Introduction

&

Review of Literature
Chapter-1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Job Involvement

The job related behaviour of employees in different capacities at various levels occupy central place in the organizations because they are considered to be most valuable asset contributing in the achievement of the organizational objectives by utilizing their skills and abilities. The growth and development of an organization to a large extent depends upon its employees involvement, capability to work willingly, performing well on their jobs, deriving satisfaction from their present job, creating congenial work environment, fostering work ethics, building mutual trust, initiativeness and self-direction. Realizing its significance the management should make constant efforts to monitor their most valuable human resource at work and keep their involvement and satisfaction high in order to reap the best from them. It appears from the review of the literature that job involvement has been the focus of attention of psychologists and management people in the last few decades because of its greater relevance regarding the overall functioning, effective employees performance, employees needs and quality of working life. The historiography of research literature concerning to the concept of job involvement reveals that Durkheim an eminent sociologist for the first time introduced the concept of job involvement in 1893. He emphasized the importance of job involvement in industrial set up, since then the social science researchers were enlightened with the concept and put their efforts in this direction to pursue research on job involvement. Since, employees' behaviour occupies
prominence as far as organizational effectiveness is concerned so, contribution of every employee is considered to be most valuable regarding their work performance. The quality of work life as experienced by employees in the organizations has been an area of extensive investigation by social science researchers since last few decades. In several of these studies the investigators focussed on the concept of job involvement, which has been described as one of the more important quality of work life indices (Cherns and Davis, 1975; Taylor, 1975). Understanding employees behaviour pertaining to their jobs became a joint venture of psychologists and management people because of its greater relevance to work performance and the problems relating to growth and development of the organization. It is also important to note that the progress of an organization and creation of congenial work environment depends upon the management priorities, its employee's attitudes and their level of satisfaction. It means the progress of an organization largely depends upon its worker's enthusiasm, involvement and willingness to work.

Although Durkheim (1893) introduced the concept of job involvement but studies on job involvement began in mid 1960's with the pioneering work of Lodahl and Kejner (1965) who were instrumental in bringing it to limelight. It is a matter of fact that job involvement seems to be an important aspect of determining one's performance in which the phenomenon of motivation and satisfaction are readily implicit. Research literature clearly reveals that psychologists in 1950's and early 1960's were more inclined on studying job motivation and job satisfaction as a result several theories of job satisfaction and job motivation were propounded such as, Maslow's need hierarchy theory in job context (1954), two factor theory of Herzberg et al., (1959) and Vroom's expectancy model (1964) which gained recognition and
also opened new avenues for researchers in various directions. Hence, the concept of job involvement emerged out of the researches carried out on job motivation and craze for identifying the new appropriate similar concept of determining work performance. Perhaps this all led Lodahl and Kejner (1965) for the first time to construct a scale for measuring job involvement. Consequently, within a very short period the phenomenon of job involvement gained its importance among psychologists, management people and supervisors who gave greater emphasis on job involvement as a criterion for measuring job-related performance. In the last few decades there are sufficient evidence of numerous research works (Rabinowitz et al., 1977; Hollenbeck et al., 1982) which have contributed substantially to our in-depth understanding of the construct, and the study of job involvement has advanced from a simple descriptive and theoretical stage to a more solidly grounded theoretical and explanatory stage (Misra et al., 1985). Despite all the efforts and progress, however, a certain amount of confusion still surrounds the concept of job involvement, and this is particularly evident in the abundance of differing perspectives on what involvement really is. A review of the literature reveals considerable disagreement over the nature of job involvement and a proliferation of terms, definitions and measuring instruments (Morrow, 1983; Rabinowitz and Hall, 1977; Saleh and Hosak, 1976). For example, individuals have been described job involved if they (i) actively participate in the job (Allport, 1943); (ii) view it as a central life interest (Dubin, 1966), and (iii) perceive performance as central to their self-esteem (Gurin et al., 1960). The term job involvement has been used interchangeably in varied contexts such as ego involvement, need satisfaction, intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965; Weissenberg and Gruenfeld, 1968; Lawler and Hall, 1970;
Schwyhart and Smith, 1972; Akhtar and Ahmed, 1978; Blau, 1985; Brooke et al., 1988; Dolke and Srivastava, 1988). It has been observed that research studies over the past two decades explored the construct of job involvement and have approached it from two different perspectives (Sekaran, 1989; Sekaran and Mowday, 1981). First, it was viewed as an individual difference variable, job involvement is believed to occur when the possession of certain needs, values, or personal characteristics predispose individuals to become more or less involved in their jobs. The second perspective viewed job involvement as a response to specific work situation characteristics. In other words, certain types of jobs or characteristics of the work situation influence the degree to which an individual becomes involved in his/her job. These two theoretical approaches were concerned in investigating the nature of job involvement and suggested that it should be examined from both the perspective of the individual as well as the work environment. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) in their review of the literature on job involvement concluded that both approaches contributed significantly to our understanding. They found several studies, for example, where individual characteristics such as age, education, sex, tenure, need strength, level of control and values were linked to job involvement, although these linkages were not very consistent across studies. Similarly, they described other studies in which job involvement was related to situational variables in the work environment such as leader behaviour, decision-making processes, interpersonal relations and job characteristics as well as with work outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover and absenteeism. Furthermore, they suggested that individual difference and job characteristic variables were about equally important in determining job involvement. In contrast to the latter finding, Saal (1978) in a study of manufacturing employees found that
perceived job characteristics were found better predictors of job involvement than individual difference variables and this conclusive finding has received further support by Knoop (1986) and Elloy et al. (1991). It was reported that situational characteristics as well as outcome variables each displayed comparable amounts of common variance with job involvement and considerably more than did personal characteristics. Although many attempts have been made to clarify the construct of job involvement (Brooke et al., 1988; Patterson and O’Driscoll, 1990; Elloy et al., 1991; Hollenbeck et al., 1982; Rabinowitz and Hall, 1977; Saleh and Hosak, 1976), it is primarily the work of Kanungo (1979, 1982a), which has provided us with our present sense of direction and understanding. In an attempt to remove some of the conceptual confusion and ambiguity, Kanungo restricted job involvement to the cognitive dimensions of attitudes toward a job. Accordingly, job involvement should be viewed as a “generalized cognitive style of psychological identification with the job”. Involvement in a job is primarily a function of how much the job can satisfy one’s salient needs and hence in this respect, job involvement is more situationally determined. The results of other recent research studies also suggest that job involvement differs from other related constructs such as intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Shore et al., 1990; Patterson and O’Driscoll, 1990; Brooke et al., 1988; Dolke and Srivastava, 1988; Blau, 1985). The findings of these studies serve collectively to alleviate some of the concerns expressed by Morrow (1983) for concept redundancy, particularly among constructs, which focus on various forms of work-related commitment.

Different interpretations of job involvement can be broadly categorized into two distinct ways. The first series of definitions seem to tie together the
concept of self-esteem. Life interest is central to this concept (Dubin, 1956) and employees perceive their performance as significant aspect of their self-esteem (Gurin et al., 1960). Vroom (1962) describes a person as ego involved in a job by the level of his self-esteem, which is affected, by his perceived level of performance. In other words, for Vroom, involvement exists when a person’s feeling of esteem is increased by good performance and decreased by the bad one. These definitions describe the job-involved person as one who is very much personally affected by his whole job situation, the work itself, his co-workers and the company. The second conceptual way of describing job involvement is the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance of work in his total self-image (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Such a psychological identification with work may result partly from early socialization process during which the individual may internalize the value of goodness of work. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) emphasized that during the process of socialization certain work values are injected into the self of the individual that remain even at the later stage in the form of attitude towards job. Siegel (1969) endorses that worker’s sex, early socialization process and organizational variables affect the development of an individual’s ideas about his job. Early socialization process is deemed to be responsible for developing job involvement. This explanation suggests that fresh jobholders are likely to be job involved if their socialization process background is conducive to the development of such an attitude (Akhtar and Kumar, 1978).

Katz and Kahn (1966) consider job involvement as moderator variable between satisfaction and performance. Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968), think of it as a quasi indicator of motivation. Patchen (1970) considers job involvement as a convenient label summarizing several characteristics that
make the job more important and potentially more satisfying to the individual. Wollack et al. (1971) consider job involvement as a partial operationalization of the protestant ethics. Lawler and Hall (1970) provided theoretical and empirical evidence to distinguish job involvement from need satisfaction and intrinsic motivation. They explained job involvement in terms of the degree to which a person’s total work situation is an important part of his life. Many investigators have confirmed that these terms are factorially independent (Cummings, Bigelow, 1976; Akhtar and Ahmed, 1978; Brooke et al., 1988; Shore et al., 1990). Saleh (1981) argues that job involvement is a multi-dimensional concept of involving structural components of cognitive, evaluative and behavioural intentions. Rabinowitz et al. (1977) and Saal (1978) found that both individual (Personality) difference and situational (Job) variable contribute to the prediction of job involvement. Review of studies on job involvement pertaining to proposed definitions reveal that it has been considered either in terms of individual difference or job situation or as an interaction between the individual and his job or these are considered to be essential determiners of job involvement. Despite varied arguments attempts were made by several psychologists to give a comprehensive definition of job involvement. In a simple description job involvement can be referred to as “the attitude of employees towards work”. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) further elaborated and defined job involvement as “the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his/her work or the importance of work in his/her total self-image”. Katz and Kahn (1966) identified three important characteristics of job involvement:

(i) The job involvement is a necessary condition for the individual to accept fully the organizational demands placed on him being a member of an organization.
(ii) The degree of job involvement is related to level of aspiration and the internalization of the organizational goals and
(iii) The job involvement as a moderator variable in the relationship between performance and satisfaction.

Lawler and Hall (1970) described job involvement as “psychological identification with one’s work as well as the degree to which the job situation is central to person and his identity”. Blau and Boal (1987) stated that “the job involvement is the degree to which employees immerse themselves in their job and invest time and energy in doing their job and view their work as an integral part of their overall lives”. On the basis of their explanation the job involved employees seem to have firm belief in work ethic, exhibit high growth needs and enjoy taking part in decision making as a result of it the employees will seldom be tardy or absent and they are willing to work for longer hours and they are often willing to be high performers.

Several investigators have studied job involvement to find out its correlates in a variety of organizational settings. The correlates were classified with regard to personal data, situational characteristics and work outcomes. Bass (1965) found job involvement to be positively related to performance. Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) reported that job involvement was significantly related to satisfaction and motivator variables. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) thoroughly reviewed job involvement studies and concluded that age and protestant work values were the strongest correlates of job involvement. Runyon (1973) and Reitz and Jewell (1979) advocated job involvement as a relatively personal characteristic and observed that men are likely to value work more than women but Lennon
(1987) obtained different results. In controlled work autonomy situation women's were found to be more involved with their job than men.

Saal (1978) studied the common variance shared by combinations of personal and situational characteristics and job involvement of workers of manufacturing company. The result suggested that job involvement can be better understood by dividing personal characteristics, personal demographic and personal psychological variables. The multivariate analysis suggested that both the situational and personal variables shared more common variance with job involvement than the personal demographic variables.

Anantharaman (1980) examined job involvement of nurses in relation to age, tenure, income and locus of control. The result indicated that the age, tenure and internal locus of control were significantly related to job involvement.

Anantharaman and Deivasenapathy (1980) studied job involvement of managers, supervisors and workers of public sector unit. The result showed that managers were more involved in their jobs than the supervisors and workers. In contrast to it the workers were found to be less involved than the supervisors. The managers, supervisors and workers were found to differ significantly from each other in terms of their job involvement. The result obtained was interpreted as the managers have greater opportunities to make all important decisions which might have led them to higher job involvement. The workers on the other hand have lesser opportunities in decision-making and setting of their work place might have led them to be less job involved.

Das (1982) examined the relationship between demographic variables and job involvement of managers. The result revealed that the managers who have worked for more than fifteen years were found to be more involved and
the managers who have spent ten to fifteen years in their job showed lowest job involvement. The result also revealed that the middle management executives were significantly lower in job involvement as compared to the higher and junior level executives.

Singh and Mishra (1983) in a study found that job involvement was not found significantly related to ego-strength and occupational stress. The result also revealed significant inverse relationship between occupational stress and ego-strength.

Mishra and Singh (1986) conducted a study to see the influence of occupational stress and ego-strength on supervisor’s job satisfaction and job involvement. The result revealed that the job involvement was found positively related with job satisfaction. Whereas job involvement and occupational stress were found inversely related. The result also indicated that the supervisors who score high on ego-strength scale exhibited high stress in their job.

Malinowska (1987) examined elements of job satisfaction and individual social background among four professional groups (doctors, engineers, lawyers, and teachers), as well as their differences in level of job satisfaction. Although there were some differences between professional groups in terms of work satisfaction/dissatisfaction, stemming from the different prestige ascribed to each profession, they faced similar problems and derived similar satisfaction from their professional work.

Frone and Major (1988) investigated whether job involvement moderates the relationship between perceived communication quality and job satisfaction using questionnaire data from 93 nurses and managers. Findings suggest that the quality of information received from immediate supervisors, co-workers, and subordinates were positively related to job
satisfaction among highly job involved subjects but was unrelated to job satisfaction among low job involved subjects. The quality of information received from the hospital administration was positively related to job satisfaction for both high and low job involved subjects.

Singh (1989) studied the relationship between job involvement, job satisfaction, morale and performance of public and private sector employees. The result showed insignificant relationship between job involvement, job satisfaction and morale of the employees working in two types of organizations.

Shore and Martin (1989) studied the differential associations that job satisfaction and organizational commitment had with job performance and turnover intentions in 71 bank tellers and 72 hospital professionals. Results showed that organizational commitment was more strongly related than job satisfaction with turnover intentions for the tellers but not for the hospital professionals. Job satisfaction was related more strongly than organizational commitment with supervisory ratings of performance for both samples. Findings suggest that specific job attitudes are more closely associated with task-related outcomes such as performance ratings, whereas global organizational attitudes are more closely associated with organization-related outcomes such as turnover intentions.

Singh and Pestonjee (1990) investigated the possible effect of job involvement and sense of participation on job satisfaction of two categories of bank employees. The result showed that the job satisfaction of bank employees was affected positively by occupational level, job involvement and participation and the interactional effect of job involvement and participation was significant.
Srivastava and Krishna (1992) compared the level of job involvement and mental health of employees of public and private sectors. The results obtained indicate significant difference between job involvement and mental health of employees working in public and private sectors. The results also revealed that the private sector employees were found comparatively more job involved and maintained better mental health. Job involvement and mental health were also found significantly correlated for public sector employees but the trend was not similar in case of private sector employees.

Knoop (1995) examined whether involvement in work and job, commitment to the employing organization, and satisfaction with the job would be significantly related for 171 nurses (aged 35-45 years). The results showed that involvement was not related to satisfaction with work and promotion opportunities. The degree of relationship between overall and specific facets of satisfaction and commitment and between involvement and commitment was moderately high.

Venkatachalam and Reddy (1996) studied the impact of job level, job tenure and type of organizations on job involvement and job satisfaction among employees working in three organizations viz., banks, school and government offices. The result showed significant influence on job level, work involvement and job involvement and not on job satisfaction. The type of organizations in which the employees are working significantly influenced the job satisfaction but not on work and job involvement. The result also revealed that the job tenure had no significant impact on job involvement, work involvement and job satisfaction.

Aminabhavi and Dharanendriah (1997) conducted a study to identify the factors that contribute to job involvement among doctors, engineers, lawyers and teachers (aged 30-60 years). Results showed that the selection
of occupation expressed with regard to job satisfaction and socio-cultural background contributed significantly to job involvement of the professionals. It was also found that the professionals who choose their occupation and expressed higher job satisfaction and the professionals who came from upper middle stratum of socio-cultural background showed higher job involvement than their counterparts.

Bhatt (1997) studied the job stress, job involvement and job satisfaction of male and female public and private primary school teachers. The result showed that the public school teachers' job stress was high and significantly negatively associated with job involvement. Job satisfaction and job involvement had significant high positive correlation. The result also showed significantly negative partial correlation between private and public school teachers on job involvement.

Jaswant and Naveen (1997) examined the interactive effects of age, gender and Type-A behaviour pattern of job stress and job involvement of bank employees. The result indicated that gender and Type-A behaviour had significant effect on job stress. The age and Type-A behaviour also significantly influenced the job involvement of bank employees. The result also showed significant interaction effects of age and gender, Type-A behaviours and gender for job stress.

Nelson (1997) used an exploratory-descriptive design to investigate the health practices of low-income working women and to discover how these practices are influenced by the circumstances of their daily lives. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 34 women employed as nursing assistants in long-term care agencies. Eating a healthy diet, exercising, and getting sufficient rest and sleep were the most commonly reported health practices. A high level of involvement in work, family and social role was
evident in the women's responses; however, work occupied the central position in most of the women's lives and exerted the greatest influence on their health practices. Time and energy constraints related to the demands of multiple role activities and financial needs arising from disadvantaged socioeconomic conditions were frequently mentioned barriers to desired health practices.

Joshi (1998) compared the private and public sector employees in terms of job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement. The result showed significant difference between private and public sector employees in terms of job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement.

Venkatachalam et al. (1998) studied the effect of job level and organizational identity on job involvement and job satisfaction of banks, schools and government offices subordinates. The result showed that supervisors were more job involved and satisfied from their job in comparison to the subordinates. Result also revealed that the bank employees were more job involved, showed greater level of job satisfaction than the school and government offices employees. Job level significantly affected job involvement and job satisfaction and organizational identity significantly influenced job satisfaction but not job involvement.

Joshi (1999) studied the job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement of industrial employees. The result revealed that the employees' age, job experience and monthly income were significantly related to job involvement and work involvement. Significant correlation was also found between monthly income and job satisfaction. It was also observed that the employees' job satisfaction and job involvement were significantly associated. The result did not yield significant relationship between employees work involvement and job satisfaction.
Naaz (1999) studied the job involvement of textile mill workers in relation to job characteristics and demographic variables. Result indicated that the skill variety, which is one of the components of job characteristics, was found significant predictor of job involvement. The result also indicated that the task identity and skill variety were found as predictors of job involvement.

Nystedt et al. (1999) assessed the organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction of army officers of Sweden by means of discriminant analysis. It was found that organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction represent three empirically distinct context.

Patel (1999) conducted a study to find out the influence of age, organizational commitment on job involvement of nationalized and co-operative bank employees. The sample consisted of 200 employees (100 in each group). Mowday’s organizational commitment scale and Lodahl and Kejner’s job involvement scale were administered on them. The result revealed that the younger employees of both nationalized and co-operative bank employees differ significantly with their middle age group employees. The younger employees were found less job involved and showed less organizational commitment than the middle and elderly age group of employees belonging to same age and did not differ significantly from each other on job involvement. But on organizational commitment when same age group of employees were compared the significant difference was found between the employees of middle age group and the employees from nationalized bank showed higher commitment than those of the employees of co-operative bank.

Bhargava and Kelkar (2000) assessed 102 (24-53 years) managers, officers, and supporting staff of a business organization on organizational
structure as well as corporate culture, job involvement, job satisfaction, and empowerment. Results showed that job satisfaction and empowerment were positively related but both were unrelated to job involvement. Centralization was positively related to job involvement but negatively to job satisfaction and empowerment. Negative correlation of centralization with job satisfaction and empowerment indicated the importance of decentralization for managing people in organizations. The measures of human resource development could be predicted by corporate culture. It is concluded that organizations should opt for the strategies that could take into account the all-around development of their members through strategic human resource management.

Probst (2000) attempted to ascertain the moderating effects of job involvement and consequences of job security among public sector employees. Result showed that the employees who were highly invested in their jobs were affected adversely by job insecurity. Particularly when they reported more negative job attitudes, more health problems and higher level of psychological distress in comparison to the employees who were less involved. Brody et al. (2001) on the basis of the result reported that personal involvement in decision-making process may influence the subject's current and future behaviour.

Sjöberg and Sverke (2000) examined whether job involvement and organizational commitment interactively influence turnover through the intention to quit. The study sought to extend previous theoretical and empirical research on Blau and Boal (1987) model of the interactive effect of job involvement and organizational commitment on employee withdrawal. Using longitudinal data from a survey of 535 members (mean age 41.2 years) of nursing staff of a Swedish emergency hospital and register
information on actual turnover, the results showed, in contrast to the statement of the original theoretical model, that turnover intention mediates the additive and multiplicative effects of job involvement and organizational commitment on actual turnover. The study suggests that the proposed involvement/commitment is theoretically justified, and underscores the pertinence of investigating intermediate linkages in turnover research.

Diefendorff et al. (2002) examined the roles of job involvement and work centrality in predicting organizational citizenship behaviours and job performance. The result revealed that job involvement is a significant predictor of supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) and in-role performance, controlling for work centrality and other individual difference variables. This study used a sample of employed undergraduate students (mean age 24.3 years). Consistent with recent findings, there is evidence that sex moderates some of the job involvement and organizational citizenship behaviour relationships, with females having a stronger, positive relationship between these constructs than males.

Mogaji (2002) examined the relationship between job involvement and organizational climate. Data was collected from 600 subjects, which included 150 junior workers (120 males and 30 females), 30 supervisors (27 males and 3 females) and 20 managers (18 males and 2 females) totalling 200 subjects from each of the three manufacturing industries. Results indicated that structure and responsibility had significantly positive relations with job involvement. Reward had a positive but non-significant relation with it. Warmth climate had a significantly negative relation while risk, support, standard of performance, conflict and identity all had negative but non-significant relations with job involvement. The hierarchical/multiple regression of sex, occupational level, type of industry, personal/demographic
and organizational factors indicated that work satisfaction, age, type of industry and organizational climate variables like responsibility and warmth are the significant factors that can influence job involvement. Only felt-responsibility had a significantly positive influence on job involvement. There are significant differences in the job involvement among the three categories of workers and the three industries. The analysis of the results with t-statistics did not show any significant difference between male and female workers.

Ekore and Onomerike (2004) investigated the influence of sex, number of dependants and family responsibility on job involvement. A total of 200 participants drawn from two multinational corporations in Ibadan, Nigeria took part in the study that adopted the exposit factor design. Females were found to be more involved in their job than the male workers that participated in the study. Number of dependants was found to have high positive relationship with job involvement. It was concluded that there was no justification for the gender stereotype that encourage the deliberate exclusion of females from certain jobs in organizations. Having high number of dependants does not hinder job involvement.

Isaksson et al. (2004) using longitudinal data from a Swedish representative sample (N=888) examined employment status change (from work to unemployment) and work values development in a 15-month time period. Furthermore, the relationship between employment status change and well-being has been explored with a special focus on the roles played by work values and gender differences. Results showed that the work values are fairly stable over 15 months. It was found that the long-term unemployed (mostly active job seekers) had higher measures of work involvement after 15 months. Further no gender difference was found with regard to work
involvement but females were more likely to agree that there is an entitlement to work and becoming unemployed was found associated with negative health effects, but only among unemployed men.

1.2 Personal Efficacy

One of the basic reasons for some people to be able to accomplish more than others is that they have developed habits of thinking and acting which together contribute to perform efficiently much above that of the average. Infact, individuals performance is determined by the strength of the belief they have in their self-efficacy which is created and developed through the process of learning, personal experiences, verbal persuasions, self-determination that moulds their thinking and behaviour to act in difficult situations. The utilization of available time and energy by an individual may be looked into the perspective of one’s self so, the study of ‘self’ has attracted the attention of a number of psychologists to understand the individual differences in terms of their specific and diverse performance that lead to success concerning to one’s goal attainment. Its growing significance in today’s competitive world has attracted the attention of researchers working in the field of management and organizational behaviour.

Robert White (1959), to be credited for writing a hallmark work in which he refutes the accepted theory of motivation as based on basic animal instincts (drives), introduced the term “effectance” to describe the motivational aspect of competence. As proposed by him that a person might be motivated to act because he perceives that he is competent in effecting a desired change in the environment. With repetition of the action, the person masters a new skill and gains confidence in developing ability to
successfully interact with the environment. “Effectance motivation” summarizes the overall intrinsic satisfaction with a transaction as a whole and is conceptualized as a “feeling of efficacy”. From this explanation it becomes clear that self-efficacy has great relevance with the overall performance of the employees at all levels and many other dynamics of organizational related activities.

It is quite evident from the research literature that individual differences are most often attributed to personal, societal, ethnic, situational and environmental factors. Since, inception psychologists made efforts to understand about the individual differences from various angles. Infact, every person has to face difficulties in achieving his/her life objectives and in establishing satisfactory relationships with other persons, as they have never been able to arrive at an objective understanding of themselves. So, it occupies greater significance in everyone’s life because it makes the person aware that how far he is able to resolve the problems on his own and this type of thinking impels an individual to understand his self. When a person makes self-observation then he identifies his strengths and weaknesses and prepares himself to act efficiently to adjust in different situations being faced by him in a demanding and changing work environment.

The concept of efficacy is not present in the literature for almost two decades because at that time social psychologists attempted to clarify a definition of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Gecas, 1989; Harter, 1978). Albert Bandura is credited with developing the construct of self-efficacy (DiClemente, 1981; Maibach and Murphy, 1995; O’Leary, 1985). According to Bandura’s (1977) early social learning theory of behavioural change, cognitive processing mediates behaviour change and cognitive events are induced or altered by experiences of mastery. In later works, Bandura (1982,
1989, 1997) identifies human agency and control as essential components of self-efficacy. Bandura’s works focussed on perceived self-efficacy, which he defines as a belief in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to attain a goal. Within the construct of perceived self-efficacy, the causal predictor (motivation) of behaviour is one’s belief in the capability to perform an act (Bandura, 1997). In other words, it may be stated that perceived self refers to an individual’s concept regarding the kind of person he/she is. It means that it is the way of a person to perceive and describe about one’s self.

Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory emphasizes that individuals possess a self-system that enables them to exercise a measure of control over their thoughts, feelings, motivation and actions. This self-system provides reference mechanisms and a set of sub functions for perceiving, regulating, and evaluating behaviour, that results from the interplay between the system and environmental sources of influence and it also serves as a self-regulatory function by providing individuals with the capability to influence their own cognitive processes and actions and thus alter their environments. For example, how people interpret the results of their own behaviour informs and alters their environments and the personal factors they possess which, in turn, inform and alter subsequent behaviour. This is the foundation of Bandura’s (1986) conception of reciprocal determinism, the view that (i) personal factors in the form of cognition, affect, and biological events, (ii) behaviour, and (iii) environmental influences create interactions that result in a triadic reciprocality. Bandura provided a view of human behaviour in which the beliefs that people have about themselves are key elements in the exercise of control and personal agency and in which individuals are viewed
both as products and as producers of their own environments and of their social systems (Pajares, 1997).

Bandura (1986) pointed out that, through the process of self-reflection, the individuals are able to evaluate their experiences and thought processes. According to this view, what people know, the skills they possess, or what they have previously accomplished are not always good predictors of subsequent attainments because the beliefs they hold about their capabilities powerfully influence the ways in which they will behave. Consequently, how people behave is both mediated by their beliefs about their capabilities and can often be better predicted by these beliefs than by the results of their previous performances. This does not mean that people can accomplish tasks beyond their capabilities simply by believing that they can, for competent functioning requires harmony between self-beliefs on the one hand and possessed skills and knowledge on the other. Rather, from this explanation it emerges that self-perceptions of capability help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they possess. The process of creating and using these self-beliefs is an intuitive one: individuals engage in a behaviour, interpret the results of their actions, use these interpretations to create and develop beliefs about their capability to engage in subsequent behaviours in similar domains, and behave in concert with the beliefs created (Pajares, 1997). Citing this example it becomes explicit that the beliefs, which students develop about their academic capabilities, help them to determine what they will do with the knowledge and skills they have learned. Consequently, their academic performances are in part the result of what they come to believe that they have accomplished and can accomplish. This helps explain why student’s academic performances may differ markedly when they have similar ability. Researchers have suggested that these self-
beliefs may play a mediational role in relation to cognitive engagement and that enhancing them might lead to increased use of cognitive strategies that, in turn, lead to improve performance (Pintrich and De Groot, 1990). This view of self-belief as a mediating construct in human behaviour is consistent with those of numerous scholars and theorists who have argued that the potent evaluative nature of beliefs makes them a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted and subsequent behaviour mediated (Abelson, 1979; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Dewey, 1933; Goodman, 1988; James, 1885; Maslow, 1943; Mead, 1982; Nisbett and Ross, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Posner et al., 1982; Rokeach, 1960, 1968).

Of all the thoughts that affect human functioning, and standing at the very core of social cognitive theory, are self-efficacy beliefs, “people’s judgements of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances”. Self-efficacy beliefs provide the foundation for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment. This is because unless people believe that their actions can produce the outcomes they desire, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. Much empirical evidence now supports Bandura’s contention that self-efficacy beliefs touch virtually every aspect of people’s lives — whether they think productively, self-debilitatingly, pessimistically; how well do they motivate themselves and persevere in the face of adversities; their vulnerability to stress and depression, and the life choices they make. Self-efficacy refers to people’s perceptions about their capabilities to produce the desired effects by their own actions. It represents what a person believes he or she can do with the skills under certain circumstances. Thus, if a person believes that he or she can successfully execute the behaviour required by a particular situation, then the person is
considered to have self-efficacy. Perceived self-efficacy is defined as people’s beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave (Bandura, 1993).

As suggested by Bandura, (1977) there are four major sources of information used by individuals when forming self-efficacy judgements. The most influential source of these beliefs is the interpreted result of one’s purposive performance, or mastery experience. Individuals gauge the effects of their actions, and their interpretations of these effects help to create their efficacy beliefs. Previous successes raise mastery expectations, while repeated failures lower them (Gist and Mitchell, 1992; Saks, 1995; Silver et al., 1995). The second is vicarious experience, which is gained by observing others who perform activities successfully. This is often referred to as modeling, and it can generate expectations in observers that they can improve their own performance by learning from what they have observed (Bandura, 1978; Gist and Mitchell, 1992). Schunk (1981, 1983a, 1987) also demonstrated that, the effects of models are particularly relevant in this context. A significant model in one’s life can help instill self-beliefs that will influence the course and direction that life will take. Part of one’s vicarious experience also involves the social comparisons made with other individuals. These comparisons, along with peer modeling, can be powerful influences on developing self-perceptions of competence (Schunk, 1983a). Interaction effects can complicate evaluation of the relative power of different modes of influence. For example, a model’s failure has a more negative effect on the self-efficacy of observers when observers judge themselves as having comparable ability to the model. If, on the other hand,
observers judge their capability as superior to the model’s capability, failure
of the model does not have a negative effect (Brown and Inouye, 1978). Individuals also create and develop self-efficacy beliefs as a result of the social persuasions they receive from others. It refers to activities where people are led, through suggestion, into believing that they can cope successfully with specific tasks. Coaching and giving evaluative feedback on performance are common types of social persuasion (Bandura, 1977; Bandura and Cervone, 1986). Although, social persuasion is a weaker source of efficacy information than mastery or vicarious experiences, but persuaders can play an important part in the development of an individual’s self-beliefs (Zeldin and Pajares, 1997). Persuaders must cultivate people’s beliefs in their capabilities while at the same time ensuring that the envisioned success is attainable. And, just as positive persuasions may work to encourage and empower, negative persuasions can work to defeat and weaken self-beliefs. In fact, it is usually easier to weaken self-efficacy beliefs through negative appraisals than to strengthen such beliefs through positive encouragement (Bandura, 1986). The individual’s physiological or emotional states such as anxiety, stress, arousal, fatigue, and mood states also provide information about efficacy beliefs (Pajares, 1997). He describes that because individuals have the capability to alter their own thinking, self-efficacy beliefs, in turn, also powerfully influence the physiological states themselves. Bandura (1997) has observed that people live with psychic environments that are primarily of their own making. It is often said that people can “read” themselves, and so this reading comes to be a realization of the thoughts and emotional states that individuals have themselves created. Often, they can gauge their confidence by the emotional state they experience as they contemplate an action. Moreover, when people
experience aversive thoughts and fears about their capabilities, those negative affective reactions can themselves further lower perceptions of capability and trigger the stress and agitation that help ensure the inadequate performance they fear. This is not to say that the typical anxiety experienced before an important endeavour is a guide to low self-efficacy. Strong emotional reactions to a task, however, provide cues about the anticipated success or failure of the outcome.

However, these sources of efficacy information are not directly translated into judgements of competence. Individuals interpret the results of events, and these interpretations provide the information on which judgements are based. The types of information people attend to and use to make efficacy judgements, and the rules they employ for weighting and integrating them, form the basis for such interpretations. Thus, the selection, integration, interpretation, and recollection of information influence judgements of self-efficacy (Pajares, 1997).

Bandura (1986, 1988a) emphasized in social cognitive theory that self-regulation of motivation and a performance attainment is governed by several self-regulatory mechanisms that operate together. One of the mechanism that occupies a central role in this regulatory process works through people’s beliefs in their personal efficacy and those people who have greater perceived self-efficacy are more capable in mobilizing their motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to exercise control over events in their lives. A person might be possessing skills but may not be able to use them well in difficult circumstances. If a person is possessing skills does not mean that he will be successful but having resilient self-belief makes him capable to exercise control over events to accomplish the desired goals. It means there are individual differences and
despite possessing same skills one person performs poorly and the other one adequately or extraordinarily, depending on whether their self-beliefs of efficacy enhance or impair their motivation and problem-solving efforts. One cannot disregard that people's beliefs in their efficacy affect their psychological well-being and performance through several intervening processes. In fact, every person exerts some influence over his life through the environment he selects and the environment he creates it means people tend to avoid activities and situations they believe will exceed their coping capabilities, but they readily undertake challenging activities and pick social environments they judge themselves capable of managing. It has been explored by some researchers that the perceived self-efficacy has impact on career paths. The stronger the people's self-beliefs of efficacy, the more career options they consider to be possible and the better they prepare themselves educationally for different occupational pursuits (Betz and Hackett, 1986; Lent and Hackett, 1987; Miura, 1987). It is often seen that some people restrict their career options because they believe they lack the necessary capabilities, although they have the actual ability to perform well. This kind of thinking arises more from self-doubts, rather than from inability.

Research literature reveals that people's self-beliefs of efficacy also determine their level of motivation, which may be observed from their activities that reflect in terms of how much effort they will exert and how long they will sustain. The stronger the belief in their capabilities, the greater and more persistent are their efforts (Bandura, 1988a). On the other hand when people are in the grip of self-doubts about their capabilities they are found to slacken their efforts and attempt to withdraw prematurely and quickly settle for mediocre solutions but those persons who have a strong
belief in their capabilities exert greater effort to master the challenge (Bandura and Cervone, 1983, 1986; Cervone and Peake, 1986; Jacobs et al., 1984; Weinberg et al., 1979). People having strong perseverance are found to be better in their performance and achievements. In various studies of manufacturing industries it was found that the impact that training programs had on the acceptance of production goals and level of productivity is partially mediated by changes in employees' self-beliefs of efficacy (Earley, 1986). As pointed out by Bandura (1988a,b) that human self-motivation relies on discrepancy production as well as on discrepancy reduction it means such motivation involves a dual control mechanism that operates through discrepancy production and is followed by discrepancy reduction and it has greater relevance as far as the human activities aimed at obtaining future outcomes are concerned. James (1892) wrote that experience is essentially what individuals choose to attend to. If this is the case, then the self-beliefs that influence those choices are instrumental in defining one's experience and providing an avenue through which individuals exercise control over the events that affect their lives. Beliefs of personal competence also help in determining how much effort people will expend on an activity, how long they will persevere when confronting obstacles, and how resilient they will prove in the face of adverse situations — the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence, and resilience. Efficacy beliefs also influence the amount of stress and anxiety individuals experience as they engage in a task and the level of accomplishment they realize (Pajares, 1997). People with strong sense of personal competence in a domain approach difficult tasks in that domain as challenges to be mastered rather than as dangers to be avoided, have greater intrinsic interest in activities, set challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them, heighten their
efforts in the face of failure, more easily recover their confidence after failures or setbacks, and attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which they believe they are capable of acquiring. High self-efficacy helps create feelings of serenity in approaching difficult tasks and activities. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may believe that things are tougher than they are, a belief that fosters stress, depression, and a narrow vision of how best to solve a problem. As a result of these influences, self-efficacy beliefs are strong determinants and predictors of the level of accomplishment that individuals finally attain. For these reasons, Bandura (1986, 1997) has made strong claim that beliefs of personal efficacy constitute the key factor of human agency.

Self-efficacy has generated research in diversified areas such as medicine, athletics, media studies, business, social and political change, psychology, psychiatry and education. It has been found related to clinical problems such as phobias (Bandura, 1983), addiction (Marlatt et al., 1995), depression (Davis and Yates, 1982), social skills (Moe and Zeiss, 1982), assertiveness (Lee, 1983, 1984); to stress in variety of contexts (Jerusalem and Mittag, 1995); to smoking behaviour (Garcia et al., 1990); to pain control (Manning and Wright, 1983); to health (O'leary, 1985); and to athletic performance (Barling and Abel, 1983; Lee, 1982) In general, researchers have established that self-efficacy beliefs and behaviour changes and outcomes are highly correlated and that self-efficacy is an excellent predictor of behaviour. The depth of this support prompted Graham and Weiner (1996) to conclude that, particularly in psychology and education, self-efficacy has proven to be a more consistent predictor of behavioural outcomes than any other motivational constructs. Clearly, it is not simply a matter of how capable one is, but of how capable one believes oneself to be.
Self-efficacy provides a mechanism to explain individual behaviour and is referred to as a person’s perceived capability to perform a behaviour. A high level of personal self-efficacy is associated with a positive self-concept and a self-appraisal of personal control and arises through experiences of mastery and the anticipation of competent performance. A person with a positive self-efficacy expects to succeed and will persevere in an activity until the task is completed. A person with low perception of self-efficacy often anticipates failure and is less likely to attempt and persist or involve in challenging activities. Such an individual has a negative self-concept and an expectation of incompetence or lack of control of his/her own actions and outcomes. Medenick (1982) stated that “Personal efficacy refers to a belief or expectation that one can successfully bring about change, people with expectations are more likely to take risks, set more difficult goals, persist longer at chosen activities and be more involved in what they are doing”. Sherer et al. (1982) defined “General self-efficacy as a global construct composite of all life success and failure that are attributed to the self-efficacy”. Mueller and Major (1989) stated that “The beliefs which are considered to be important components of self-efficacy is mainly concerned with the persons which they create, develop and hold to be true about themselves from the very foundation of human agency and this act as a vital force in their success or failure in all endeavours”. The present investigator feels it necessary to specify that the term personal efficacy as used by some investigators is similar in all respect to that of the pioneers of this field who coined the term self-efficacy.

Kingery et al. (1990) examined the self-efficacy model among school health promoters. Self-perceptions of prior involvement, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, stress and intentions were measured in relation to 25
specific school health promotion tasks. As predicted by the model, degree of prior involvement, in those tasks was significantly related to self-efficacy expectations. A model, which included self-efficacy, outcome expectations and stress with regard to the 25 tasks, explained 34 per cent of the variance in intentions to perform those tasks. Self-efficacy best predicted intentions regarding more difficult tasks, while outcome expectations best predicted intentions for involvement in tasks with questionable health benefits to students. Stress best predicted intentions regarding stressful activities. Professional commitment to such activities as aerobic exercise and alcohol/drug avoidance appeared to be rooted in personal experience.

Annkoff et al. (1992) examined the relationship between anxiety, thoughts, self-efficacy and performance of doctoral students after oral examination. The faculty examiners rated the students for their performance and level of anxiety. The result reveals that the state of mind ratio of positive thoughts to positive and negative thoughts was found to be an important contributor to anxiety. The rating done by faculty members were found significantly related to their rating of performance.

Grubbs et al. (1992) examined the influence of sex, race, socio-economic status and religiosity on self-efficacy of male and female adolescents. They observed that the self-efficacy was not found related with gender, race, SES and religiosity but the result indicated that the subjects as a group showed moderately high degree of self-efficacy.

Kelly (1993) studied the relationship of academic achievement of male and female and sex-balanced occupations. The results showed that the girls have higher efficacy expectations for some female careers, and lower efficacy expectations for some male careers than the boys. The boys and girls did not differ in their efficacy expectations for sex-balanced
occupations. The overall influence on gender with regard to career self-efficacy was found modest. The result also indicated that the achievements emerged as more powerful predictors of self-efficacy than the gender.

Vasil (1993) examined gender differences in research productivity and self-efficacy beliefs among subjects selected from six major universities. The other variables such as academic rank, academic field and academic institution were controlled to see the effect of gender differences. The result showed that the males reported greater overall research productivity, greater degree of confidence in their ability to perform research activities leading to doctorate degree. The result also revealed strong positive correlation between research self-efficacy and research productivity.

Kaplan et al. (1994) evaluated the self-efficacy expectation as predictors of morality of patients suffering from chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Self-efficacy was found a significant predictor variable but its effect was marginal as far as the patients feeling about survival of a five year period was concerned.

Latham et al. (1994) examined the cognitive benefits of undergraduate students participating in decision-making and the role of self-efficacy on task performance. The result showed that the strategies developed by the subjects as well as their self-efficacy was found having mediating effect of participation on performance. But participation of subjects in setting their goals did not affect their performance but it affected their self-efficacy.

Gardner and Pierce (1998) studied the intervening role of organization-based self-esteem in relation to generalized self-efficacy, employee's job performance and job satisfaction. The data was obtained from professional employees on these measures. The result indicated that the organization-based self-esteem emerged as strong predictor of employee's satisfaction.
and performance. The self-esteem was found as having its mediating effect on generalized self-efficacy and employee's responses.

Maly et al. (1998) on the basis of the scale measured the patients' satisfaction and physician's interpersonal and communication regarding coping with the health problems. It was found that the perceived self-efficacy of patient in interacting with the physicians was found positively correlated with self-reported health.

O'Neill and Mone (1998) examined the influence of equity sensitivity and self-efficacy on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intent to leave. This study was based on the concept of equity sensitivity that refers to how sensitive people are to over reward and under reward situations and has been found to enhance the accuracy of equity theory in predicting job satisfaction in social exchange situations. It was observed that the employee's working in a health care firm support the moderating role of equity sensitivity in relations between self-efficacy and job satisfaction and between self-efficacy and intent to leave, but not between self-efficacy and organizational commitment.

Hirose et al. (1999) reported that self-efficacy was found related to college adjustment of students in Japan. They found that the students who were high in self-efficacy showed the pattern of well adjustment as compared to low self-efficacy counterparts. The low self-efficacy students showed difficulty in adjustment. The result of this study was also compared with the students across other colleges in that city.

Kraus and Hughey (1999) studied the career decision-making self-efficacy and career indecision of male and female students. The groups were assigned to control group or a treatment group. This group of students participated in an intervention design to teach career choice competencies,
they were provided this opportunity to practice these competencies that will enable the students to apply them to career development and career decision-making. A female counselor conducted the career intervention twice a week for four consecutive weeks. Soon after the intervention the two groups were asked to complete the career decision-making and self-efficacy scale and the career indecision scale. The investigators observed insignificant difference between treatment group and control group in either career decision-making, self-efficacy and career indecision. Males in the control group showed higher level of career decision-making self-efficacy in comparison to the females of control group after the intervention. The career decision-making self-efficacy of females in treatment group was found higher than the career decision-making self-efficacy of females in control group.

Magaletta and Oliver (1999) with 204 students attempted to examine (i) the relations between the hope construct and its two essential components, “Will” and “Ways”, and the related constructs of self-efficacy and optimism; and (ii) the ability of hope, self-efficacy and optimism to predict general well-being. Maximum-likelihood factor analysis recovered Will, Ways, self-efficacy and optimism as generally distinct and independent entities. Overall findings suggest that Will, Ways, self-efficacy and optimism are related but not identical constructs.

McAuley et al. (1999) examined the influence of experimentally manipulated self-efficacy in an exercise context and its effect on affective responses on college women assigned randomly to a high or low efficacy condition. The efficacy expectations were manipulated by means of bogus feedback. The result showed that the manipulation successfully influenced the affective responses. The subjects who participated in high-efficacy group reported more positive and less negative affect in comparison to less efficacy
counterparts. It was also observed that efficacy was significantly related to feeling state responses during and after the activity but only in the high-efficacy condition. On the basis of the results obtained they suggested that self-efficacy can be manipulated and these changes to be related to the affective experience associated with exercise which is a significant finding that have important implications for the roles played by self-efficacy which affected the exercise adherence.

Panagos and DuBois (1999) reported that the self-efficacy beliefs were found to be a substantial predictor of career interest and it also consistently mediates the relationship of other measures to career interest. The findings obtained also indicate the importance of subjective factors that is self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations were found more substantial in shaping adolescent’s developments.

Rouxel (1999) measured self-efficacy and anxiety and academic performance of students. The results obtained supported the functional relationship between self-efficacy and anxiety. The findings of this study is in conformity to Bandura’s social cognitive theory, on the one hand and on the other contradicts Bandura’s general hypothesis regarding the effect of self-efficacy on performance directly or indirectly to get support by these results.

LoCicero and Ashby (2000) assessed the relationship between perfectionism and self-efficacy of college students. A multivariate analysis of variance including subscales of the Self-Efficacy Scale revealed significant differences between adaptive perfectionists, maladaptive perfectionists and non-perfectionists. The findings of this study were consistent with the growing literature that suggests perfectionism may be adaptive as well as maladaptive.
Shea and Howell (2000) examined the pattern of the relationship between self-efficacy and performance in an experiment involving 148 students who worked on a manufacturing task over 4 trials. Task feedback and task experience, two variables that may influence the occurrence of efficacy-performance spirals were also investigated. Results showed strong support for a significant relationship between self-efficacy and performance over time. However, the pattern of changes in self-efficacy and performance from trial-to-trial contained self-corrections, suggesting that the efficacy-performance relationship does not necessarily proceed in a monotonic, deviation-amplifying spiral. Task feedback and task experience affected the occurrence of self-corrections in the pattern of changes in self-efficacy and performance over time.

Chen et al. (2001) in their study examined meta-analytically whether self-efficacy mediates the cognitive ability-performance and conscientiousness-performance relationships and whether task complexity moderates the extent to which self-efficacy mediates these relationships. Results showed that cognitive ability and conscientiousness positively related to self-efficacy, but that the magnitude of these relationships varied with task complexity. Furthermore, results revealed that self-efficacy mediates the relationships of cognitive ability and conscientiousness with performance on simple tasks, but not on complex tasks.

Creed et al. (2001) examined immediate and long-term well-being and confidence outcomes of 161 unemployed subjects who attended community-based occupational skills development training courses. The subjects completed the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the Job-procurement Self-Efficacy Scale and a modified 25-item short form of the Individualized Classroom Environment Questionnaire. Results showed that immediate
benefits were identified for both dependent variables, and some support was identified for long-term benefits in job search self-efficacy. Behavioural plasticity effects were demonstrated; with subjects with lower levels of self-esteem and lower levels job search self-efficacy pre-course responding differently to training than those with higher levels at that time. Outcomes were also examined in relation to the impact of the psychosocial climate of the training environment. Self-esteem and confidence levels at the end of the course were associated with perceptions of the actual training environment.

Dwyer and Cummings (2001) examined the relationship of self-efficacy, social support and coping strategies with stress levels of university students. Significant correlations were found for stress with total number of coping strategies and the use of avoidance-focused coping strategies. As well, there was a significant correlation between social support from friends and emotion-focused coping strategies. Gender differences were found, with women reporting more social support from friends than men.

Vancouver et al. (2001) questioned the common interpretation of the positive correlation among self-efficacy, personal goals and performance. Using self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977), it was predicted that cross-sectional correlational results were a function of past performance's influence on self-efficacy, and using control theory, it was predicted that self-efficacy could negatively influence subsequent performance. These predictions were supported with 56 undergraduate participants, using a within-person procedure. Personal goals were also positively influenced by self-efficacy and performance but negatively related to subsequent performance. A second study involving 185 undergraduates found that manipulated goal level positively predicted performance and self-efficacy positively predicted performance in the difficult-goal condition.
Luthans and Peterson (2002) made an empirical investigation of the role that a wide variety of managers' psychological state of self-efficacy plays in the relationship between their employees' measured engagement and a multiple measure of the managers' effectiveness. The statistical analysis of the data revealed that the managers' self-efficacy is a partial mediator of the relationship between his/her employees' engagement and the managers' rated effectiveness. Overall, these findings suggest that both employee engagement and manager self-efficacy are important antecedents that together may more positively influence manager effectiveness than either predictor by itself.

Potosky and Ramakrishna (2002) examined the moderating role of employees' climate for updating perceptions in the relationship between goal-orientation and job performance. Results based on the information system professionals employed by a large information technology (IT) firm showed that learning-goal orientation was negatively related to efficacy beliefs, which in turn were positively related to job-performance ratings. Most important, the relationship between learning-goal orientation and overall job-performance ratings, mediated by learning self-efficacy, was stronger for individuals who perceived a supportive organizational climate for updating than for those with low updating climate perceptions.

Chen et al. (2004) assessed samples in academic and work settings to test whether general self-efficacy and self-esteem relate differently to motivational and affective constructs. Results suggest that general self-efficacy is more highly related to motivational variables than is general self-esteem whereas self-esteem is more highly related to affective variables than is general self-efficacy. Result also supports the notion that motivational and
affective states differentially mediate the relationships of general self-efficacy and self-esteem with task performance.

Nauta (2004) examined the relationships among the Big Five personality factors (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism), career interests and career self-efficacy among a sample of 147 college students, self-efficacy mediated four out of five personality-interest relationships that have been found to be robust across a number of other samples. The findings generally support social cognitive career theory's model of interest development and have implications for career counselors who are working to help clients understand their interest assessment results.

Jimmieson et al. (2004) examined the role of information, efficacy and three stressors in predicting adjustment to organizational change among the government employees undergoing 18-month process of regionalization. Psychological well-being, client engagement and job satisfaction was also assessed again at a 2-year follow-up to examine if predictor variables had long-term effects on adjustment. At Time 1, there was evidence to suggest that information was indirectly related to psychological well-being, client engagement and job satisfaction, via its positive relationship to efficacy. There was also some evidence to suggest that efficacy was related to reduced stress appraisals, thereby heightening client engagement. Last, there was consistent support for the stress-buffering role of Time 1 self-efficacy in the prediction of Time 2 job satisfaction.

Schaub and Tokar (2005) sought to extend the empirical literature on Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) by testing (a) the posited indirect effect of personality on interests through learning experiences and sociocognitive mechanisms, and (b) hypotheses that self-efficacy percepts
and outcome expectations derive from corresponding career-relevant learning experiences. The participants completed a measure of the Big Five personality factors and measures of learning experiences, self-efficacy, outcome expectations and interests corresponding to each of Holland’s (1997) six RIASEC themes. Results of path analyses indicated that personality’s relation to interests was mediated via learning experiences and sociocognitive mechanisms; however, the extent of that mediation varied considerably across the different personality-interest relations. Findings also indicated strong support, across Holland themes, for SCCT’s hypothesized relations of learning experiences to self-efficacy and outcome expectations; however, for five of the six Holland themes, the relation between learning experiences and outcome expectations was at least partially mediated through self-efficacy.

1.3 Religiosity

The entire world appears to be ever changing to us and each aspect of reality is a passing event, nothing is stable and absolutely real. Things of eternal value, unchanging aspects of reality and the purposefulness of the existence itself are no longer acceptable to everyone of us, and as every religion is based upon human belief on these things, so religion has been regarded by many individuals as something utterly vague, a creation of some schemine priest of the yore and as something unconnected with the necessities of worldly life. But another important feature of the present era that reveals a different picture of day-to-day life, as envisaged that on the one hand religion is denounced and on the other each one of us invariably feels that without religion something is lacking in our lives. It may be so because we are conditioned, even today from the religious teachings of early
childhood, but this cannot be the sole reason considering the high degree of adaptability of human being in the changing era. From this explanation it appears that the social significance of religion is not only based on the historical role it played in the affairs of mankind but also on the fact that in religion alone every individual finds some spiritual peace to get rid of the hardships of life.

From the time immemorial up till now religion has been an integral part of the life of people and it seems to be the most powerful factor in the progress of both the individual and the society. Religious ideas and practices have played a very significant role in moulding the thoughts and conduct of men since their origin on the globe. The whole social life of men, their pursuits and occupations have been closely bound up with religion. In other words religion has made great contribution to activate humans to do something in every sphere of their life and activity. There is no doubt that psychologists find it difficult to make a concrete description of the concept of religion— from where to begin and how to define the concept because of its vast realm. It is beyond the capacity of a researcher to go in depth so he/she is bound to limit the investigation in order to avoid endless and fruitless discussions. Hidding (1965) emphasized in his writing that people observing naturalistic religion form two groups. The first group in which God is worshipped as the all-embracing unity, as “the unique mystery of reality’s endless being”; in these religions God reveals himself primarily in images. The second group comprises the religions in which God is worshipped as the creator, who makes, determines, rules and commands all things.

It is to be pointed out that religion implies not merely a relationship between man and man but also between man and some super power. Hence,
it involves a sanction which may be called suprasocial, whether it be primitive ghost fear or the present “wrath of God” or the penalties of an afterlife of torture in hell or merely the sense of being “out of tune with the infinite” when its supposed laws are disobeyed (Maciver and Page, 1962). The word religion which we use stands for at least two different things: (i) Behaviour as actually observable, and (ii) Experience, which may or may not issue in behaviour which is observable. Religion as predominantly observable behaviour finds expression in the course of development in such things as ceremony, ritual and conventional observances. Religion as experience has to do with the individual as such, and may be confined to an inner life of which no outsider has any direct knowledge. Religion may be regarded as being essentially an attitude determined by the discrimination of an element of ‘utterly-beyondness’, brought about by a mental development which is able to appreciate the existence of more in the world than that to which existing endowment effects adequate adjustment (Flower, 1927).

Man’s social, political, economic, moral, ethical and spiritual values are governed by the religious sanctions as a person has faith in his/her religion. One cannot deny that people get proper guidance and training through religion as it deals with inculcating fundamental values in every person so it becomes a mirror for his outlook regarding the worldly affairs. Our ancestors have realized its importance and it became an integral part of man’s society since existence and divergence of men on earth. Religion is also an essential and unending part of our culture so it is viewed as our cultural heritage that provides us the path of peace, self-discipline, life satisfaction and kindness and it is mainly concerned with the sentiments and values which men have cherished as most excellent, worthy and desirable. The most important values that a religious person imbibes are compassion,
justice, freedom, truth seeking, cooperation, honesty, empathy, altruism and so on: People realize these values only through religion, which directs the individual to live in peaceful coexistence. Religious belief or experience makes a person God fearing because he believes in His supremacy that manifests in one’s social behaviour and develops a positive outlook. So, a religious person develops faith to his commitments and is always eager to help other persons so as to bring change in their life and character. Since, man is integral to his community and being a member of that community he/she develops a system of beliefs and ethical codes and then act in accordance with the system. From ages religion has been the chief supporter of the moral and spiritual values of life. Some ultra materialistic thinkers have proposed that moral value of life are the outcome of purely material life of man — his economical life, his social life and his psychological being. True morality arises out of the understanding that this whole cosmos, of which we are only a part, is maintained in an orderly way. The material life of man may erect the upper superstructure of social morality upon this foundation of social order; but it is beyond the present power of man to alter or substitute that basic order by one of his own creation. Religion places the moral sense of humanity on a very solid and firm ground on man’s feeling that all the things of this Universe are the orders of some supreme power and a person can only be a part of that order, and as such his life and conduct must be in conformity or in harmony with that order. That ground could endure the passage of centuries. Modern man has not discovered more firm ground on which he could base the morality of mankind. The fear of the state community or the immediate neighbourhood and the vigilance of his own family members may force a man to conform to the established patterns. But he may deviate easily provided he becomes sure that his
conduct would remain undiscovered. There is no inner binding to a man devoid of religion, which invoked the inner necessity of moral values, which might claim that all our conducts, apparent or hidden are under close observation of some supernatural being. It is in the power of appeal to the innerself of human being that the true value of religion lies.

In this world, where good and evil appear to be two aspects of a single thing or where they appear to be firmly amalgamated, religion alone took to the task of isolating good from evil and then denouncing the latter. The sense of good and evil may be connected, directly or indirectly with historical processes of society. What is good today may become bad tomorrow, but this fact does not diminish the necessity of isolation of good from evil. The defect with our conception of religion arises mostly with the social practices of religion. In the feudal system of society the state was not so powerful and effective and so the means and ways utilized by religion for social control insisted upon the fear of hell so that law and order may be maintained. Now in our modern society there is a well-organized state machinery to look after the problems of law and order and hence there is no need of the fear of hell. In the present situation if religion talks of hell we naturally do not agree and we may start to condemn the religion. Religion is after all a heritage of mankind, a product of his own ingenuity. Before throwing it into gutters, it would be better to see whether this institution can serve some useful purpose in our modern times when values appear to lose their appeal. Whether the outer agencies are sufficient to lead mankind on its path of progress or some inner urge is also called for is to be considered and unless any substitute of religion is found which could inspire the innerself of man, we cannot throw away the religion. Even if religion acted as an opiate for the people it did so when some sedation was essential for the dejected
and suffering mankind, because there was no possibility of some immediate relief. Religion is common among all human beings but they differ in terms of their religious faith. Every one of us would agree that faith in a religion is inculcated with the process of socialization and a young child is dependant so he follows the path of religion same as that of his/her parent. It means no one is inborn religious, it is the society that makes the person identify with a particular religion because he/she is born in the family of particular religious group. But one thing remains common that every religion is rational and always normative for believers of one or the other religion. It means conceptions and beliefs are to be considered as essential elements of religion. The word religion comes from the root words religio—the feeling and experience of coming in touch with a greater-than-human power, and religare—to bind together again but there is a great deal of disagreement among thinkers some have claimed that the religions are derived directly from information supplied by God(s) to chosen human messenger(s). The followers of the religion accepted the claim, either literally or in a metaphorical, or partial fashion. Other thinkers have claimed that religion as a creation of man was based on an illusion and that fear accounted for its origin. Amongst thinkers few were of the opinion that religion arose in response to a definite need-adjustment to the supernatural or imaginary environment which appears just as real as the actual environment and adaptation to which is just as impelling. Had there been no aleatory element, religions might not have come into existence. There were other factors also equally responsible for the evolution of religion. Fathers and mothers or the heads and leaders of groups and communities are all moral and fallible. The desire for eternal love, guidance and support prompted man to form social or moral conception of God. This is the God of Providence, who protects.
disposes, rewards and punishes, as the case may be, the God who loves, and cherishes the life of the whole human race or even the life as such, the comforter of sorrow and unsatisfied longing, who preserves the soul of dead and alive. This is the social conception of God and it is this conception which is of great value in the maintenance if social control. In it the elements of fear exist but they do not hold the dominant position as in the case of religion of fear. Common to all these types of religion, is the anthropomorphic character of their conception of God. Only individuals of exceptional endowment exceptionally high-minded communities, get beyond this level. But there is third stage of religious development, which is rarely found in its pure form and may be called as the 'cosmic religious feeling'. It is very difficult to comprehend or to communicate this feeling to anyone who is entirely without it, especially as there is no anthropomorphic conception of God corresponding to it. Every great religion accepts the existence of such feeling in the depth of human heart and every great religion claims that some of its blessed followers have reached to the heights of such feeling. It is well-accepted truth that the origin of religion cannot be traced to a single source. It cannot be placed on any single element—fear, belief in impersonal power, rites and ceremonies or response to a definite need. Neither Will nor emotion alone can explain its origin. Infact, beginning of religion is as old as the human consciousness. There is no primitive society that was without a religion. And if religion is a universal phenomenon, it cannot be considered as an artificial state of human nature but as something permanently embedded in man’s psyche. Religion might have arose from the intellectual power of man in response to certain felt needs of man, or because of conditions accompanying man’s life on earth.
Since the concept of religion has a variety of connotations but in
general sense it is a way to make the life of individuals simple, practical and
cconcerned to human, for the satisfaction of all the mankind. Interpretation of
religion from behavioural or social scientific point of views became the
attraction of psychologists, sociologists and anthropologists who contributed
a lot in the understanding of the religious phenomenon. According to James
Martineaue (1888) “Religion is concerned with man’s belief in an ever-
living God who rules the universe”. Frazer (1890) viewed “Religion as a
faith in the power of a Supreme Being whose characteristics are forgiveness
and toleration. He viewed religion as a belief in a power superior to man,
which directs the course of nature in human life”. For Emile Durkheim
(1916) “Religion is a unified system of beliefs and practices relative to
sacred things”. In Freud’s view religion has to solve the riddle of the
universe and to reconcile man to suffering. In other words he sees religion
entirely in the framework of the conception, which he has of life: it is
marked by the tension between the pleasure principle and the reality
principle. Man would prefer to follow his desires, but reality forbids him to
do so and consequently he has to learn to accept it. For Freud, accordingly,
religion is merely the-unreal-attempt to come to terms with the problems of
reality (Faber, 1976). According to Siquerra (1943) “Religion has been
stated in terms of the whole attitude of man to God”. According to Tillich
(1951) “Religion can be seen as exploratory behaviour, driven among other
thing by man’s curiosity and by his perpetual attempts to maximize contact
with a maximal environment, to the full deployment of his potentialities”.
Erikson (1965) explains “Religion as an aspect of human life, which is to be
accepted. According to him religion is the phenomenon, which is translated
into significant words, images, and codes both the exceeding darkness that
surrounds man's existence, and also the light, which pervades, which apparently is beyond all comprehension". Thus, observance of once religion in true sense provides direction to individuals to live a purposeful life, a guideline to his efforts that leads to certain goals which are implicit or explicit ultimate aim of man's life and also sift the essentials from non-essentials. It also furnishes strong motives for struggle. Of the many motives that impel man to work none is stronger than the belief that 'I do the will of God'. Such belief brings more sustained efforts, and the individual works more enthusiastically and energetically.

Religious beliefs have much importance in the life of every person and because it works at the cognitive level and has greater relevance in the manifestation of behaviour it has gained the attraction of psychologists. So researchers were inclined to investigate the behaviour of human being representing different categories from the social strata to explore how far religious beliefs could be relevant to various organizational, personal, social and motivational aspect of human life. Studies conducted by psychologists that have some relevance with the ongoing research work have been reviewed.

Babu and Reddy (1989) administered scales for measuring job involvement, protestant work ethic, and religion to 217 clerks working for a religious institution and 228 clerks working for a secular institution (state government). The religiosity of subjects working for the religious institution was higher than that of subjects working for the secular institution. Working for religious or secular management did not change the protestant work ethic attitude of subjects, and job involvement of both the group of subjects was found to be similar.
O'Connor and Vallerand (1990) identified four kinds of religious motivations intrinsic, self-determined extrinsic (SDE), non-SDE and motivation to classify the relationships between religiosity and personal adjustment. It was found that these four kinds of religious motivation displayed a pattern of intercorrelation consistent with theoretical predictions, and were also related to other important aspects of life in a meaningful manner.

Leak and Randall (1995) tested the hypothesis that right-wing authoritarianism would be positively correlated with an orthodox and conventional orientation to religion and negatively correlated with measures of mature religiousness. 107 female and 49 male upper and lower division psychology students completed the Right-wing Authoritarianism Scale, the Christian Orthodoxy Scale, and some scales on religious maturity. Authoritarianism was positively associated with various measures of orthodox, conventional, and outer-directed religiousness. Authoritarianism was inversely related to a mature religious orientation.

Maltby (1997) examined the relationship between measures of personal religiosity, a measure of public religiosity, and the Abbreviated form of the Revised Eysenck Personality Questionnaire among 216 adults in the Republic of Ireland. A significant negative correlation was found between scores on psychotism and on the three measures of religiosity among men and among women. No significant relationship was found between any of the religiosity measures and the other measures contained within the Eysenck scores. A further analysis of the data suggests that the relationship for measures of public religiosity with low psychotism is only a facet of the relationship between public and personal religiosity. These
findings add to a growing body of research, which locates religiosity within the psychoticism dimension of Eysenck’s model of personality.

Schafer (1997) examined the proposition that religiosity and spirituality are inversely associated with personal distress among college students. Findings were mixed, with importance of religion showing a positive association, belief in the existence of God a curvilinear relationship, and having a sense of meaning and direction an inverse association with personal distress. Other religiosity and spirituality variables yielded no significant associations with personal distress, although several were weakly related in the direction opposite as predicted.

Blaine et al. (1998) in their two studies associated religious belief strength with more positive and certain self-conceptions, and the influence of religiousness on the self-concept was evident in multiple self-knowledge domains. The results also demonstrated that self-concept positivity partially mediated the relationship between religious belief and psychological adjustment. In addition, self-concept and coping models of the association of religiousness and adjustment were compared. The results revealed that religious belief had a small positive indirect effect on adjustment through self-concept positivity and a larger but negative indirect effect through a measure of God-related control attributions.

Hettler and Cohen (1998) checked the measures of intrinsic religiousness, religious activity and dysphoria in liberal protestant churchgoers. Intrinsic religiousness served as a stress buffer in the prediction of change in dysphoria, frequency of prayer and frequency of church attendance served as a stress buffer. Further, the results suggest that religious “commitment” is an individual difference variable that influences adjustment to negative life events.

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Knox et al. (1998) examined undergraduates from three southeastern universities on a questionnaire designed to assess outcomes associated with a religious/spiritual orientation toward life, as measured by the Rohrbaugh-Jessor Religiosity Scale and the Allport Religiosity Scale. Result suggests that a religious/intrinsic spiritual orientation was significantly associated with high self-esteem, assets for growth and low antisocial behaviour.

Ayele et al. (1999) also concluded that religion as a coping resource and intrinsic religious activities were positively associated with higher life satisfaction.

Pargament et al. (1999) examined the involvement of religion in achieving a sense of personal control in a situation evoking distress and vulnerability. Findings show that a collaborative religious coping in which the individuals share the responsibility for coping with God is associated with better outcomes.

Knotts (2003) investigated the relations among three religious orientations (intrinsic, extrinsic-personal, and extrinsic-social) and job involvement for 100 employees of a rehabilitation hospital in the Southern United States. Correlation showed negative association between Intrinsic Religiosity and Job Involvement and a positive one between Extrinsic-personal and Job Involvement for the total sample. When separated by religious affiliation, regression analyses yielded a significant positive relationship between scores on Extrinsic-personal Religiosity and in Job Involvement for Protestants, but Intrinsic Religiosity was significantly negatively related to Job Involvement for non-Protestants. No relation was found between scores on Extrinsic-social Religiosity and Job Involvement for either group. These results suggest that employees' religiosity may
influence work values in different ways for Protestant and non-Protestant workers.

Jang and Johnson (2004) accounted for the link between religiosity and distress by using a latent-variable structural equation modeling approach; survey data from a sample of African-American adults were analyzed. In terms of anger, depression, and anxiety, religiously committed African-Americans exhibit lower levels of distress than their less religious or nonreligious counterparts. Highly religious African-Americans report higher levels of sense of control and social support, which consequently reduces distress. Result also suggested that the indirect and salutary effects of religiosity via social support are due to support from family and friends as well as from other religious people.

Jorm and Christensen (2004) examined the associations of religiosity with low Psychoticism within Eysenck’s three-factor model and within the five-factor model; associations with Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Extraversion were examined in a large community sample of over 7000 adults. The personality scales given to participants measured Eysenck’s three factors. Participants were divided into quartiles of religiosity and compared on the personality scales. The linear association with Psychoticism reported in previous studies was replicated. However, there were also quadratic associations with all personality traits, but particularly with Psychoticism and Extraversion. The most and least religious quartiles tended to be higher in Psychoticism and lower in Extraversion.

Mattis et al. (2004) attempted to probe the association between early and current organizational religiosity, subjective religiosity and spirituality, positive and negative perceived relationship with God, and dispositional optimism and pessimism among a sample of African Americans (N=307).
Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that age, subjective spirituality, and a positive relationship with God were found to be positive and independent predictors of optimism. Education, combined household income and subjective spirituality negatively predicted pessimism. Negative relationship with God was a positive predictor of pessimism. Subjective religiosity and early and current organizational religious involvement did not predict optimism or pessimism.

Bourke et al. (2005) examined the relationship between Personality and Attitude toward Christianity. A sample of 168 church musicians completed the Francis Scale of Attitude toward Christianity together with the short-form Revised Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. The data confirmed the finding (common in general population studies but less common among highly religious groups) that religiosity is associated with lower psychoticism, but not with extraversion or with neuroticism.

1.4 Personality Characteristics

The ancient philosophers and poets often speculated that why individuals were unique and why do they differ from one another in so many ways. However, the emergence of a scientific field of psychology presented an overview of personality focusing on its various aspects to have a clear understanding of the concept through scientific investigations. Personality is the pattern of an individual’s life, it means if we know someone’s personality, we can predict how he will behave in a great variety of circumstances and enable us to know that what he will notice and what he will miss, what he will seek and what he will avoid, where he is likely to succeed or fail. It is the meaning and coherence of his acts and omissions and some principles that we derive from observing the meaningful
recurrences in his day-to-day conduct. Personality in general includes an individual’s abilities, dispositions, temperament and character. There are many traits through which one can generalize about human beings as whole, or large groups of them. Personality is mainly concerned with the ways in which an individual is particularly himself, and is marked off from other people in the group to which he belongs. Getting to know a person means becoming familiar with the patterns or recurrence that characterize his behaviour and enable us to anticipate his responses.

It is important to note that the term personality as used by psychologists convey much broader meaning of the concept than the same term as used by laymen. When non-psychologists talk of personality they present the outer shell of a person but psychologists do not include only the superficial aspects of human behaviour to which laymen refer, but the full range of social, emotional and physical aspects as well which make each of us a different person, unique in some ways, but at the same time similar to others. It means the way in which an individual adjusts to his environment is one aspect of his personality, the way in which he learns to adjust is another aspect and the attitudes, values and traits that result from this learning constitutes still another aspect of personality. As stated by Levy (1970) three conditions appear to be necessary when we talk of personality. First, there must be some behaviour whose attribute is regarded as contributing to the person’s identity as an individual. Second, this behaviour must have its locus of causation within the person. And third, the behaviour must possess some degree of organization and structure. Each of these conditions is dependent upon the perception of the observer that largely depends upon his way of ordering and interpreting his experience. Thus, personality exists in the eye of the observer rather than in the individual being observed. From this
explanation the personality of an individual may be understood as the result of a perceptual process that depends upon the construction of a set of organized categories in terms of which stimulus inputs may be sorted, given identity and given more elaborated connotative meaning.

The meaning of the term personality as evident from research review reveals that it has its origin in diverse connotations as viewed by different writers at different times. The origin of the term personality is from the Latin word 'persona' that denoted the theatrical mask worn by the ancient actors to signify their role in the drama. Since then it became a focal point for a number of writers. Allport stands out as an eminent scholar and writer who summarized the literature and collated it with subsequent meanings which the term personality has acquired in theology, philosophy, law, sociology and psychology. Allport emphasized that personality is used in at least four distinct senses all of them having their roots in the theatre. First, personality is regarded as an assemblage of personal qualities; in this sense it represents what the person is really like. In this interpretation personality pertains to the actor. Second, personality is regarded as the way a person appears to others, not as he really is. In this sense, personality pertains to the mask. Third, personality is the role a person plays in life, for example, a professional, social or political role. A role is a character in drama. Finally, personality refers to qualities of distinction and dignity. In this sense it pertains to the star performer. Because of the evaluative connotation of this meaning of the term, we do not find such a definition in the scientific setting. In popular usage, personality in a community is a man of distinction or worth. A scientific study of personality begins with a definition of terms and there appears to be various definitions of personality as given by psychologists
from time to time. Allport (1937) identified fifty different definitions of the term and categorized them into five areas viz.,

(i) Omnibus – Personality as the sum total, aggregate or constellation of properties or qualities.

(ii) Integrative and Configurational – Under this view of personality, the organization of personal attributes is stressed.

(iii) Hierarchical – These definitions specify the various levels of integration or organization of personality.

(iv) Adjustment – This view emphasizes the adjustment of the person in the environment.

(v) Distinctiveness – The definition for this category stress the uniqueness of each personality.

The definition proposed by Allport (1937) is most acceptable to those working in the area of personality. According to him “personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical system that determine his unique adjustment to the environment”. In this definition the word “dynamic organization” refers to the idea that the characteristics of personality interact with and modify each other. The word “psychophysical” means that personality contains both mental and physical elements. And the word “determine” refers to the idea that personality is considered to be a cause of behaviour. Cattell (1950) stated that “personality is concerned with all the behaviour of the individual both overt and under the skin”. In this definition, he included the essential characteristics of inner state and process, which may be thoughts, attitudes, motives and emotions including behaviour of the person. According to Ruch (1963), personality should include: (a) external appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value; (b) inner awareness of self as a permanent organizing force; and (c) the particular
pattern or organization of measurable traits, both inner and outer. The in-depth analysis of the definitions of personality propounded by (Guilford, 1959; Maddi, 1968; Hall and Lindzey, 1970; Lazarus, 1971; and Sarason, 1972) clearly indicates that the later researchers and writers on personality agree to a great extent with Allport’s formulation and stressed the multiplicity of working viewpoints. It is also a fact that significant progress in this direction gave greater understanding of human behaviour, which may be hopefully studied. The major components of personality according to most psychologists are those characteristics that most directly affect a person’s adjustment to his environment — including his motives, emotions, ability and skills in getting along with others”. According to Maddi (1990) “Personality is a set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the behaviour (thoughts feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment”. The research literature reviewed on personality suggests that the work done by eminent scholars such as (Cattell, 1950; Guilford, 1959; Allport, 1961; and Eysenck, 1967) have identified personality dimensions, which are basis to differentiate from one another. The studies reviewed concerning to personality and its various dimensions which have some direct/indirect relevance with the problem of the present research have been incorporated in the subsequent pages.

Dodge (1943) conducted a study to identify the personality patterns of successful teachers using occupational personality inventory. On the basis of the ratings of supervisors the teachers were divided into two groups—more successful and less successful teachers. The result revealed that teachers who were successful found themselves to be ease in social contacts, dealing to
assume responsibility in comparison to less successful teachers who were more prone to fears and worries, more sensitive to opinions of others and slower in making decisions.

George and Stephens (1968) compared public health care nurses with those of psychiatric nurses. The responses obtained on adverse personal preference schedule were analyzed and the result revealed that the public health nurses saw themselves as predominantly, orderly, well organized, conforming and introspect. They were more willing to respect authority and persist in their work in comparison to psychiatric nurses. However, the differences on other eleven personality traits were found statistically not significant. The public health nurses showed intense need for autonomy and the psychiatric nurses gave greater emphasis on deference and aggression.

Koul (1973) conducted a study on popular and non-popular high school teachers to identify whether they differ in terms of their personality traits. The data obtained on 16 PF test revealed that the popular teachers were found to be on the average, intelligent, emotionally controlled and relaxed in comparison to non-popular teachers. The personality traits of non-popular teachers were found to show coolness, aloofness, shyness, rigidity, inflexibility and having more discipline problem in comparison to popular teachers.

Ghosh and Manerikar (1974) studied personality characteristics of three categories of managers i.e. personnel managers, bank managers and managers in general. The result showed that personnel managers were found to be cool, critical, suspicious of others motives and somewhat rigid. They also had intense subjectivity and showed high inner tension corresponding to the feeling of insecurity. The bank managers gave an impression of being serious, less emotional, socially involved, practical and confident. The
managers in general were found to be stable, calm, dominant, energetic, conscious and persistent. They also showed a balance between being trustful and suspecting. The result suggests that this group of managers is self-sufficient and resourceful as different from personnel and bank managers.

Sinha and Jain (1975) examined the relationship of certain personality dimensions such as intelligence, intolerance of ambiguity, rigidity and extroversion-introversion. The IM (Inter-modality) test comprising of wooden blocks of different shape, size, height and texture series was administered and the result yielded high correlation between IM and both verbal and performance test of intelligence. The result also showed some conclusive evidence with regard to other personality variables.

Shah and Shah (1976) reviewed job satisfaction as a function of extroversion and neuroticism among teachers from each teaching level—primary, secondary and college level using Wernimount’s Job Satisfaction Scale and MPI. Extroversion and neuroticism did not show significant relationship at any of the three levels of teaching professions. They also found no difference in job satisfaction among the three groups of teachers.

Weiner and Gechman (1977) compared personality traits of mid career changes with those of vocationally stable controlled group of employees from management and sales occupations. The career change subjects participated in a career-counseling programme and the vocationally stable controls participated in selection/promotion programme in the same counseling center. The subjects representing two groups completed Personal Preference Schedule, Gordon Personal Profile and the Gordon Personal Inventory. The discriminant analysis showed overall significant difference in the personality structure of the two group of employees. The personality traits that were found to contribute to the difference between two groups
were ascendancy, responsibility, order, dominance and endurance. The mid career changers scored low on all the five traits. It appears from the findings that the mid career change is related to personality incongruity. The result obtained support Holland’s theory of vocational choice and stability.

Sterns et al. (1983) examined the relationship between neuroticism, job preferences and job satisfaction. The result showed that neuroticism is negatively related to preference for the job, which has higher level of cognitive task, demands, pace of task demands, cognitive closure and intrinsic rewards and positively related to the preference for the jobs which has extrinsic reward. The relationships obtained were not so strong and the result also indicated that neuroticism was found unrelated to job satisfaction.

Sakai et al. (1984) administered modified versions of the 16 PF and the MMPI to the medical school students in their 1st year and again in their 5th year. There were no significant differences in the personality traits assessed on the two occasions, nor was there a significant correlation between academic performance and scores on the psychological measures. Test-retest correlation was high and scores suggested subjects’ maturation as medical students.

Nath (1987) surveyed Indian physicians on traits important for success in medical school and administered adapted/modified versions of the 16 PF, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) and the Differential Aptitudes Tests (verbal reasoning, numerical ability and abstract reasoning) to Indian medical students (aged 21-26 years). Results indicate that characteristics measured by the 16 PF and the SVIB correlated with success of the subjects.

Mohan and Bali (1988) administered the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, the Study of Values Scale and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale to 100 doctors in four categories at a medical college. Job satisfaction
in different faculty positions was related to levels of self-esteem and the extraversion personality trait.

Baehr and Orban (1989) tested the occupational group of higher management level and professional personnel. The personality measure particularly the personality factor of general cognitive ability was found low loading. On the basis of which one can predict the performance of employees working in higher level of occupation involving cognitive abilities. The result indicated that the cognitive ability factor was found much important in all the higher level of occupation. This factor was found as a strong predictor in all the higher level of occupational groups.

Taylor and Cooper (1989) reviewed research literature and tried to identify the stress prone personality with particular reference to occupational contexts. The type ‘A’ behaviour, locus of control, hardiness, extroversion, neuroticism, psychoticism, tension discharge rate and its relationship with occupational stress was explored.

Lukyanova et al. (1990) examined the dynamics of personality traits of trainees of pilot school training from a dimension to graduation. The changes in personality traits in the course of training and individual psychological features affecting the pilot training were also assessed. The personality traits, which were found as, increased level of self-control, optimism, acceptance of group norms behaviour, higher communication and striving for emotional contact.

Taylor et al. (1990) investigated the personality types most common in the mid 1980’s among family practice residents. The single most common personality type was marked by a preference to see the world in terms of challenges and future possibilities and to make decisions based on one’s own values. The sample differed significantly in Myers-Briggs personality type
from general practitioners in the 1950’s and from early family practice residents in the 1970’s who preferred to see the world in terms of the immediate facts of experience and to make decisions objectively.

Ahmad et al. (1991) studied the relationship between organizational role stress, job satisfaction and personality dimensions such as neuroticism-stability and extroversion-introversion of middle managers. The personality characteristics were measured by means of Moudsley Personality Inventory. The result revealed that the organizational role stress was significantly but negatively correlated with all factors of job satisfaction i.e. nature of job, management, personal adjustment and social relations. The neuroticism-stability dimension of personality was significantly and positively related to six dimensions of organizational role stress but the role expectation conflict showed significantly negative relation with extroversion-introversion.

Barrick and Mount (1991) conducted a study to investigate the relationship of five personality dimensions (extroversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, consciousness and openness to experience) with three job performance criteria (job proficiency, training proficiency and personnel data) for five occupational groups i.e. professionals, police, managers, sales and skilled/semiskilled. The result indicated that the consciousness was found related to all job performance criteria among all the occupational groups. The extroversion was found a strong predictor of two occupations that involved social interaction (manager and sale). The factor of openness to experience and extroversion were also found as strong predictor of training proficiency criteria across occupation.

Gellatly et al. (1991) evaluated the extent to which personality measures vocational interest and cognitive ability (verbal and numerical aptitude) can be the predictor of job performance and satisfaction of unit
managers. The validities of these predictors were evaluated against several performance criteria such as effectiveness in training and managing unit personal and against a measure of predictability. Analysis of the data suggests that the managerial effectiveness was predicted by cognitive ability, personality and vocational interest but the cognitive and non-cognitive predictors were found related to different aspects of performance.

Gough et al. (1991) administered the California psychological Inventory (CPI) and the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII) on male and female resident doctors in anesthesiology in year 1 and rated the performance 2 years later. The total sample scored highest on CPI scales for Dominance, Social Presence and Achievement via Independence and on the SCII scales for investigative, mathematical and medial science interests. Scores from a 4-scale CPI cluster of Empathy, Socialization, Achievement via Conformance and Achievement via Independence correlated 0.39 with ratings for men and 0.31 with ratings for women. In another sample of residents the cluster score correlated 0.30 with ratings gathered 3 years after testing.

Green et al. (1991) examined whether personality profiles, using personality factors, or cluster of personality factors, are associated with academic success. 129 medical students completed the 16 PF Questionnaire and were divided into 4 groups depending on their academic performance. Most (62 per cent) had no academic problems, but 16 subjects had serious difficulties, which entailed delaying qualification at least by 6 months. There was no relationship between the scores obtained for the subjects' 1st attempt at A-level and their subsequent medical school academic performance. Academic success was not associated with any of the personality factors.
Sutherland and Cooper (1991) examined the relationship between stress, personality and accident involvement of personnel working on offshore drilling rigs and production platforms. Both the type contrary prone behaviour pattern and neuroticism personality dimension were associated with increase accident involvement, poor mental health, higher level of perceived stress at work and at home in comparison to type ‘B’. The result also indicated that introverts reported more accident but it was also observed that many introverts and ambivert were also involved in accident leading to personal injury. No significant difference was found between stress level or stress manifestation among introvert and extrovert.

Zeldow and Daugherty (1991) assessed two consecutive classes of medical students on 15 personality measures throughout their 4 years. The data was obtained from 199 medical students. The subjects’ specialty choices upon graduation were classified as follows: internal medicine, surgery, family practice, pediatrics, psychiatry, obstetrics-gynaecology and hospital-based specialties. The personality profiles for surgeons were consistent with reports from the literature from the 1950’s and 1960’s while the profiles for obstetricians, psychiatrists and pediatricians were complex and provocative.

Coombs et al. (1993) retrospectively compared personality test battery results of 17 surgical and 44 non-surgical specialists trained at the same medical school. 55 standardized personality measures at two developmental periods (the outset and conclusion of medical school) revealed no pronounced differences between surgeons and others specialists. Interviews with 30 academic doctors (10 surgeons, 10 anaesthesiologists and 10 psychiatrists) explored the apparent discrepancy between personality test scores and commonly held opinions that surgeons’ personalities differ from
other doctors. Most surgeons and anesthesiologists regarded surgeons’ personalities as distinctively different. All three groups believed surgical training promoted specific traits including compulsivity, decisiveness and aggression.

Cartwright and Wink (1994) investigated personality changes in women physicians who entered medical school from 1964 to 1967 using scales from the California Psychological Inventory’s (CPI’s) Externality and Control clusters. 40 subjects from an original sample of 58 subjects were retested in their early 30’s and mid 40’s. From mid 20’s to early 30’s the subjects’ decreased scores on CPI’s Sociability and Empathy Scales indicated a greater internality. Decreases on the Responsibility and Good Impression Scales indicated greater tendencies to question duties and obligations. An increase on the Achievement-via-Conformance Scale indicated greater ability to achieve in structured situations. From early 30’s to mid 40’s decreased scores on Social Presence and Self-Acceptance evidenced a further shift toward internality. Gains in leadership potential and increases on the Responsibility, Self-Control and Good Impression scales were noted.

Upmanyu et al. (1996) examined the word association of emotional indicators such as response repetition to anxiety, psychoticticism, neuroticism, extroversion and creativity. 250 male university students completed a measure of word association and Eysenck’s Personality Questionnaire. The result showed that (i) rare but bizarre and a typical word association that were bizarre, isolated and a typical were found positively related to psychoticticism and psychopathic derivation (ii) Long reaction time and repetition of the stimulus word before responding was related to suspiciousness.
Mayes et al. (2000) examined the personality, job level, job stressors and their interaction as predictors of coping behaviour. Analysis of result revealed that the neuroticism and extroversion were found strongly related with coping behaviour. Coping variance was explained more by personality than the job stressors when combined effects of job level and job stressors were analyzed. The effect was found more pronounced in complaining and seeking social support than the personality variables. The result did not yield interaction effect among personality stressors and job level in explaining coping behaviour.

Gudjonsson et al. (2004) assessed the relationship of compliance with Eysenck's three personality dimensions: psychoticism, extraversion and neuroticism. Three groups of participants (prison inmates, college students and university students) completed the Gudjonsson Compliance Scale (GCS) and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ). As predicted, compliance correlated positively with neuroticism and negatively with extraversion in all groups, whereas for psychoticism the correlation was positive among the prison inmates, negative for college students and non-significant for university students. A quadrant analysis according to Eysenck's original two-dimensional framework (neuroticism-stability and introversion-extraversion) showed that compliance was highest among unstable introverts and lowest among stable extroverts.

Hills et al. (2004) examined the relationship between Eysenck's primary personality factors and various aspects of religious orientation and practice. 400 UK undergraduates completed questionnaires constructed from the Batson and Schoenrade Religious Life Inventory and the Eysenck Personality Profiler. It was found that all the religious variables correlated negatively with the higher order personality factor of psychoticism. In
contrast, among the primary factors, those associated with neuroticism appeared to be the strongest indicators of religiosity. In particular, all the primary traits classically linked to neuroticism correlate positively with the quest orientation. The result also showed that fewer primary traits predict religious behaviour in regression and of these, a sense of guilt is the greatest and a common predictor of extrinsic, intrinsic and quest religiousities. Upon factor analysis of the significant personality predictors together with the three religious orientations, the orientations formed a single discrete factor, which implies that extrinsic, intrinsic and quest religiousities have more in common with one another than with any of the personality traits included in the study.

The present researcher made an exhaustive survey of literature on the concept and related variables pertaining to the topic of the present study and observed that social science researchers have conducted numerous studies bearing some direct or indirect relevance with the variables of the present research work. The research review as mentioned in the preceding pages gives an indication that there is a need to conduct a study on job involvement of doctors because this group remained almost untouched by the early investigators so there is paucity of knowledge concerning to the factors affecting their job involvement. As evident from the review of literature a number of studies have been conducted on bank employees, police personnel, school/college and university teachers, and nurses but very few have been conducted on doctors. Though, research is an unending process and every researcher begins his/her research work with greater expectations but has to limit the realm of investigation because of various constraints. However, the present investigator made all possible endeavours to make this research work more scientific and relevant from various
perspectives. Inspiring from the earlier researches the present investigator realized the significance of working life to be studied in terms of job involvement in the present scenario of most competitive and materialistic life because of its relevance to the outcome of the perceptions of employees identifying with their work, nature of job, type of organization and also those conditions which an employee perceives to be conducive/hindering to the working environment. The sample selected for this study seems to be unique because the previous studies did not include samples representing doctors from government and privately managed hospitals. So conducting a study on this group of doctors is important because it is contemplated to probe whether the variables being studied have any impact on their job involvement.

In the light of the relevant literature reviewed and keeping the major objectives of present research in mind the personal efficacy, religiosity, personality characteristics, age, gender, job experience, marital status and religion have been studied as independent variables to see their differential effect on the dependent variable—job involvement of doctors working in government and private hospitals.

### 1.5 Hypotheses

When a social science researcher plans a study to see the influence of independent variables on dependent variable it requires systematic and objective investigation to arrive at conclusive answers pertaining to the variables under study. So every researcher has to formulate hypotheses because it is considered as a principle instrument and an important tool in the process of research investigation. According to Kerlinger (1983) "hypotheses are significantly important in every scientific
investigation because they are working as instrument of theory, have a prediction value and also they are powerful tools for the advancement of knowledge and making interpretation meaningful”. Michael (1985) stated, “hypothesis is a presumption which provides the basis for investigation and ensures the proper direction in which the study should proceed”.

In this research investigation the null-hypothesis is preferred because of the absence of research support so in order to interpret the obtained findings of the study non-directional hypothesis will be preferably better. Therefore, keeping in view the requirements and major objectives of this small piece of research work the present investigator formulated 29 null-hypotheses and each hypothesis is to be verified to draw meaningful conclusions.

Ho₁ High and low personal efficacy group of doctors will not differ in terms of job involvement.

Ho₂ High and low personal efficacy will have equal effect on job involvement of doctors working in government hospitals.

Ho₃ High and low personal efficacy will have equal effect on job involvement of doctors working in private hospitals.

Ho₄ High personal efficacy group of doctors working in government and private hospitals will not differ in terms of job involvement.

Ho₅ Low personal efficacy group of doctors working in government and private hospitals will not differ in terms of job involvement.

Ho₆ High and low religious group of doctors will not differ in terms of job involvement.

Ho₇ High and low religious group of doctors working in government hospitals will not differ in terms of job involvement.
$H_0_8$ High and low religious group of doctors working in private hospitals will not differ in terms of job involvement.

$H_0_9$ High religious group of doctors working in government and private hospitals will not differ in terms of job involvement.

$H_0_{10}$ Low religious group of doctors working in government and private hospitals will not differ in terms of job involvement.

$H_0_{11}$ Doctors working in government and private hospitals will not differ in terms of job involvement.

$H_0_{12}$ Doctors working in government and private hospitals will not differ in terms of personal efficacy.

$H_0_{13}$ Doctors working in government and private hospitals will not differ in terms of religiosity.

$H_0_{14}$ High and low age group of doctors will not differ in terms of job involvement.

$H_0_{15}$ Gender will not affect job involvement of doctors.

$H_0_{16}$ Job experience will not be a significant determiner of job involvement.

$H_0_{17}$ Marital status will not affect job involvement of doctors.

$H_0_{18}$ Marital status will not affect job involvement of doctors working in government hospitals.

$H_0_{19}$ Marital status will not affect job involvement of doctors working in private hospitals.

$H_0_{20}$ Hindu and Muslim doctors will not differ in terms of job involvement.

$H_0_{21}$ Muslim male and female doctors will not differ in terms of job involvement.

$H_0_{22}$ Hindu male and female doctors will not differ in terms of job involvement.
Ho23  The high efficacy high experience group of doctors will not differ from low efficacy low experience group of doctors.

Ho24  Personal efficacy, religiosity and personality characteristics will not emerge as predictors of job involvement of doctors.

Ho25  Personal efficacy, religiosity and personality characteristics will not emerge as predictors of job involvement of doctors working in government hospitals.

Ho26  Personal efficacy, religiosity and personality characteristics will not emerge as predictors of job involvement of doctors working in private hospitals.

Ho27  The various dimensions of personality characteristics will not emerge as predictors of job involvement of doctors.

Ho28  The various dimensions of personality characteristics will not emerge as predictors of job involvement of doctors working in government hospitals.

Ho29  The various dimensions of personality characteristics will not emerge as predictors of job involvement of doctors working in private hospitals.