PATTERNS OF MANAGEMENT AND JOB REACTIONS

CHAPTER III

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The first section of this chapter attempts to briefly review the Likert's systems of management which is in focus of the present study. The second section discusses the nature of the variables selected for investigation. The last section attempts to raise research questions on the possible relationship between the systems and the other variables and also to formulate hypotheses.

Systems of Management

Rensis Likert (1961) has formulated a general theory of organization by identifying the nature of science based management of human resources in enterprises. The theory is based on the qualitative analysis of the patterns of management found in the best units as contrasted with those found in the poorer ones in USA. The typical patterns of management identified by Likert are described in the following pages. The descriptive account of the systems characteristics summarised here closely follows the account provided in Likert (1961).

The general pattern of the findings of the volumenous researches done at the Institute for Social Research since 1947 to 1961 has unearthed Likert and his associates coroborate to the proposition that different typical patterns of management exist and are associated with different behaviour outcomes in the organizations. The general principles of the theory have been found applicable to other kinds of institutions including schools, hospitals, labour unions, professional and voluntary organizations. Though the focus of the original investigations just cited has been only

in the business enterprises the suggestion has been found to be valid in a number of studies (Bass, 1981).

The high producing managers are reported to build the personnel in their units or departments into highly effective organizations through contributing to favourable, cooperative attitudes and high levels of participation on the part of the members of the organizations. When the employee centered supervision is coupled with the use of tight controls high productivity would ensue. Besides fostering favourable attitudes high performance goals are to be supplemented through leadership and decision making to achieve high degree of productivity. The high producing managers are found to supervise in such a way as to harness important and powerful non economic as well as economic motives. The principles and practices of the high producing managers are deviating in important ways from those called for by the traditional management theories that advocate job centered approach. The high producing managers, however have not integrated the deviant principles into the theory of management. It occured to Likert and his co-workers to build a theory of management based on the principles and practices of the high producing managers.

The critical difference between the management system followed by the high producing managers and managers of mediocre and low producing units could be found in that the formers have developed their organizations into highly coordinated, highly motivated, cooperative social systems and that under their leadership, the different motivational forces in each member of the organization coalesce into a strong force aimed at accomplishing the mutually established objectives of the organization. They also ensue that the leadership and other process of the

organization have such character of ensuring a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationship with the organization, each member, will in the light of his/her background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his/her sense of personal work and importance. The highly effective work groups linked together in an overlapping pattern by other similarly effective groups and bonded by the practice of the principle of supportive relationship is the nucleus of Likert's theory of management.

The members could and do exercise substantial amount of influence on the group's values and goals in the case of highly effective group. Consequently, the goals reflect the long range as well as the short range needs, desires and values of its members. Constructive values and goals of their society are reflected by groups when long-range desires and values reflect on the average, some of the more important long range values and goals of the total society.

The heuristic value of the Likert's theory lies in that it lends for a comparative view of organizations. It makes it possible to examine various systems of management arrayed along a dimension which is probably at a right angle to the variable representing the amount of control exercised by the system, and the second dimension involves the character of motivational forces used to control and coordinate the activity of persons operating under the system. The complex situation could be simplified by assuming four discrete types of organizational systems which fall at four points on the continuum.

It is plausible that all the different management systems could be ordered along a continuum involving the kinds of controls and motiva-

tional forces used and the kinds of attitudinal responses evoked under such circumstances, it could be seen that all the many operating procedures and the performance characteristics of the different management systems form an orderly pattern along every horizontal dimension. Further orderly relationship could also be seen along the vertical dimensions which reflect the patterns of complementing interrelationships between the different operating procedures for each of the different forms of organization.

The orderly pattern identified by Likert serves useful purposes. The systems lend scope to examine the personalities, skills, and characteristic ways of interacting which fit a particular system since, each system of organization requires personality skills and ways of interacting to function at its best. Again each form of organization is assumed to produce people suited to function well within the system and also to mould people in their own image. This also could be examined using the systems approach.

Probabilististic Orientation and Systems

The construct' probabilistic orientation is derived from a phenomenological perspective. It connotes the ways an individual observes the events and things in the environment and comprehends them. The meaning and interpretatation of the various events occurring in the life space of an individual are succinctly summarised in prbabilistic orientation. It is identified as one of the cultural dimensions in India (Narayanan, 1977, 1979).

Probabilistic orientation refers to the expectation in which an individual takes a mental stand (set) with regard to the possible outcomes and actual outcomes in a situation. It is free from value judgements

and prejudices. Probabilistic orientation welcomes every possible outcomes with equal preference and does not label any particular outcome as good or bad, luck or odd luck; it does not bother about the apparent implications of a particular outcome in an event. It stands as a condition of mind in which an individual accepts every outcome in event irrespective of its apparent implication to his/her interest. It is neither an optimistic view nor a pessimistic view; it treats an occurrence of an event just as an occurrence per se without regarding the occurrence as a threat or a promise (Narayanan, 1977, 1979). Porbabilistic orientation is essentially a system perspective. It believes that nature acts as a system without any bias or prejudice to an individual and every event in Nature is a random event arising out of a stochastic process. It views every event in an universal evolutionary perspective (Narayanan, 1984; Narayanan et al., 1984).

A few studies have explored the relationship between cognition and probabilistic orientation. Probabilistic orientation is reported to be significantly correlated with factor-B. Intelligence (less intelligence-more intelligence) (Cattell, 1962) and creativity assessed by consequences, alternate uses, word completion, object identification and symbol creation tests scored for fluency only. The relationship between probabilistic orientation and intellignece and creativity just cited is found only in the case of girls and not in the case of boys (Natarajan, 1983). The findings reported were obtained in a study of 200 adolescents equally divided into both the sexes. In another study of more than 180 adults the relationship between probabilistic orientation and creativity assessed by Remote Association Test was explored. The findings show that probabilistic orientation is significantly negatively related to creativity assessed interms of ability to form remote associations (Narayanan and Vijayakumar, 1988).

Probabilistic orientation is not found to be correlated with socio-economic status as found among adolescent boys and girls (Natarajan, 1983).

Adolescent boys are reported to be less probabilistically oriented than adolescent girls (Natarajan, 1983). However, both male and female adults are reported to have the same degree of probabilistic orientation in another study (Jayaraj, 1984).

Probabilistic orientation is reported to be not significantly related to age as reported in a study involving more than 180 adults (Narayanan and Vijayakumar, 1988). However, elders are reported to be less probabilistically oriented than adults (Narayanan, 1983).

Probabilistic orientation is reported to be negatively, significantly correlated with innovative personality dimensions as found among 200 school teachers (Kirton, 1976 ; Venkatachalam, 1978; Jayaraj, 1984). Probabilistic orientation is reported to be significantly negatively correlated with investigative and conventional dimensions of the personality dimensions propounded by (Holland, 1966; Narayanan and Govindarasu, 1986). The personality was measured using MMPI items. The relationship between probabilistic orientation and the characteristics measured by MMPI was explored in a study on 33 male graduate adults. Probabilistic orientation is found to be not correlated with any one of the MMPI scores except the Lie-score; probabilistic orientation scores are negatively significantly related to L-scores (Narayanan, 1985). Another study has explored the relationship between probabilistic orientation and personality needs on a sample of 100 graduate adults by comparing criterion groups standing for high and low levels of probabilistic orientation on various needs. The comparison shows that

both the groups have the same level on all the needs studied (Natarajan, 1983).

Another study explored the relationship between probabilistic orientation and Rorschach on a sample of 100 male adults (Ganesan, 1986). The findings show that highly probabilistically oriented individuals are characterized by high ego or thinking operation emotional control, intelligence and interest, control impairment, agressive acts, sexual interest, perception of reality and the ability to perceive the common place and individuals lower probabilistic orientation by higher denial, detachment from the real and fantacy.

The relationship between probabilistic orientation and Eysencks Personality Dimensions (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1964) has been investigated on a sample of 100 adolescent boys and 100 adolescent girls (Natarajan, 1983). The findings reveal that probabilistic orientation is significantly related to extroversion among girls but not among boys.

Another study has attempted to study the relationship between probabilistic orientation and death anxiety on a sample of 30 adults and 30 elders (Templer, 1970; Narayanan, 1983). The findings reveal that probabilistic orientation is significantly related to death anxiety among elders, but not among adults.

The relationship between probabilistic orientation and mental health was tested in a study employing 200 teachers of both the sexes distributed equally (Augustine, 1978; Jayaraj, 1984). The findings reveal that probabilistic orientation is positively and significantly related to mental health. However, the criterion groups on probabilistic orien-

tation do not differ among themselves with reference to mental health. Another study has explored the relationship between probabilistic orientation and personal values assessed in terms of values listed in Gordan (Gordan, 1967; Narayanan and Govindarasu, 1984). The findings reveal that the personal values of variety, practical mindedness and orderliness are significantly and positively related to probabilistic orientation and social orientation, decisiveness and achievement are negatively significantly related to probabilistic orientation.

A study attempted to investigate the relationship between probabilistic orientation and level of aspiration on a sample of 75 adolescent boys and 75 adolescent girls. The Rotter's level of aspiration board was used to assess the aspiration. The findings reveal that aspiration height, mean performance, and goal discrepancy are significantly negatively correlated with probabilistic orientation. Mean aspiration is found to be positively correlated with probabilistic orientation. Performance height, goal tenacity, achievement discrepancy and rigidity are not correlated with probabilistic orientation. Further analysis show that when the scores on level of aspiration are calculated taking into account the subjective estimate of achieving the set level of goal achievement stated by the S, every time when he/she sets a goal, a more clear relationship between probabilistic orientation and level of aspiration emerges; Probabilistic orientation is significantly, negatively correlated with goal discrepancy and achievement discrepancy and also performance. Other measures of aspiration were not found to be correlated to probabilistic orientation. (Narayanan and Govindarasu, 1984).

Another investigation attempted to examine the relationship between probabilistic orientation and locus of control variables on a sample of 240 girls and 120 boys drawn from a higher secondary school. The findings reveal that probabilistic orientation is significantly and positively correlated with locus of control, chance and powerful others orientations as found among girls and not among boys (Narayanan et al., 1984).

Another study has attempted to find out the relationship between security-insecurity (Maslow, 1962; Narayanan and Govindarasu, 1986) and probabilistic orientation on a sample of 55 adults drawn from a transport corporation. The findings reveal that probabilistic orientation is significantly correlated to security-insecurity.

The relationship between probabilistic orientation and the Indian Personality types was investigated in another study. The personality types conceived include Rajas, Tamas and Sattav and were assessed using the Q-Sort Self Concept Test. The sample used in this study consisted of 100 female graduates. The findings reveal that the personality types do not differ among themselves with reference to probabilistic orientation. But, the probabilistic orientation is significantly negatively correlated to Rajas. It is also reported that mixing up of the personality types viz., Rajas, Tamas and Sattav individuals remains to be detrimental to probabilistic orientation.

A study attempted to test the probabilistic orientation among employed and unemployed (Michael, 1985). The Ss were 480 male and female individuals equally distributed into catholics and protestants. The findings reveal that both employed and unemployed are homogenous

on probabilistic orientation. Males are less probabilistically oriented than females.

The difference between housewives, career women and women entrepreneurs on probabilistic orientation was tested in a study (Sunandini, 1985). The study employed 240 women from Coimbatore and Bangalore. The findings reveal that housewives, career women, and women entrepreneurs are not homogenous on probabilistic orientation. Career women are found to have significantly more probabilistic orientation than housewives and women entrepreneurs. House wives and women entrepreneurs have the same level of probabilistic orientation.

Another study employed 50 entrepreneurs, 50 potential entrepreneurs and 50 managers and tested for their extent of probabilistic orientation nature. The findings reveal that the Ss are not homogenous on probabilistic orientation. Entrepreneurs have significantly higher probabilistic orientation than potential entrepreneurs and managers. Potential entrepreneurs and managers do not differ on probabilistic orientation (Balakrishnan, 1985). Another study has explored the relationship between probabilistic orientation and role conflict among clerks and officers in banks. The sample consisted of 100 clerks and 70 officers. The findings reveal that role conflict assessed in terms of readiness expressed by the individuals to comply with the tasks supposed to be constituting the role is not related to probabilistic orientation. Criterion groups representing high, moderate and low levels of probabilistic orientation do not distinguish themselves on role conflict (Narayanan, 1981; Devi, 1981).

Another study related porbabilistic orientation and perceived support for innovation on a sample of 200 male and female school

teachers distributed equally. The perceived support for innovation was measured using the Perceived Support for Innovation Scale (Siegel and Kaemmerer, 1976). The results reveal that probabilistic orientation is significantly and negatively correlated to the perceived support for innovation (Jayaraj, 1984).

Probabilistic orientation and theperception of organizational climate (Litwin and Stringer, 1968) was examined in a study (Indumathi, 1986) on a sample of 80 clerks belonging to a textile organization. The profiles of organizational climate perception of the high and low probabilistic orientation groups reveal that the profiles are parallel, coincident and not at level. The high probabilistic orientation group has higher scores on all the dimensions measured using the organizational climate questionnaire viz., structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, conflict and identity.

Probabilistic orientation was measured as a job reaction, and its dynamic relationship that exists between systems of management and probabilistic orientation was examined in a study (Thirunavukkarasu, 1985). The systems of management was assessed using Likert's (1967) Profiles of organizational characteristics. 325 college teachers from 23 colleges of the Bharathiar University region constituted the sample for this study. The comparison of the high and low criterion groups on probabilistic organization with reference to the profiles of organizational characteristics reveals that the high probabilistic orientation group perceives the interaction influence process, the decision making process and control process to be more favourable, the low probabilistic orientation group perceive the performance goals and training and goal setting or ordering in a favourable manner. No differences existed

with reference to the groups perception on Leadership process, motivational process and communication process. The high and low probabilistic orientation groups are parallel, coincident and at level with reference to their perception of the organizational characteristics (Thirunavukkarasu, 1986).

The extent of the influence of probabilistic orientation on burnout was investigated in a study (Govindarasu, 1988) on a sample of 102 sport coaches. The results reveal that burnout profiles of the high and low probabilistic orientated are parallel, coincident and at level. Probabilistic orientation is found to be significantly and negatively correlated with burnout.

Work Commitment and Systems

Employee commitment is receiving increasing attention in literature in recent years. The conceptual and theoretical background of studies on work commitment are reviewed adequately elsewhere (Sheldon, 1971; Lee 1971; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1973; Farrell and Rusbult, 1981; March and Simon, 1958; Porter et al., 1974).

Employee commitment is found to be a reliable predictor of certain behaviors. Committed people are likely to remain with the organization and will work in attaining the goals of the organization. Commitment in work organizations have been studied in various connotations as organizational commitment, job commitment, career commitment and occupational commitment. It has also been stated (Mowday et al., 1979) that there are certain variables that are conceptually similar to organizational commitment viz., job attachment and job commitment viz., job attachment is an attitudinal response to a job

characterized by a congruence between one's real and ideal jobs, an identification with ones chosen occupation, and a reluctance to seek alternative employment (Koch & Steers, 1978) and job commitment refers to the extent to which an employee perceives that he or she is connected to a job and involves feelings of psychological attachment, independent of affect.

Commitment represents a global evaluative link between the employee and the organization, with job satisfaction among commitment's specific components (Porter et al., 1974). Work commitment has been defined by (Krau, 1984) in accordance with Lodhal and Kejner (1965) and Gorn and Kanungo (1980) as a multidimensional attitude whose components are the meaningfulness of work to the person, a state of psychological identification with the work he/she does, and the centrality of work in the life of the individual - the identification with work in general, relative or other activities. Work commitment could be linked to intrinsic job involvement as well as to the extrinsic material values of money reward (Super, 1962). From a more psychological perspective, work commitment has been defined as the degree to which a person is career motivated, the degree to which an occupation is important as a source of satisfaction and the degree of priority ascribed to occupation among other sources of satisfaction (Masih, 1967).

Commitment has been defined as a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement (Salancik, 1977). Commitment represents a set of feelings more closely connected to the individuals desire to stay attached to a particular work situation (Porter et al., 1974).

Literature on commitment has yielded a large set of predictors. Increased commitment has been found to be predicted by improved communications and feedback (Steers, 1977), by improved promotional and advancement opportunities (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Lee, 1971) by equitable compensation (Grusky, 1966; Koch and Steers, 1978), by more group cohesion (Steers, 1977), by longer tenure in organization (Hall and Schneider, 1972; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Koch and Steers, 1978; Stevens et al., 1978), by older age (Angle and Perry, 1981; Lee, 1971) and by increased job satisfaction (Brief and Aldag, 1980; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Marsh and Mannari, 1977).

The relationship between commitment and other organizational variables have been examined. Job satisfaction is found to have a positive relationship with commitment in an investigation (Porter et al., 1974); an inverse relationship with job dissatisfaction (Hrebeniaik and Alutto, 1972) and no relationship was found between job satisfaction (Grusky, 1966; Sillito, 1971).

The structural influences on organizational commitment was examined. The findings reveal that organization structure influences the level of employee commitment. The study also suggests that commitment as an attitude reacts in a similar fashion to satisfaction; increased formalization may also influence commitment to some extent by facilitating both job and role clarity where highly committed employees have more desire for working hard to accomplish organizational goals (Morris and Steers, 1980).

Several correlates of commitment have been found. The personal correlates like age, tenmure, educational level, gender race and various

personality factors. Commitment is found to be positively related to both age and tenure (Angle and Perry, 1981; Brown, 1969; Hall, 1977; Steers, 1977 ; Lee, 1971 ; Morris and Sherman, 1981 and Sheldon, 1971). Education is found to be inversely related to commitment (Angle and Perry, 1981; Morris and Sherman, 1981; Morris and Steers, 1980 and Steers, 1977a). Regarding gender women are more committed than men (Angle and Perry, 1981; Gould, 1975; Grusky, 1966; and Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972). Personality factors like achievement motivation, sense of competence were found to be related to commitment (Koch, 1974; Morris and Sherman, 1981; Rotondi, 1976; Steers, 1977a; Steers and Spencer, 1977).

Commitment to occupation is described with an example as, when a person refuses to change his job, eventhough the new job offers him a salary and better working conditions, one should suspect that his decision is due to his commitment (Becker, 1960). Commitment can be thought of interms of a sense of identification with the organizational mission ; a feeling of involvement or psychological immersion in organizational duties; and a feeling of loyality and affection for the organization as a place to live and work (Buchanan, 1974). Workers with a work-oriented central life interest were also highly committed to the organization (Dubin, Champoux and Porter, 1975). Individuals with a strong personal work ethic tend to be highly committed to the organization (Buchanan, 1974; Hall et al., 1970; Hulin and Blood, 1968; Kidron, 1978; Ribinowitz and Hall, 1977). High levels of employees commitment should be associated with supervision that is not overtly tight or close (Salancik, 1977).

Supervisors who allow their employees greater discretion over how the job is performed increased the employee's felt responsibility. Although this prediction may appear to conflict with the positive relationship that has been found between leaders initiating structure and commitment (Brief et al., 1976; Morris & Sherman, 1981), this conflict may more apparent than real. Leader initiating structure can involve clarifying job expectations for employees and setting clear task goals; both of which may increase the employee's felt responsibility and thus commitment would be expected that felt responsibility would increase when supervisors allow employees to participate actively in decision making on the job (Rhodes & Steers, 1978) and when organizations are characterized by a high degree of decentralization (Morris & Steers, 1980).

The organizational commitment of professional accountants with reference to two major theoretical approaches was conducted on a sample of 2,950 accountants. The theoretical approaches are (1) the exchange approach and (2) the investment approach. The exchange approach states that, the individual's organizational commitment depends upon his/her perceived balanced of reward utilities over imput utilities which emphasizes on current exchange relation between individuals and organizations. The investment approach states the time element, the longer a person has been with an organization, the more that a person wants to stay. Investment refers to the participation in an organization to the extent that possible participation in another organization is decreased. The questionnaires used are the background questionnaires, measures of job satisfaction, scales of organizational and professional commitment, and social desirability Index. A one way Analysis of variance including least significant difference Procedure and Standard regression were to test the

hypotheses. The results reveal that the level of organizational commitment was high in the case of partners and sole practitioners compared to chartered accountants in Industry, firms and government. Satisfaction with job scope was found the most powerful predictor for all groups. The exchange factors, i.e. the satisfaction with job scope, professional commitment and organizational professional conflict as well as the moderate i.e. the occupational setting and organizational level were found to be significant for chartered accountants organizational commitment. The investment factors like the age, length of service and likelihood of finding a suitable position in some other organization found to be insignificant which supports the exchange theory but not the investment theory in explaining the organizational commitment of chartered accountants. (Amernic and Aranya, 1983).

Alienation and Systems

Alienation is the most frequently encountered term in the discussion of organizational behavior (Korman, 1967). Alienation is derived from the Latin Alienare, which means 'to make some things on others', 'to take away', 'remove'.

Psychologically, extensive research evidence is available on all the ways in which estrangement from self and others can be expressed; alienation is one such phenomena. The term is cirticized to be extraordinarily vague and imprecise. Admittedly, the term cannot be used analytically without specifying the intended meaning in clear operational terms. A number of investigators have fruitfully employed the term in their researches (Seeman, 1972a; 1972b; Allardt, 1965; Blauner, 1964; Clark, 1959; Dean, 1961; Hosten,

1964 ; Isreal, 1971 ; Kohn, 1967 ; Nettler, 1957 ; Olsen, 1985.

According to Parsons (1967), the term alienation is used to refer to some form of seperation of the individual from some aspect of society; alienation manifests itself interms of dissatisfaction from popular cultural standards. Alienation from work is more common among people doing monotonous, machine paced, closely supervised jobs (Weiss and Reisman, 1961; Blauner, 1964; Kornhauser, 1965; Crozier, 1965; Wilensky, 1964). It has also been stated that individuals who are not work-oriented may not be alienated (Champoux and Porter, 1975). Alienation is the opposite of attachment to the system or to the job and can be thought of as an intrinsic meaninglessness (Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Alienated type of responses were not limited to occupational group (Kornhauser, 1965). Alienation and dissatisfaction have been recognized as important problems among managers and professionals (Bartlome and Evans, 1980; Burke and Deszea, 1982; Korman et al., 1981; Sarason, 1977). The individual experience and developmental factors in producing alienation has been explained by a model (Korman and Korman, 1980; Korman et al., 1981). The question of worker alienation from ideologically loaded Marxian perspective of the more scientifically measurable level was made by Blauner.

According to Marx's conception, alienation is a condition in which man in his every day life denies part of his being inorder to survive and man play a role so as to speak in which he is seperated, or estranged as alienation from the kind of life which he is capable of. In addition, it has also been contended that the work setting is the most strategic

place in which to observe alienation, because occupation roles have consequences for most, to social participation (Pearlin, 1965).

Powerlessness, meaninglessness, and normalessness are predisposing conditions of alienation and is composed of sense of social isolation and self-etrangement (Faunce, 1968). Alienation is believed to be a seperate and distinct construct from life and job satisfaction and it refers to a sense of seperation of the individual from his/her own needs and from other people, both in work and non-work areas (Korman et al., 1981).

Alienation is a feeling of powerlessness over one's own affairs a sense that the things that importantly affect one's activities and work are outside his control. Intense alienation can be arised due to the inability of the subordinates to act back upon their superordinates. Industrial workers of the 19th century were alienated because of the roles he was forced to play. Marx also states that the reason behind such alienation was that the worker had given up control over his own fate and his desire for self expression in return for a wage. The giving up of the sense of self as a result of joining the faculty system led him to become estranged, or alienated from the product of that system. The desire for the self expression had to be rejected and controlled in order to survive in the factory system where he became estranged from the parts of himself wanted self control and meaningful experience. The worker becomes alienated from those parts of his own character or psyche which he is unable to express in every day life which is said to be the second level on which alienation occurs. Clark (1959) was the first to relate alienation to a specific organizational setting.

Several sources of alienation are theoretically possible, empirical studies examine a single source of alienation at a time. Miller (1967) measured alienation as it varies according to work satisfaction and ignored dissatisfactions that arise outside of the work situation. Alienation has been criticized in the humanistic connotations (Feuer, 1962; Kaufman, 1965), while some lament attempted to dehumanise it (Horton, 1964), others view it as a vague and encompassing concept that it is scientifically useless, or misleading (Lee, 1972), while others criticize and attempts to make it measurable (Feuer, 1962). The enduring vitality of the concept of alienation has been documented by Geyer (1972).

Reduced worker alienation is associated with automated technology (Susman, 1972a) which confirms Blauner's conclusion where it has been found that workers in automated work settings are less alienated than those in mass production system.

In a study conducted among factory workers in four countries, alienation was not found; feelings of powerlessness, meaninglessness and specifically normlessness can occur in response to other situations (Form, 1973). Inspite of the variations in the nature of social, legal, political systems, among two organizations, education was found to be the prediction of alienation and has been explained by 37% of the variance of members alienation (Nightingale et al., 1978). Female employees were more alienated than male employees and job satisfaction factors showed a positive relationship to general alienation.

Alienation has also been stated as a feeling of powerlessness over one's own affairs, a sense that the things that importantly affect one's activities and work are outside his control. Intense alienation

can be arised due to the inability of the subordinates to act back upon their subordinates.

Alienation was related to the perceived organizational climate (Litwin and Stringer, 1968) in a study done on a sample of 80 white collar workers of a textile organization. The findings reveal that the profiles of the perception of the organizational climate of the low and high alienation groups are found to be parallel coincident but not at level (Indumathi, 1986).

Another study attempted to study alienation among employed and unemployed (Michael, 1985). Alienation was measured using the Alienation Questionnaire (Vendal, 1981). The results reveal that employed differ from unemployed with reference to alienation. The profiles of the unemployed and employed are parallel, have equal means, but are not coincident with reference to alienation.

An analysis of the relationship between alienation and worker participation was done on a sample of 300 workers drawn from a transport corporation. Alienation was assessed in terms of powerlessness, self-estrangement, cultural estrangement, normlessness and meaninglessness using Kohn's (1976) questionnaire. The findings reveal significant relationship to exist between workers participation and the dimensions of alienation viz., Powerlessness, self estrangement, cultural estrangement, normlessness and meaninglessness. The findings suggest that the alienated worker tends to participate less in the activities of the organization (Jerome, 1981).

Role Conflict and Systems

According to oxford English Dictionary role refers to the part or character which one has to play and conflict refers to the opposition

in an individual of incompatible wishes or needs of approximately equal strength. Hence, role conflict is the part of the opposition in an individual of incompatible wishes or needs of approximately equal strength. Conflict associated with roles is a significant source of conflict. A role is a set of activities or expected behaviors associated with a particular role to carry out behaviors which turnout to be mutually incompatible (Davis and Lawrence, 1978).

The concept of role conflict has been treated as a general social phenomena with implications for the understanding of conflict between and within organizations (Warren et al., 1958). Role conflict has been defined as the simultaneous occurrence of two or more role expectations such that compliance with one would make compliance with the other more difficult (Katz and Kahn, 1967).

Perceived role conflict in work organizations has been found and evidenced the multiple effects of such role based stress on the person. Individuals experiencing high conflicting roles tend to reduce trust, liking and respect for the role senders from whom the conflict stems, attributes less power to them and withdraw from or restrict communications with them. Reduced job satisfaction, decreased confidence in supervisors and in the organizations are some of the consequences of role conflict. Role conflict has negative effects on the person's related with himself with others in his role set, and with the task and organizational settings (Khan et al., 1964).

The incongruence between role perception and expectation, role ambiguity and lack of role clarity, role overload are certain personality traits that hinder interpersonal relationships on job (Burns,

1954; Horne and Hupton, 1965; Kahn et al., 1964 and Harper, 1968). Role overload, difficulty in the task domain, the demands and the requirements are closely associated with role conflict (Narayanan, 1983).

Conflict paves the way to better solutions by facilitating more searching analysis of problems faced in an organisation which can yield important positive outcomes under some conditions (Boulding, 1964).

Perceived role conflict has been found to correlate with some consistency with variables like job satisfaction, perceived organizational climate, negative attitude toward role senders and lowered the productivity also. (Van Sell et al., 1981). The conceptual frame work and the studies quoted so far connotes role conflict to be negative in scope but recent researches states that conflict can sometimes yield positive as well as negative effects which has gained increasing attention. In the positive point of view conflict may lead to consideration of new ideas that would be overlooked in its absence. In addition it has also been stated that conflict can quickly move from a constructive mode capable of generating positive outcomes, to a destructive one much more likely to yield negative results (Robbins, 1974).

Conflict between supervisors and employees is reported to be associated with low productivity. The amount of conflict employees felt existed between them and their supervisors and the level of production of the employees are related to one another and that the greater the conflict, the lower the production (Georgopoulos, 1957).

The relationship among climate and job requirements for innovation and job satisfaction was examined (Brown, 1986). Climate, role conflict and role ambiguity were found to have significant effects

on job satisfaction, role conflict and role ambiguity. It has been concluded that climate for innovation has a complicating effect on role conflict and ambiguity such that those persons who perceived an innovating climate felt both challenged in their work and experienced higher job satisfaction, and felt free to challenge their work and thus experienced higher role conflict and ambiguity (Brown, 1986).

Supervisors perceptions of role conflict and the relationship with the organizational climate perception was investigated. The level of perceived role conflict was predicted by the following dimensions which were statistically significant viz., communication process, performance goals and training and goal setting or ordering (Mayo, 1982).

A study alone comparing work and non work spheres of life reveals that females are experiencing more role conflict than males and job satisfaction is found to have a positive relationship with commitment. Myraid problems are created by conflict that exists in groups because of the complex organizations with high degree of occupational specialization, employees with diverse backgrounds and constantly changing environment exerts pressure on the organizations but also presents a difficult challenge to the workers (Ferraro and Adams, 1984). Role conflict can be reduced if not eliminated by cultivating mutual interests with informal organizations. If the integrity among interests, goals and methods and evaluation procedures of formal and informal organizations, the greater the attainment of output and satisfaction (Davis, 1972). Management of conflict at the individual group, and intergroup levels are designed by altering the behavioral and structural sources of conflict and enabling the organizational participants to learn the

styles of conflict handling and deal with different conflict situations effectively (Rahim and Bonoma, 1979).

Walton Mckersie (1965, 1966) and Likert and Likert (1978) think that conflict resolution is possible if it can be converted from win-lose negotiation to a problem solving situation from which both parties can emerge as winners. Likert and Likert think it is particularly important that conflicting parties avoiding having to debate solutions to the conflict before they have researched agreement on what they deem as essential in the outcomes and what they regard as desirable.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The conceptual analysis presented so far in this chapter provokes a number of research questions with regard to the possible link between the systems and the job reactions, the questions are stated below :

Research Questions

1.0 Whether the employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management differ among themselves with regard to their job Reactions ? Specifically.

1.1 Whether the employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management differ among themselves with regard to their probabilistic orientation ?

1.2 Whether the employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management differ among themselves with regard to their work commitment ?

1.3 Whether the employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management differ among themselves with regard to their Alienation ?

1.4 Whether the employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management differ among themselves with regard to their Role Conflict ?

2.0 Whether extreme groups on specific job Reactions would distinguish themselves on their perception of psychological climate of their organizations ?

Specifically,

2.1 Whether the criterion groups connoting high, and low levels of probabilistic orientation would distinguish themselves on their perception of organizational climate ?

2.2 Whether the criterion groups connoting high, and low levels of work commitment would distinguish themselves on their perception of organizational climate ?

2.3 Whether the criterion groups connoting high, and low levels of Alienation would distinguish themselves on their perception of organizational climate ?

2.4 Whether the criterion groups connoting high, and low levels of Role conflict would distinguish themselves on their perception of organizational climate ?

3.0 Whether Job Reactions among the employees are related to their perception of psychological climate ?

Specifically,

3.1 Whether Probabilistic Orientation among the employees is correlated to their perception of psychological climate ?

3.2 Whether work commitment among the employees is correlated to their perception of psychological climate ?

3.3 Whether Alienation among the employees is correlated to their perception of Psychological climate ?

3.4 Whether Role conflict among the employees is correlated to their perception of psychological climate ?

4.0 What is the hierarchical contribution of the Probabilistic orientation, Work Commitment, Alienation and Role conflict to the perception of Psychological climate of the organization ?

Specifically,

4.1 How far Probabilistic orientation contributes to predicting the psychological climate of the organization ?

4.2 How far work commitment contributes to predicting the psychological climate of the organization ?

4.3 How far Alienation contributes to predicting the psychological climate of the organizations ?

4.4 How far Role conflict contributes to predicting the psychological climate of the organization ?

5.0 How accurately the membership of the S with reference to the four systems of management could be identified from the hierarchical relationship existing between Probabilistic orientation, work commitment, Alienation and Role conflict and Psychological climate as obtained in the empirical findings of this investigation ?

Hypotheses

1.1.0 The employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management will differ among themselves with regard to their job reactions ?

Specifically

1.2.0 The employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management will differ among themselves with regard to their probabilistic orientation

1.2.1	Mean probabilistic orientation in system I	>	Mean probabilistic orientation in system II	>	Mean probabilistic orientation in system III	>
					Mean probabilistic orientation in system in IV	

1.3.0 The employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management will differ among themselves with regard to their work commitment.

1.3.1	Mean work commitment in system I	>	Mean work commitment in system II	>	Mean work commitment in system III	>	Mean work commitment in system IV

1.4.0 The employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management will differ among themselves with regard to their alienation.

1.4.1	Mean alienation in system I	<	Mean alienation in system II	<	Mean alienation in system III	<	Mean alienation system IV

1.5.0 The employees belonging to organizations adopting different systems of management will differ among themselves with regard to their role conflict.

1.5.1	Mean role conflict in system I	<	Mean role conflict in system II	<	Mean role conflict in system III	<	Mean role conflict in system IV

2.1.0 The extreme groups on specific job reactions would distinguish them themselves on their perception of organizational climate of their organization.

Specifically,

2.2.0 The criterion groups connoting high and low levels of probabilistic orientation will distinguish themselves on their perception of organizational climate.

2.2.1	Mean in high probabilistic orientation group	>	Mean in low probabilistic orientation group

2.3.0 The criterion groups connoting high and low levels of work commitment will distinguish themselves on their perception of organizational climate.

2.3.1	Mean in high work commitment group	>	Mean in low work commitment group

2.4.0 The criterion group connoting high and low levels of alienation will distinguish themselves on their perception of organizational climate.

2.4.1	Mean in high alienation group	>	Mean in low alienation group

2.5.0 The criterion groups connoting high and low levels of role conflict will distinguish themselves on their perception of organizational climate.

2.5.1	Mean in high role conflict group	>	Mean in low role conflict group

3.1.0 Job reactions among the employees will be related to their perception of psychological climate of their organizations.

Specially,

3.1.1 Probabilistic orientation among employees will be significantly correlated with the perception of psychological climate ?

3.2.1 Work commitment among employees will significantly correlated with the perception of psychological climate ?

3.3.1 Alienation among employees will be significantly correlated with the perception of psychological climate.

3.4.1 Role conflict among employees will be significantly correlated with the perception of psychological climate.

4.1.0 Job reactions may have a hierarchial order of contributions to the perception of psychological climate of the organization.

4.1.1 It is likely that the job reactions may follow the following order of contribution :

Work commitment
Probabilistic orientation
Alienation
Role conflict

5.1.0 The exact amount of contribution of the variables could not be positively hypothesized at this point of time by the investigator.