CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAME WORK OF JOB IN INVOLVEMENT, JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANIZATIONAL AND TURNOVER INTENTION
CHAPTER - 3
THEORETICAL FRAME WORK (JI)

Job Involvement

Job Involvement (JI) means the extent that one's job is important as a self-esteem factor. In case that Job gives great opportunity to satisfy the worker's need, his/her job is central in his/her life. Lawler and Hall (1970) define JI as the extent to which the individual regards that his/her job is central to his/her ego. Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960) define JI as the importance of an individual's job for his self expression or self actualization. French and Kahn (1962) described one of the dimensions of JI as the degree of consistency between values and his/her job. According to Lodahl and Kejner (1965), a high JI person recognizes his/her job as very important, and cares about the job itself, job-related human relations and the organization where he works. A high JI person may or may not be satisfied with his job and/or happy at work.

Kanungo (1982) described JI as a cognitive state of unidimensional psychological identification from a motivational approach. Kanungo defined JI as individual's perception or belief that he is identified with his/her job. Kanungo also makes clear the result or not tends to recognize his job results as the consequence of his own efforts or behaviour. He may think that the more eagerly he works the more good results he can get. So a person whose locus of control is internal would recognize his job as very important and would take extra - role behaviours more often than a person whose locus of control is external.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Emotional JI:</strong></th>
<th>Attachment Interest Liking</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive JI:</strong></td>
<td>Psychological State Self-esteem Active participation</td>
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<td><strong>Behavioral JI:</strong></td>
<td>Behavioral intention Extra-role behavior Voluntary learning</td>
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**Individual Variables Personality:**

1. Locus of control
2. Need for growth
3. Work value
4. Socialization
5. Individual career variable
6. Success experience
7. Career stage.

**Organization Variables**

8. Participation in decision making
9. Job Type
10. Job Satisfaction
11. Organizational Satisfaction
12. Organizational Commitment
13. Human resource management

**Non-Organizational Variables**

14. Non-Organizational Involvement
15. Family Involvement
Importance of Performance in Self-Esteem

This concept means that JI is the index of how seriously job performance affects individual self-esteem. In other words, if an individual increased his self-esteem by good job performance or decreased it by bad job performance, he could be called a high JI person. This kind of JI concept is presented by French and Kahn (1962), Vroom (1962, 1964) and Lodahl and Kejner (1965).

Active Participation in Job

This concept means JI indicates how actively an individual participates in his/her job. Allport (1943, 1947) described JI as the extent if a worker's participation in his job-related decision making.

Previous research about the JI concept may be criticized on three fronts. First, every JI concept studied in previous research is cognitive. It is clear that emotional and behavioral dimensions of JI were not included by previous JI research. Second, there is no common JI concept which most researchers could use. The one reason is that the referents of JI are various, such as the job itself and job-related human relations (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965) or the general job situation (Lawler and Hall, 1970). For another reason, two different JI dimensionalities exist: multi-dimensional (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965; Saleh and Hosek, 1976) and uni-dimensional (Kanungo, 1982). The multidimensional JI concept represented by Lodahl and Kejner did not offer a general JI concept, because the components of the dimensions are not clear (Rabinowilz and Hall, 1977, Blau, 1985). On the other hand, the context validity of uni-dimensionality is doubtful because it is too simplistic to describe JI. This paper presents a hypothetical model which describes the antecedents of JI.
Antecedents of JI

It is helpful to realize how JI has evolved and how the concept has changed over time. The antecedents of JI can be classified into three categories: individual personality variables, organizational variables and non-organizational variables. The effect of each variable on JI is described as follows.

Individual Variables

The individual variables which affect JI are classified as individual personality H such as locus of control, growth need, working value and the way of being socialized, and individual career such as career stage and successful job experience.

(a) Personality variables. If JI is correlated with individual internal characteristics and if JI is somewhat stable, a part of one's personality could be related to JI (Runyon, 1973).

Organizational Variables

Organizational variables which affect JI are work-related variables such as job type, job characteristics and human resource management and organizational attitude variables such as job satisfaction, organizational satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Non-Organizational Variables

Individuals are involved not only in job-related matters but also in matters about their private life.

The concept of involvement of the self is needed for explaining human motivation, including the operation of specific bodily needs as well as the
person's ambitions and setting up of long range-goals with regard to his ego-concerns in interpersonal relations and the direction that he takes in group relations.

The terms self, self system and ego will be used interchangeably, most of the studies in this area in the last three decades were labeled as ego-involvement investigations. Self is a developmental formation or sub-system in the psychological make up of the individual that consists of at any given time, inter-related attitudes that the individual has acquired (in relation to his own body and its parts to his capacities, to objects, persons, family, groups, status and prestige symbols, social values, goals and institutions) which define and regulate his relatedness to these objects in concrete situation and activities.

The self system and its involvement in ongoing psychological activity are not co-existive, with the psychological make-up and functioning of the human person. Self or ego is a sub-system in the psychological make up. As the gestalt psychologists Koffka (1935), Kohler (1926) and (1935) stressed, involvement of the ego occurs when component attitudes are aroused owing to their relevance in given situations and activities.

Studies in this area demonstrate : (1) Heightened consistency in behaviour when the person is ego-involved (2) selectivity as a function of ego-envolement and (3) systematic variation in judgement as a function of the kind and degree of ego-involvement. Investigations can be conducted in 2 ways :

(1) One way is to select research subjects with a known stand or commitment i.e. to study the committed person's ego involvement and the stimulus object that is relevant to the commitment.
(2) To vary Ego-involvement of subjects through instructions in the research situation itself.

Ego involvement of an individual is connected to most of the general and specific psychological/psychic activities of a person, more so in the context to the involvement of the ego the job. It depends, on various factors in an industrial organization like motivation, satisfaction and the value systems prevailing in that particular industry. The measurement of the difference between them is of immense importance to us.

Throughout the literature many different terms have been used to describe job involvement. An integration of all the possible terms would solve our problems to a certain extent. Terms such as central life interest, work role involvement, ego involvement, morale, intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction and finally job involvement have been mentioned in describing what appear to be two different concepts: (a) performance - self-esteem contingency (b) component of self image.

As the extent to which self-esteem is affected by level of performance (Lodahl & Kejneer, 1965). Many of the above terms fit under this definition.

In Allport’s (1947) treatment of psychology of participation, ego-involvement was defined as the situation in which the person engages the status seeking motive in his work, Guion (1958) defined morale as:

“Ego involvement in one’s job.... There is something to be said for the attitudinal frame of reference in to be said for the attitudinal frame of reference in which a man perceives his job to be so important to himself to his company, and to society that this supervisor’ blunders are not to be tolerated”.
Faunce (1960) stated that job involvement means the commitment to a particular set of tasks where successful role performance is regarded as an end. With this type of commitment, self-esteem will be tested through performance regarded as an end in itself and not a means to some other end.

Faunce waw the degree of job involvement as referring to the extent to which success and failure in the occupational role affects self-image. Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960) viewed involvement in terms of the degree to which performance effects self-esteem. For French and Khan (1962), the centrality of an ability is the degree to which it affects self-esteem. Vroom (1962) describes as person as ego involved in a job to whatever extent his self-esteem is increased by good performance and decreased by bad performance.

Lawler (1969) applied the term "intrinsic motivation" to the degree to which a job holder is motivated to perform because of some subjective rewards, that he expects to receive as a result of performing well. This series of definitions seem, to be agreeing with each other. They describe the job involved person as one for whom work is a very important part of life (a "central life interest" Dubin, 1956) and as one who is very much personally affected by his co-workers, the company, etc. On the other hand the non job-involved workers do the majority of their living off the job work. His interests are in some other area and the core oh his self-image and the essence of his identity, is not greatly affected by the kind of work he does of how well he does it. It should be noted (Guion, 1958), that the job involved worker is not necessarily happy with his job. In fact, very angry people may be just as involved in their jobs as very happy ones (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965).
Job involvement can be described as "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image, (Lodahl & Kehner). They justified their use of this definition by describing job involvement as multi dimensional in nature.

Lawler and Hall (1970) focused on job involvement as referring to "psychological identification with one's work", as well as the degree to which the job situation is central to the person and his identity".

Patchen (1970) used a measure termed "identification with ones's occupation "which measured how important one's occupational role is to one's self-image. This can be thought of as parallel to the "identification" definition of job involvement, Patchen hypothesises that one who is highly 'identified' will be more likely to take pride in job - achievement than one whose occupation plays a minor role in his selfidentification.

Personal time devoted to work was chosen as a criterion of Job involvement. Previous research has stressed two different definitions of Job Involvement : (a) the degree to which a person is identified, psychologically with his work, i.e. The extent to which the total work situation is an important part of life' and (b) the effect of work on the individual's self concept, i.e., The extent to which perceived job success affects self esteem.

Job Involvement as conceived by Dibin (1956) is intimately tied up in the protestant work ethic, the moral character of work and a sense of personal responsibility. Any one who has internalized these traditional values will probably be "Job involved" regardless of the situational context. (Runyon, 1973).
Lodahl (1964) hypothesized that the main determinant of job involvement is a value orientation towards work that is learned early in the socialization process. Lodahl further believed that job involvement operationalizes the protestant ethic in some ways' since it is the result of the introjections of certain values about work into the self, it is probably resistant to changes in the person. Siegel (1969) initially concurred with this point of view, stating that differences in job involvement can probably be traced back to value orientations towards work learned early in the course of socialization and internalized as determinants of behaviours.

The central theme of Hulin and Blood's (1968) and Blood and Mulen's (1967) work is "alienation from middle class norms". The authors contended that living in an urban, industrialized, blue-collar environment leads to alienation from middle-class norms, whereas life in rural, non-industrial community or other setting does not. For rural workers the more satisfying jobs would demand greater personal involvement, whereas city workers are more likely to be satisfied when their jobs are less personally involved.

Treating job involvement as a function of a situation, Vroom (1962) has suggested that job factors can influence the degree to which an employee is involved in his job. A person becomes ego-involved in his work performance to the extent that performance is perceived to be relevant to certain aptitudes, abilities, or other attributes that are central to his self concept. It therefore, becomes necessary to take into consideration not only the individual but also the organizational condition. Thus, we see, in Vroom's suggestion, the possibility of situational factors influencing an individual's job involvement.
Participative management theorist (Aryis, 1964 and McGregor, 1960) places a minimal emphasis on job involvement as a personal characteristic, and stress involvement as a response to organizational conditions. They view the organization as blocking the gratification of ego and growth needs, the result of which being the decline of absence of individual involvement in the job.

Bass (1965) discussing job involvement echoed the feeling that Six conditions strengthen job involvement: (a) the opportunity to make more of job situation (b) the feeling that one is making an important contribution to company success © success, (d) achievement (e) Self determination (f) Freedom to set one’s own workplace.

Blauner (1964) hypothesized that involvement in work may come from personal control, from association with others and from a sense of purpose. A man who is in control of his immediate work process regulating the pace, the quantity of the output, the quality of the product, choosing tools or work technique must, according to Blauner, be relatively immersed in the activity of work. The social aspects and meaning of the job were also touched upon by Blauner:

For most employees, when work is carried out by close-knit work groups, especially work teams, it will be more intrinsically involving and rewarding. Job involvement and self-fulfillment is heightened, when the purpose of the job can be clearly connected with the final and product or the overall goals and organization of the enterprise.

Lawler and Hall (1970) suggested that most realistic view of job involvement would be that it is a function of individual differences by expressing the view that people probably do differ in the degree to which
they are likely to become involved in their jobs as a function of their backgrounds and personal situations.

Farres (1971) assumed that job involvement was a function of the interaction of a person with his environment, thus not considering it solely as an individual characteristic.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965), although initially stating the individual difference viewpoint, declared, “It seems clear that job involvement is affected by local organizational conditions, mostly social, as well as by value orientation learned early in the socialization process”.

Different variables have been studied in relation to job involvement. A summary of the findings is presented in the table given below. The correlates are classified in three categories: Personal characteristics, situational characteristics and work outcome. In the table next to each variable, the number of the correlations observed may be found. At this point we will summarize some of the conclusions that can be drawn about job involvement.
### Summary of correlates of Job Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlates</th>
<th>No. of studies</th>
<th>Approx. Magnitude of relationship</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal characteristics</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0 and +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal locus of control</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0 and +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community size</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protestant ethic</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher order needs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational characteristics</td>
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<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in Decision making</td>
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<td>.50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Job characteristics</td>
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<td>.30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Job level</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leader Behaviour</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social factors</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Outcomes</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Job satisfaction:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlates</td>
<td>No. of studies</td>
<td>Approx. Magnitude of relationship</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.35</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
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<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absenteeism</td>
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<td>0 and .25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Job involvement is related to three classes of working variables: personal characteristics, situational characteristics, and work outcome.

Among the personal characteristics, the strongest correlates are age and protestant work ethic values. In the work outcome category most strongly associated with involvement are the attributes of satisfaction and turnover. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) presented a tentative profile of the job involved person. With an updated profile of the job involved person based on the table given above.

1. The Job-involved person:

   1. Is a believer in protestant ethic
   2. Is older
   3. Has internal (Vs. External) locus control
   4. Has strong growth needs
   5. Has stimulating job
   6. Participates in decisions affecting him
   7. Is satisfied with the job
8. Has a history of success

9. Is less likely to leave the organization.

2. Job involvement is quite stable: Even though involvement is correlated with variables that are changeable it has shown remarkable stability. No study of job enrichment to date has demonstrated that even major job redesign can increase job involvement (e.g. Lawler Et al 1973): and even major organization stress were not sufficient to decrease involvement (Hall and Mansfied, 1971).

3. Much of the variance in job involvement remains unexplained. One promising predictor can be used for future research, such as other forms of involvement, like family involvement (Gannon & Hedrickson, 1973), company and product involvement (Lodlahl, 1964), and community, religious and recreational involvement (Bray et al,1974). Does a person become job involved at the expense of other potential involvement? Or does activity and involvement in one area of a person’s life stimulate involvement in other areas? There is some evidence for the latter. (Tor bert, 1973) but research in this area is sparse.

4. The data is more consistent with the “importance of work” definition of job involvement than with the “extent to which performance affects self-esteem” definition. None of the main correlates of involvement seem logically associated with performance which shows a relationship between performance and self-esteem.
5. Job involvement seems to be a "feedback variable" both a cause and an effect of job behaviours. Involvement increases as a result of satisfying job experiences, and in turn, the more involved a person is the more effort he or she will exert on the job. A direct test of this view of involvement has received empirical support. (Hall & Foster, 1969).

6. Personal and situational variables have independent effects on involvement. Multiple regression studies indicate that the relationships when in the table tend to hold up, even when other predictors are taken into account.

7. Situational variables seem to have more effect on the attitudes of low job involved persons than on highly job involved persons.

This conclusion is contrary to expectation and is based on few studies. However, it appears that the job involved person has positive attitudes, whereas the low job involved person has more negative attitudes.

**Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction has been a topic of interest to researchers because of the perception that it was associated with absenteeism, worker productivity, employee turnover, and general mental health of employees (Chappell, 1995). The assessment of job satisfaction, its causes, consequences, and nature were important variables that drew the attention of researchers for almost seventy years. The earliest studies about it focused on productivity and turnover while later studies focused on need fulfillment. Researchers were concerned about whether or not the job met the employee's physical and psychological needs for things provided by work, such as salary (Porter, 1962; Wolf, 1970).
Job satisfaction was a subjective term, defined in a variety of ways, and all of them dealt with how one perceived his or her job experience (Evans, 1996). Job satisfaction was often used interchangeable with morale in the workplace according to Pincus (1986). Vroom (1982) described job satisfaction as "the affective orientation of individuals toward work roles they are presently occupying". Several other researchers also emphasized the affective nature of job satisfaction in the workplace (Beck, 1990; Kendall & Hulin, 1969; McCormick & Ilgen, 1980; Satterlee, 1988). Job satisfaction was described more simply by Locke (1976) as a positive relationship characterized by pleasurable or positive state of mind resulting from the job experience. Job satisfaction was a good feeling that one got by providing a service or effort, which helped others become relieved of a burden, pleasure, or get what they wanted employee welfare because every person was considered part of the organization team. Initiatives to resolve problems between management and labour and enhance teamwork were recognized as mutually beneficial. "What distinguishes whose joint efforts from earlier programmes is their commitment to employee involvement and quality of work life" (Ray, 1988).

It was important to know how to enhance employee job satisfaction because of the potential impact on productivity. It was also important to understand the pitfalls, which awaited an organization that did not react to resolve problems, which caused employees to be dissatisfied on the job. Deal and Jenkins (1994) and Goffee and Jones (1998) reported that dissatisfied employees impacted the organization by not following the rules, mindlessly conforming to policy, being frequently absent, committing sabotage, spreading ill will through gossiping, not contributing as much as they could and subverting the organization by
way of negative attitudes and comments. Satisfaction on the job combated these problems and contributed to productivity in the workplace (Clarke, 1992; Mobley, 1977). These were variables about a job which affected employee job satisfaction. If jobs were too narrow, fragmented, and restrictive, where was a conflict between the individual and the system (Bolman & Deal, 1991). Other dimensions that affected job satisfaction were autonomy and feedback. Therefore, it was important to increase job satisfaction and this took place in an organization, which provided worthwhile work, opportunities for advancement, a positive environment, and a sense of mutual trust (Wolgemuth, 1999).

Job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their jobs Levin (1995) stated that job satisfaction could be looked at from the perspective of the employee as well as from the perspective of the employer. Levin asserted that for employees, job satisfaction came from having work that mattered and from a sense of job security. From the employer's view, he stated that job satisfaction came from involving employees in decisions that affected them and from providing people with the skills, motivating and freedom to do their jobs better. Levin also stated that how people did their jobs and how they felt about them greatly affected their productivity and job satisfaction. Although definitions of job satisfaction varied, it was generally agreed that it could be regarded as an attitudinal variable, considered a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job. For the purpose of this study, job satisfaction was defined as a person's attitude toward his or her job.

Job satisfaction involved any aspect or part of a job. Aspects of a job frequently assessed included rewards such a salary compensation, fringe benefits opportunities to get involved, the nature of the work, the
organization itself, or people such as coworkers, supervisors, or subordinates (Kern, Riley, & Jones, 1987). Practices in human resources emphasized concern for employee welfare because every person was considered part of the organization team. Initiatives to resolve problems between management and labour and enhance teamwork were recognized as mutually beneficial. "What distinguishes these joint efforts from earlier programmes is their commitment to employee involvement and quality of work life" (Ray, 1988).

Causes of Job Satisfaction

Organizational Factors

There are five major organizational factors, which contribute to an employee's attitude towards his or her job: pay, opportunities for promotion, the nature of work, and policies of the organization and working conditions.

Wages: Wages play a significant role in influencing job satisfaction. This is because of two reasons. First money is an important instrument in fulfilling one's needs: and two, employees often see pay as a reflection of management's concern for them.

Employees want a pay system which is simple, fair and in line with their expectations. When pay is seen as fair, based on job demands, individual skill level, and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to result. What needs emphasis is that it is not the absolute amount paid that matters, rather it is one's perception of fairness.

Promotions: Promotional opportunities affect job satisfaction considerably. The desire for promotion is generally strong among employees as it involves change in job content, pay, organization can
hope to get two or three promotions in his entire service, though chances of promotion are better in the private sector. It is not surprising that the employee takes promotion as the ultimate achievement in his career and when it is realized, he feels extremely satisfied.

Nature of work: Most employees crave intellectual challenges on job. They tend to prefer being given opportunities to use their skills and abilities and being offered a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback on how well they are doing. These characteristics make jobs mentally challenging. Jobs that have too little challenge create boredom. But too much challenge creates frustrations and a feeling of failure. Under conditions of moderate challenge, employees experience pleasure and satisfaction.

Organizational Policies and Procedures: Organizational policies include the basis for effecting promotions (seniority versus merit), transfer of people, foreign assignments, lay-off and retrenchment, appraisal and reward system, motivational methods skill based versus job based pay and the like.

Working Conditions: Working conditions that are compatible within employee's physical comfort and that facilitate doing a good job contribute to job satisfaction. Temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting and noise, hours of work, cleanliness of the work place, and adequate tools and equipment are the features which affect job satisfaction.

The assumption that working conditions and satisfaction are interrelated contradicts the two factor theory of motivation. According to this theory, working conditions are a part of maintenance factors which, when provided, help remove dissatisfaction. The opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction but not satisfaction.
This, while working conditions constitute a source of job satisfaction, they are a relatively minor source. Generally, unless working conditions are extremely good or bad, they are taken for granted by most employees. Only when employees themselves change jobs or when working conditions change dramatically over time (e.g., moving into new facilities) do working conditions assume more relevance. In other words, all employees are not satisfied nor dissatisfied by favourable or unfavourable work environment.

**Group Factors**

Group factors wielding influence on satisfaction include group size and supervision are as follows:

**Size:** It is a truism to say that longer the size of the group, lower the level of satisfaction. As size increases, opportunities for participation and social interaction decrease, so also the ability of members to identify with the group's performance. More members mean dissension, conflict, and groups within groups. All these do not augur well for satisfaction of members.

**Supervision:** Perceived quality of supervision is another determinant of job satisfaction. Satisfaction tends to be high when people believe that their supervisors are more competent, have their best interest in mind, and treat them with dignity and respect. Communication is another aspect of supervision. Satisfaction of members tends to be high when they are able to communicate easily with their supervisor.

Though job satisfaction is usually referred to as a single variable, most investigators have treated it as a rather complex set of variables. It is evident that factors like, feelings of accomplishment, participation,
independence, personal growth, self-fulfillment and goal setting could all be specific factors, if combined lead to job satisfaction in general. Thus, it can be theoretically specified that job satisfaction is best treated as a set of dimensions rather than a single dimension.

The early survey Research centre studies (Katz, Maccoby, and Morse, 1950, Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, and Floor, 1951; Morse, 1953) used four dimensions of morale; (1) Intrinsic job status satisfaction, (2) Company involvement, (3) Financial and job status satisfaction and (4) Pride in group performance. Morse obtained measures of each of these four dimensions in a study of white collar workers. Each of the measures was significantly correlated with the other with the exception of pride in group performance which was not significantly related to any of the other three dimensions.

Three major theories of job satisfaction have served as either implicit or explicit reference points for much of the research in this area.

1. Need fulfillment theory:

Job satisfaction is a function of, or is positively related to, the degree to which one’s personal need are fulfilled in the job situation.

2. Reference-group theory:

Job satisfaction is a function of, or is positively related to, the degree to which the characteristics of the job meet with the approval and the desires of the group to which the individual looks for guidance in evaluating the world and defining social reality.

3. Herzberg’s motivator - Hygiene theory:
The third theory of job satisfaction is pertaining to job enrichment of both performance and satisfaction. Its basic argument is that an enriched job leads to satisfaction and that one is motivated to perform, in order to achieve satisfaction.

Attitude towards one’s job can be conceptualized and measured in a variety of ways that are related to but not directly comparable to one another. A study illustrating this point in the area of job satisfaction is one reported by Wanous and Lawler (1972), in which measuring of job satisfaction was defined as follows:

1) job satisfaction is a result of the sum of satisfaction with different aspects of the job.

2) job satisfaction is result of the amount of need fulfillment in the job at the time.

3) Job satisfaction is a result of the discrepancy between the amount of need fulfillment a person thinks should be on the job and the amount there is at the time.

4) Job satisfaction is a result of the amount of need fulfillment a person would like to see on the job as opposed to what he has currently.

5) Job satisfaction is a result of the importance of need as opposed to what there is currently.

Experiments carried out by Kay, French, and Meyer (1962) in a plant manufacturing aircraft engines, half of the subjects were given an opportunity to participate to a major degree in the setting of their goals and the other half were given much less opportunity in the goal setting process. Interviews conducted with both high and low participation
subjects after the goal planning session revealed few differences in attitudes.

Vroom (1959a, 1960a), also obtained evidence on effects of participation in decision making on job satisfaction he found that depends on the personality of the participant. In a field study of superiors in package delivery organization, he found that the relationship between psychological participation and job satisfaction varied with the strength of the need for independence and the degree of authoritarianism (Adorno et al 1950) of the participant.

Pellegrin and coates (1957) reported that executives were more likely to define success as Career accomplishment, whereas first level supervisors tended to view it in terms of security, conceivably persons who attach importance to achievement and accomplishment are more likely to be chosen for higher level positions.

A study by Vroom (1952) on blue collar workers in an oil refinery were asked the questions, “if a problem comes up in your work and it is not settled by the time you go home, how likely is it that you will find yourself thinking about it after work?” Responses to this question indicated the respondents ego involvement in his job, those who said that they were “almost sure to think about it” there’s a pretty good chance” that they would think about it were termed” moderate in ego involvement; whereas those stating that they probably or surely “would not” think about it “were termed low in ego involvement. It was found that opportunity for self-expression was most highly related to the satisfaction and adjustment of workers with the highest ego involvement in their job and least highly related for those with lowest ego involvement in their jobs.
There has been attempts to deal with the relationship between personality variables and job satisfaction in the theoretical terms and most of the empirical work represents an effort to establishment a relationship between measures of adjustment and job satisfaction. Mersberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capewell (1957) summarize the results with the following description of satisfied workers.

In the last twenty years a number of studies regarding the causes of job satisfaction and personality variables have evolved different concepts.

Schaffer (1953) presented hi view in the following hypothesis:

Over-all job satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied are actually satisfied; the stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfillment job satisfaction is closely linked with need fulfillment or intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors.

High job satisfaction may lead to improve productivity, increase turnover, improved attendance, reduced accidents, less job stress and lower unionization.

Finally, job satisfaction has been found to the related to ones life general satisfaction. The more the people are satisfied with aspect of their lives in relation to their jobs, the more they tend to be satisfied with their jobs.

Employee Commitment

The concept of employment commitment lies at the heart of any analysis of Human Resource Management. Indeed, the rationale for introducing Human Resource Management policies is to increase levels of commitment so positive outcomes can ensue such is the importance of
this construct. Yet, despite many studies on commitment, very little is understood of what managers mean by the term ‘commitment’ when they evaluate someone’s performance and motivation.

The literature defines commitment as an employee’s level of attachment to some aspect of work. Various authors have been instrumental in identifying types of employee commitment as critical constructs in understanding the attitudes and behaviours of employees in an organisation. Meyer et.al. Identify more than 25 employee commitment concepts and measures.

**Organisational Commitment:** There are two dominant conceptualizations of organisational commitment in sociological literature. These are an employee’s loyalty towards the organisation and an employee’s intention to stay with the organisation. Loyalty is an affective response to, and identification with, an organisation, based on a sense of duty and responsibility.

One may use Herscovitch and Meyer' definition: ‘the degree to which an employee identifies with the goals and values of the organisation and is willing to exert effort to help it succeed’. Loyalty is argued to be an important intervening variable between the structural conditions of work, and the values, and expectations, of employees, and their decision to stay, or leave.

Positive and rewarding features of work are expected to increase loyalty, which, in turn, will reduce the likelihood of leaving. Loyalty becomes stabilized with tenure, which partly explains the negative relationship typically found between tenure and turnover.
Intent to stay is portrayed as effectively neutral, and focuses on an employee’s intention to remain a member of the organisation. It is much closer to economists’ ideas on how weighing the costs of leaving versus staying, decides the employee to leave or stay. Hagen defines this form of commitment as the employee’s expected likelihood of remaining employed in the same organisation. As with loyalty, intent to stay stabilises with tenure, and helps explain the negative tenure and turnover relationship. Theoretically, it is viewed as an intervening response to structural conditions of work, as well as conditions of work elsewhere, or to not working at all.

**Career Commitment:** Career commitment refers to identification with, and involvement in, one’s occupation. Much literature refers to similar or related concepts: occupational commitment, professional commitment, career salience, the cosmopolitan/local distinction and professionalism. Common to all these is the critical notion of being committed to one’s career, or occupation, rather than to the organisation which employs one.

**Work Commitment:** Work commitment refers neither to the organisation nor to one’s career, but to employment itself. Persons committed to work hold a strong sense of duty towards their work, and place intrinsic value on work as a central life interest. This form of commitment relates terms like work motivation, job involvement, work as a central life interest and work involvement. Although work commitment is expected to be related to organisational commitment and career commitment, literature shows it to be empirically distinct from these two forms of commitment.

**Organisational Commitment:** The issue of organisational commitment within the private sector, has, generally, received significant research
focus over the past 25 years. This review further describes the past development of organisational commitment, and its relevance in the future.

**Development of Organisational Commitment:** Two major theoretical approaches emerge from previous research on commitment:

Firstly, commitment is viewed as an attitude of attachment to the organisation, which leads to particular job-related behaviours. The committed employee, for example, is less often absent, and is less likely to leave the organisation voluntarily, than are less committed employees.

Secondly, one line of research in organizations focuses on the implications of certain types of behaviours on subsequent attitudes. A typical finding is that employees who freely choose to behave in a certain way, and who find their decision difficult to change, become committed to the chosen behaviour and develop attitudes consistent with their choice. One approach emphasises the influence of commitment attitudes on behaviours, whereas the other emphasizes the influence of committing behaviours on attitudes. Although the ‘commitment attitude behaviour’ and ‘committing behaviour attitude’ approaches emerge from different theoretical orientations, and have generated separate research traditions, understanding the commitment process is facilitated by viewing these two approaches as, inherently, and inter-related.

Rather than viewing the causal arrow, between attitudinal and behavioural commitment, as pointing in one direction or the other, it is more useful to consider the two as reciprocally-related over time. It is equally reasonable to assume that (a) commitment attitudes lead to committing behaviours that subsequently reinforce and strengthen attitudes; and (b) committing
behaviours lead to commitment attitudes and subsequent committing behaviours.

The important issue is not whether the commitment process begins with either attitude or behaviour. Rather, it is important to recognise the development of commitment may involve the subtle interplay of attitudes and behaviours over a period of time. The process through which commitment is developed may involve self-reinforcing cycles of attitudes and behaviours that evolve on the job, and, over time, strengthen employee commitment to the organisation.

Affective commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organisation [based on positive feelings, or emotions, toward the organisation]. The antecedents for affective commitment include perceived job characteristics [task autonomy, task significance, task identity, skill variety and supervisory feedback], organisational dependability [extent to which employees feel the organisation can be counted on to look after their interests], and perceived participatory management [extent to which employees feel they can influence decisions on the work environment and other issues of concern to them].

The use of these antecedents is consistent with findings by researchers, such as Steers, Mottaz and Rowden, that these factors all create rewarding situations, intrinsically conducive to the development of affective commitment. In addition, age and organisational tenure are considered to be positively associated with affective commitment. It is hypothesised that employees with low affective commitment will choose to leave an organisation, while employees with a high affective commitment will stay for longer periods, as they believe in the organization and its mission.
Continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation [due to the high cost of leaving]. Potential antecedents of continuance commitment include age, tenure, career satisfaction and intent to leave. Age and tenure can function as predictors of continuance commitment, primarily because of their roles as surrogate measures of investment in the organisation.

Tenure can be indicative of non-transferable investments [close working relationship with coworkers, retirement investments, career investments and skills unique to the particular organisation]. Age can also be negatively related to the number of available alternative job opportunities. Career satisfaction provides a more direct measure of career related investments, which could be at risk if the individual leaves the organization. In general, whatever employees perceive as sunk cost, resulting from leaving the organisation, are the antecedents of continuance commitment.

Normative commitment refers to an employee's feeling of obligation to remain with the organisation [based on the employee having internalised the values and goals of the organisation]. The potential antecedents for normative commitment include co-worker commitment [including affective and normative dimensions, as well as commitment behaviours, organisational dependability and participatory management. Co-workers' commitment is expected to provide normative signals that influence the development of normative commitment. Organisational dependability and perceived participatory management are expected to insist a sense of moral obligation to reciprocate to the organisation.

**Employees Turnover**

Employees' turnover is a much studied phenomenon [Shaw et al. 1998]. But there is no standard reason why people leave organisation. Employee
turnover is the rotation of workers around the labour market; between firms, jobs and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment [Abassi et al. 2000]. The term “turnover” is defined by Price (1977) as: the ratio of the number of organizational members who have left during the period being considered divided by the average number of people in that organization during the period. Frequently, managers refer to turnover as the entire process associated with filling a vacancy: Each time a position is vacated, either voluntarily or involuntarily, a new employee must be hired and trained. This replacement cycle is known as turnover (Woods, 1995). This term is also often utilized in efforts to measure relationships of employees in an organization as they leave, regardless of reason.

“Unfolding model” of voluntary turnover represents a divergence from traditional thinking (Hom and Griffeth, 1995) by focusing more on the decisional aspect of employee turnover, in other words, showing instances of voluntary turnover as decisions to quit. Indeed, the model is based on a theory of decision making, image theory (Beach, 1990). The image theory describes the process of how individuals process information during decision making. The underlying premise of the model is that people leave organizations after they have analyzed the reasons for quitting. Beach (1990) argues that individuals seldom have the cognitive resources to systematically evaluate all incoming information, so individuals instead of simply and quickly compare incoming information to more heuristic-type decision making alternatives.

Sources of Employee Turnover

Job Related Factors
Most researchers (Bluedorn, 1982; Kalliathe and Beck, 2001; Kramer et al., 1995; Peters et al., 1981; Saks, 1996) have attempted to answer the question of what determines people’s intention to quit by investigating possible antecedents of employees’ intentions to quit. To date, there has been little consistency in findings, which is partly due to the diversity of employed included by the researchers and the lack of consistency in their findings. Therefore, there are several reasons why people quit from one organisation to another or why people leave organisation. The experience of job related stress (job stress), the range factors that lead to job related stress (stressors), lack of commitment in the organisation; and job dissatisfaction make employees to quit (Firth et al. 2004). This clearly indicates that these are individual decisions which make one to quit. They are other factors like personal agency refers to concepts such as a sense of powerlessness, locus of control and personal control. Locus control refers to the extent to which people believe that the external factors such as chance and powerful others are in control of the events which influence their lives (Firth et al. 2004). Manu et al. (2004) argue that employees quit from organization due economic reasons. Using economic model they showed that people quit from organization due to economic reasons and these can be used to predict the labour turnover in the market. Good local labour market conditions improve organizational stability (Schervish 1983). Large organizations can provide employees with better chances for advancement and higher wages and hence ensure organizational attachment (Idson and Feaster 1990). Trevor (2001) argues that local unemployment rates interact with job satisfaction to predict turnover in the market. Role stressors also lead to employees’ turnover. Role ambiguity refers to the difference between what people expect of us on the job and what we feel we should do. This causes uncertainty about what our role should be. It can be a result of misunderstanding what is
expected, how to meet the expectations, or the employee thinking the job should be different (Kahn et al. Muchinsky, 1990). Insufficient information on how to perform the job adequately, unclear expectations of peers and supervisors, ambiguity of performance evaluation methods, extensive job pressures, and lack of consensus on job functions or duties may cause employees to feel less involved and less satisfied with their jobs and careers, less committed to their organizations, and eventually display a propensity to leave the organization (Tor et al., 1997). If roles of employees are not clearly spelled out by management/supervisors, this would accelerate the degree of employees quitting their jobs due to lack of role clarity.

**Voluntarily vs. involuntary turnover**

There are some factors that are, in part, beyond the control of management, such as the death or incapacity of a member of staff. Other factors have been classed as involuntary turnover in the past such as the need to provide care for children or aged relatives. Today such factors should not be seen as involuntary turnover as both government regulation and company policies create the chance for such staff to come back to work, or to continue to work on a more flexible basis (Simon et al. 2007).

**Organizational factors**

Organizational instability has been shown to have a high degree of high turnover. Indications are that employees are more likely to stay when there is a predictable work environment and vice versa (Zuber, 2001). In organizations where there was a high level of inefficiency there was also a high level of staff turnover (Alexander et al., 1994). Therefore, in situations where organizations are not stable employees tend to quit and
look for stable organisations because with stable organisations they would be able to predict their career advancement.

The imposition of a quantitative approach to managing the employees led to disenchantment of staff and hence it leads to labour turnover. Therefore management should not use quantitative approach in managing its employees. Adopting a cost oriented approach to employment costs increases labour turnover (Simon et al. 2007). All these approaches should be avoided if managers want to minimize employee turnover an increase organisational competitiveness in this environment of globalization.

Employees have a strong need to be informed. Organisation with strong communication systems enjoyed lower turnover of staff (Labov, 1997). Employees feel comfortable to stay longer, in positions where they are involved in some level of the decision-making process. That is employees should fully understand about issues that affect their working atmosphere (Magner et al. 1996). But in the absence openness’ in sharing information, employee empowerment the chances of continuity of employees are minimal. (Costly et al. 1987) points out that a high labour turnover may mean poor personnel policies, poor recruitment policies, poor supervisory practices, poor grievance procedures, or lack of motivation. All these factors contribute to high employee turnover in the sense that there is no proper management practices and policies on personnel matters hence employees are not recruited scientifically, promotions of employees are not based on spelled out policies, no grievance procedures in place and thus employees decides to quit.

Griffeth et al. (2000) noted that pay and pay-related variables have a modest effect on turnover. Their analysis also included studies that
examined the relationship between pay, a person's performance and turnover. They concluded that when high performers are insufficiently rewarded, they quit. If jobs provide adequate financial incentives the more likely employees remain with organization and vice versa. There are also other factors which make employees to quit from organisations and these are poor hiring practices, managerial style, lack of recognition, lack of competitive compensation system in the organisation and toxic workplace environment (Abassi et al. 2000).

**Effects of employee turnover**

Employee turnover is expensive from the view of the organisation. Voluntary quits which represents an exodus of human capital investment from organisations (Fair 1992) and the subsequent replacement process entails manifold costs to the organisations. These replacement costs include for example, search of the external labour market for a possible substitute, selection between competing substitutes, induction of the chosen substitute, and formal and informal training of the substitute until he or she attains performance levels equivalent to the individual who quit (John 2000). Addition to these replacement costs, output would be affected to some extend or output would be maintained at the cost of overtime payment. The reason so much attention has been paid to the issue of turnover is because turnover has some significant effects on organisations (DeMicco and Giridharan, 1987; Dyke and Strick, 1990; Cantrell and Saranakhsh, 1991; Denvir and Mcmahon, 1992). Many researchers argue that high turnover rates might have negative effects on the profitability of organisations if not managed properly (Hogan, 1992; Wasmuth and Davis, 1993; Barrows, 1990).

**Strategies to minimize employee turnover**
Strategies on how to minimize employee turnover, confronted with problems of employee turnover, management has several policy options viz. changing (or improving existing) policies towards recruitment, selection, induction, training, job design and wage payment. Policy choice, however, must be appropriate to the precise diagnosis of the problem. Employee turnover attributable to poor selection procedures, for example, is unlikely to improve were the policy modification to focus exclusively on the induction process. Equally, employee turnover attributable to wage rates which produce earnings that are not competitive with other firms in the local labour market is unlikely to decrease were the policy adjustment merely to enhance the organization’s provision of on-the job training opportunities. Given that there is increase in direct and indirect costs of labour turnover, therefore, management is frequently exhorted to identify the reasons why people leave organizations so that appropriate action is taken by the management. Extensive research has shown that the following categories of human capital management factors provides a core set of measures that senior management can use to increase the effectiveness of their investment in people and improve overall corporate performance of business:

Employee engagement, the organization’s capacity to engage, retain, and optimize the value of its employees hinges on how well jobs are designed, how employees’ time is used, and the commitment and support that is shown to employees by the management would motivate employees to stay in organization’s.

Knowledge accessibility, the extent of the organisation’s “collaborativeness” and its capacity for making knowledge and ideas widely available to employees, would make employees to stay in the organisation. Sharing of information should be made at all levels of
management. This accessibility of information would lead to strong performance from the employees and creating strong corporate culture (Meaghan et al. 2002). Therefore; information accessibility would make employees feel. Manage that they are appreciated for their effort and chances of leaving the organisation are minimal.

Workforce optimization, the organisation’s success in optimizing the performance of the employees by establishing essential processes for getting work done, providing good working conditions, establishing accountability and making good hiring choices would retain employees in their organisation. The importance of gaining better understanding of the factors related to recruitment, motivation and retention of employees is further underscored by rising personnel costs and high rates of employee turnover (Badawy, 1988; Basta and Johnson, 1989; Garden, 1989; Parden, 1981; Sherman, 1986). With increased competitiveness on globalizations, managers in many organizations are experiencing greater pressure from top management to improve recruitment, selection, training, and retention of good employees and in the long run would encourage employees to stay in organisations.

Job involvement describes an individual’s ego involvement with work and indicates the extent to which an individual identifies psychologically with his/her job (Kanungo, 1982). Involvement in terms of internalizing values about the goodness or the importance of work made employees not to quit their jobs and these involvements are related to task characteristics. Workers who have a greater variety of tasks tend stay in the job. Task characteristics have been found to be potential determinants of turnover among employees (Couger, 1988; Couger and Kawasaki, 1980; Garden, 1989; Goldstein and Rockart, 1984). These include the five core job characteristics identified by Hackman and Oldham (1975,
1980): skill variety, which refers to the opportunity to utilize a variety of valued skills and talents on the job; task identity, or the extent to which a job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work - that is, doing a job from beginning to end, with visible results; task significance, which reflects the extent to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether within or outside the organisation; job autonomy, or the extent to which the job provides freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining procedures that the job provides; and job feedback, which refers to the extent to which the job provides information about the effectiveness of one's performance (Tor et al., 1997). Involvement would influence job satisfaction and increase organizational commitment of the employees. Employees who are more involved in their jobs are more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their organization (Blau and Boal, 1989; Brooke and Price, 1989; Brooke et al., 1988; Kanungo, 1982). Job involvement has also been found to be negatively related to turnover intentions (Blat and Boal, 1989). Job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment reflect a positive attitude towards the organization, thus having a direct influence on employee turnover intentions. Job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment are considered to be related but distinguishable attitudes (Brooke and Price, 1989). Satisfaction represents an affective response to specific aspects of the job or career and denotes the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or career (Locke, 1976; Porter et al., 1974; Williams and Hazer, 1986).

Organisational commitment is an affective response to the whole organisation and the degree of attachment or loyalty employees feel towards the organisation. Job involvement represents the extent to which
employees are absorbed in or preoccupied with their jobs and the extent to which an individual identifies with his/her job (Brooke et al., 1988). The degree of commitment and loyalty can be achieved if management they enrich the jobs, empower and compensate employees properly.

Empowerment of employees could help to enhance the continuity of employees in organisations. Empowered employees where managers supervise more people than in a traditional hierarchy and delegate more decisions to their subordinates (Malone, 1997). Managers act like coaches and help employees solve problems. Employees, he concludes, have increased responsibility. Superiors empowering subordinates by delegating responsibilities to them leads to subordinates who are more satisfied with their leaders and consider them to be fair and in turn to perform up to the superior’s expectations (Keller and Dansereau, 1995). All these makes employees to be committed to the organization and chances of quitting are minimal.
Abstract

In the field of turnover research, relationships between the employee and the employer have been investigated to determine possible correlations between psychological antecedents such as organizational commitment and job involvement, job satisfaction and subsequent organizational behaviour such as the voluntary turnover (Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976, Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979, O'Reilly & Chatmar, 1986). Mowday, Porter and Steers (1992) state that organizational commitment is negatively related to the employee voluntary turnover process and is the best predictor of the voluntary turnover. Mathieu and Zajack (1990) report in the meta-analysis of organizational commitment and antecedents that the relationship between organizational commitment and job involvement was largest observed. Another variable to be considered relative to organizational behaviours is a contextual one, the another psychological antecedents such as job satisfaction is also taken into consideration to know its relationship with turnover.

The present study is designed to examine the relationship among job involvement, employee organizational commitment, job satisfaction and employee voluntary turnover. Variables that will predict the probability of, and rate of, voluntary employee turnover are determined.

Besides this, the study also focuses on analyzing how different attitudes (job involvement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment) of employees to combine to influence employee voluntary turnover. The comprehensive account of influences of such work attitudes on voluntary turnover has to consider not only simple co-relations but also potential interaction and effect between attitudes.

Participants in this study are working employees of different public, private and government organization situated within the boundary wall of Lucknow Nagar Nigam.