy and authority, largely impersonal, and emphasising organisational goals (Johnston, 1976).

Madhu and Harigopal (1980) had examined the relationship between role conflict, role ambiguity and job involvement. Results for sample indicated that there was (a) a negative relationship among role ambiguity and job involvement and job performance; (b) a positive relationship between role conflict and role ambiguity; and (c) a positive relationship between job involvement and job performance.

Ekvall, et.al., (1981) had studied the organisational climate in two divisions of a large Swedish corporation. One division was regarded by management as having been very innovative and successful for over last few years, while the other was thought to have stagnated and to be unable to adapt to changing environmental conditions. The climate measures were the average values of the descriptions made by the work force. The successful division had significantly higher average values than the
stagnating one on the climate dimensions like challenge, support for ideas, freedom and dynamism.

Drexler (1984) found that there was greater difference in the climate between the whole organisation and sub-divisions, and between departments.

Joyce and Slocum (1984) had introduced the concept known as "collective climate". This was meant as the climate perceptions that were common to a group of individuals in an organisation, regardless of whether or not the people concerned form a unit in any formal organisational sense.

De Cook, et.al., (1985) had showed an organisational climate model wherein the casual factors were 'context', 'structure', 'personnel policies', and 'management strategy'.

A study of Pratab and Srivastava (1985) had revealed that there was a significant difference between private and public sector industries in organisational climate. It was found that the organisational climate in private textile industry was perceived to the autocratic and that of public textile industry democratic. Therefore, there was less job satisfaction in private textile industry.
The effect of salary upon perceptions of the climate was considered significant because it was within the control of the organisation. On the other hand, managerial ability to make use of the relationship between individual perceptions and the views of others was limited and likely to depend on broader strategies relating to openness of communications, and participative decision making, which were, in turn, constrained by such factors such as production technology and the size of the organisation (Likert, 1967).

There was some evidence which showed that personal factors like age, sex, religion, caste, income, experience, and place of residence had moderate influence upon perceptions of the different aspects of climate, (Litwin and Stinger, 1968; Johannesson, 1973).

Research results had indicated that, while there could be differences between units, there was typically a great deal of consistency in the climate within the total organisation (Drexler, 1977; Jones and James, 1979). Further the concept of climate could be extended to perceptions of such important groups as customers and suppliers. It was stated that the bank customers who perceived a positive service climate were less likely to shift their accounts to another bank (Schneider, 1980).

Studies on interpersonal perceptions had indicated that social judgments were influenced by a number of properties of the perceived
including status, role, and visibility of the trait to be judged (Costello and Zalkind, 1963). Goffman (1959) found that the stimulus qualities of a person's behaviour resulted from a more-or-less conscious role taking strategy. There were adequate evidences to show that the perceptions were influenced by abilities, values and personality traits of the perceiver, (Bruner, 1958; Costello and Zalkind, 1963; Taft, 1955) and by his organisational role (Dear Born and Simon, 1958).

Gopa Bhardway and Rajneesh Sharma (1990) made an attempt to understand the human relations in a large scale manufacturing organisation by investigating into the inter relationship between organisational climate, supervisory management relations, interpersonal trust and alienation. The study was conducted on 150 supervisors belonging to five departments of the organisation. It was generally observed that there was not much difference at the inter departmental level except for industrial engineering department, which showed low scores on almost all dimensions. The inverse relationship between alienations and other factors was not significant. The organisational climate showed a positive inter-correlations among themselves and also positive relationship with other factors except alienation.

Padaki Rupanda, Gandhi and Pushpa (1991) had attempted to study the relationship between organisational climate and work identification. Seventy two technicians from middle managerial levels of three textile
mills were administered questionnaires that measured the dimensions of organisational climate and work identification. The organisational identification was also assessed. Multiple regression analysis revealed that organisational climate predicted organisation identification to a greater extent than did work identification. The significant predictor of organisational identification was the general factor of climate. Work identification was predicted by the responsibility and risk factor of organisational climate.

Ashok Pratap Singh and Kedar Nath (1991) had aimed at exploring the effects of organisational role stress, organisational climate and focus of control on job involvement. The results showed that subjects with high organisational role stress were less involved as compared to the subjects of low organisational role stress. The respondents, who scored high on achievement, expectation affiliation and dependency dimensions of organisational climates were observed to be highly involved in their job than those respondents who scored low on these dimensions of organisational climate.

Subha and Anantharaman (1991) attempted to find out the relationship between satisfaction of needs and perception of organisational climate among 75 managers. Profile of organisational characteristics and need satisfaction questionnaire were utilised. It was found that they felt deficiency in the fulfillment of the needs. The
correlations between need satisfaction and organisational climate variables were all negative. This showed that when needs were deprived of, the perception of organisational climate was negative.

The study, conducted by Anantharaman and Jagadesh (1994) was to find out the difference in perception of organisational climate between union and non-union employees. As many as 120 union members and 50 non-members of trade unions were interviewed in a manufacturing concern. They were with administered questionnaire on union commitments, organisational climate and job involvement. The union members perceived organisational climate less favourably.

Venkateshwara and Anantharam (1996) had attempted to find out the difference in perceptions of organisational climate between an accident group and an accident free group. The accident group consisted of both accident repeaters and accident non-repeaters. A sum of 155 respondents, who had one or more accidents in the last three years, and 140 respondents, who had a clean safety record during the same period, participated in the study. It was found that accident sample perceived certain dimensions of the organisational climates less favourably than the accident free samples.

In his study, Rajendran (1996), said that each type of work required some amount of involvement, but its intensity might differ in accordance
with the level. In this study, 'climate' was meant to include those characteristics that distinguished the organisation from other organisations and that influenced the behaviour of the people in the organisation. It was found that the organisational structure, being different for assistants and superintendents of Government and Quasi-Government organisations, had influenced their attitudes on job involvement and organisational climate.

The study by Venkateswara Rao and Chattopadhyay (1996) had revealed that it was only the unit that influenced the perception of the organisational environment not the other variables and not even the status one had in the organisation. It also indicated that improvement of organisational climate would result in less variation in employee perceptions. The study also indicated that periodical assessment of organisational climate might reveal a spurt and crop down in different dimensions which would be an indication to industrial unrest.

**REVIEW ON JOB INVOLVEMENT**

Herzber (1959) in his study indicates that job - involvement is related to satisfaction with recognition, achievement and responsibility, although in each instance the percentage of total variance in job-involvement accounted for is relatively small. The relation between job-involvement and
advancement are not quite significant. It also reveals that job-involvement increases with increasing levels of satisfaction with motivator variables.

Lawyer and Hall (1970) concluded that more people would become involved in a job that allowed them control and chance to use their abilities than those who would become involved in jobs that are lacking these characteristics.

Mchelvey and Sekaran's (1977) study revealed that engineers were especially sensitive to certain aspects of organisational structure connected with decentralisation and stratification and thus, these would effect job involvement. In the public works department of the State, the amount of centralisation is quite strong and stratification in terms of "Ranks" is quite distinct. Quite obviously, the engineers working at the lower levels in and the "Status Conscious" sub-culture feel less job-involved.

Sharma and Sharma (1978) had studied the job involvement in relation to certain demographic variables. The result showed that job involvement increased with a rise in job level. High job involvement at upper job level was due to increased amount of control.
Poret (1979) had studied white collar employees of an industrial organisation. Sample size responded to a questionnaire dealing with the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction. Results showed that job involvement and job satisfaction were significantly related.

Santhamani (1982) had studied job involvement and occupational motivation of research and development personnel. The study revealed that the job involvement increased with increasing level of satisfaction with motivator variables.

Singh and Patiraj (1988) explored the relationship of need strength, motivation and job involvement with job satisfaction and productivity and absenteeism. Results showed that workers with high and low job involvement significantly differed in job satisfaction scores and insignificantly in performance and absenteeism scores.

Brockner et al., (1988) examined some of the factors associated with job involvement of survivors, subsequent to lay off. Regression analyses revealed that survivors work ethic and prior role ambiguity were related to their job involvement only in the mild lay off condition. Work ethic was positively and prior role ambiguity was negatively related to job involvement.
Singh and Pestonjee (1990) had studied job satisfaction, job involvement and participation among the different categories of employees of nationalised bank in India. The clerks indicated more satisfaction than officers. Officers showed higher job involvement and more participation in decision making than clerks.

Ittyearah and Rani (1990) had tested 28 visually handicapped workers and 28 matched sighted blindfolded skilled workers. Multiple correlations indicated that for certain amount of job satisfaction, both job involvement and manual dexterity were necessary.

In Babu and Reddy's (1990) study found no positive association between high job involvement and positive attitude towards management. Personal and demographic variables viz. age, education, marital status, number of dependents, salary and length of service had not affected the job involvement of low, medium, and high scorers.

Misra (1991) investigated the political effect of the powerlessness on the relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement. Moderated regression analyses and sub group analyses indicated that the powerlessness did not have a moderating effect upon job involvement and job satisfaction relationship.
Kumar and Achmamba (1993) had conducted a comparative study of job satisfaction and job involvement among public and private sector employees. As many as 150 workers and 150 administrative staff from public and private sector industries in India completed the job descriptive index and the job involvement scale. Results revealed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement. There were no significant difference between public and private sector employees with regard to job involvement.

Moser K and Schuler H (1993) had studied the validity of a German version of the job involvement scale. The results showed the validity of German version of the job involvement scale. Data from 811 normal male and female employees revealed that job involvement was highly related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Mishra, Gupta and Jyotsana (1994) had examined the effects of motivation and job involvement on the performance of 50 blue collar industrial workers in a steel plant. Job experience ranged from four to seventeen years. Results revealed that motivation and job involvement both were significantly related to performance, as mean performance scores for the high motivated group was higher than that of the low motivated group. Performance scores were also higher in the high job involvement group than in the low group.
Gonzalez (1994) had studied the discriminant validity of two instruments designed to measure organisational commitment and job involvement. Information on socio demographic variables, employment history, organisational commitment and job involvement were obtained by administering a questionnaire. Job involvement was measured by a questionnaire developed by Lodah and Kejner (1965). This was used to study the effect of job involvement on the relationship between machiavellian and job performance. Gable, Myrrn, Dangella, and Frank (1994). The results showed a significant linkage between machiavellian and the measures of job performance.

A study was conducted to explore the intrinsic and extrinsic occupational needs and their relationship with job involvement. Rupinen and Markku (1994) in their study took 220 elementary school teachers and 213 secretaries. The respondents completed a self-description inventory, a job involvement scale a locus of control scale. Job involvement of the teachers and the secretaries was significantly predicted by intrinsic needs. Job involvement related to the extrinsic need was not associated with locus of control. The relationship with intrinsic needs and job involvement was not influenced by internal locus of control.

Jenkins, et.al.,(1994) had examined the relationship among interpersonal demands of jobs and the psychological health, job and work involvement and the job satisfaction of workers. Seventy respondents
were 49- years old and 100 were 43 years old. The respondents, who were psychologically healthier in adolescence and earlier adulthood, manifested greater involvement and satisfaction than in later adulthood. Respondents in interpersonally demanding jobs showed greater involvement and satisfaction. Men were more involved, but not more satisfied than women. Older respondents, who were more psychologically healthy, were more likely to enter, and remain in interpersonally demanding jobs. This relationship was moderate, by both chronological age and historical period.

Heaven, Patrick (1994) attempted to re-investigate the relationship involving scores on the occupational attributes and job commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. Low job involvement was significantly related to internal locus for negative events. None of the attitudinal measures was significantly related to stability. Age but not occupational prestige or annual salary was significantly related to attributive dimensions.

Orpen and Christopher (1995) examined the relationship between (1) perceived age discrimination at work and (2) Job satisfaction and involvement and organisational commitment among the employees of an Australian financial service firm. Correlation between age discrimination and job involvement was significantly negative.
Relationship among job involvement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment among the nurses was studied by Knoop and Robert (1995). They examined whether the involvement in work and job, commitment to the organisation and satisfaction with the job would be significantly related. The involvement was not related to overall job satisfaction but was related to satisfaction with work and promotion opportunities. The degree of relationship between overall and specific facts of satisfaction and commitment and between involvement and commitment was moderately high.

Orpen and Christopher (1995 b) examined the effects of separate and joint efforts of individual career planning and organisational career management on employees job performance and job involvement. As many as 43 part-time management students engaged mainly in supervisory position were examined. Both the individual and organisational efforts at improving the careers had significant effect on involvement and performance. Their joint effect on both the outcomes was also significant with individual career.

Job involvement between army officers and their soldiers was studied by Savell, Joel, Teague and Ross (1995). They correlated self reported job motivation of 49 squad leaders and 190 of their squad members at different times. The correlation was higher at the end than at the beginning period of combat training. At both the times, the correlation