Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW
Chapter-II

**Literature Review**

The very purpose of this chapter is to review the available research studies produced in the past bearing on the theme of the present piece of research work specifically in order to identify the void of knowledge. For this purpose research studies have been surveyed from different journals, magazines, abstracts, books, and newspapers.

Since the purpose of the present research endeavor was to study work commitment as a function of HRD activities, organizational culture, and occupational stress, hence, the variables involved are required to be reviewed and the context in which these variables have been studied. The survey of literature therefore is the only means to highlight the importance and relevance of the study in question. As the endeavor of the present investigation was to explore the effective role of HRD activities, organizational culture, and occupational stress on Work Commitment, hence it is imperative to review first the available literature relevant to work commitment, which follows:

**Work Commitment Related Studies:**

Work commitment has always been important but in the present scenario of hi-tech world, it has become of much concern of management and employers. Because of such reason, the last two decades have witnessed increasing importance over work commitment aspect, hence, a large number of studies were conducted, and work commitment is one of the work related phenomena, which has its positive impact on organizational productivity and effectiveness at large. The available studies are follows: the dependent variable of the present research study is organizational commitment so on- going description of survey of literature it is important to mention studies related to work commitment.

made an effort to examine sex differences in organizational commitment and job involvement along with issues pertaining to role conflicts, treatment on the job, and involvement in professional activities. Significance differences were found between men and women on the level of organizational commitment, their perception on the job treatment and the extent of their role conflicts. However, no significant differences were observed between men and women on job involvement on professional activity scales.

Fukami & Larison (1984) tested parallel models of commitment to company and commitment to union on a sample of transportation department employees of a unionized metropolitan newspaper. The result revealed that an organizational commitment model is successful in predicting union commitment than company commitment. The most striking divergence occurred with respect to personal characteristics, which were significantly correlated with company commitment and were unrelated to union commitment. On the other hand, the work experience variables related to supervisory relations and social involvement were significantly correlated with both union and company commitment.

Williams & Hazer (1986) tested the stability and dimensionality of union commitment on the samples of black and white blue-collar workers. The results revealed no significant differences among black and white blue-collar sample in the dimensionality of union commitment. The finding clearly shows that in the present scenario of world of work racial differences are no more important in ringing about any change in the employees work related behavior but what is important is that of employees’ acculturation and socialization developing among them. Work values, will to work, and importance of work in social life is most likely instrumental in inducing commitment.

Bhattacharya & Verma (1986) studied executives of BCCL, Dhanbad. Obtained findings revealed that organizational commitment, need satisfaction, and managerial respect were significantly and positively related with job satisfaction both either independent or in conjunction thereof.
In one of the significant study Allen & Meyer (1990) conducted a study of non-unionized employees and tested the aspect of a three component (affective-continuance-normative) model of organizational commitment that integrates various conceptualizations (affective attachment, perceived cost, and obligation). The result revealed that the affective and continuance components of organizational commitment are empirically distinguishable constructs with different correlates. The affective and normative components, although distinguishable, appear to be some what related.

Johnston et al. (1990) investigated how changes in key antecedents (leadership behavior, role stress, and job satisfaction) influenced the development of commitment and how changes in commitment affected turnover intentions and behavior. Results obtained from 102 sales-people suggest that role ambiguity and job satisfaction (but not leadership behavior) is significant contributors to the development of organizational commitment during early employment. Moreover, organizational commitment influences turnover through its significant impact on propensity to leave. Randall et al. (1990) advocated that organizational commitment was typically expressed through behaviors that indicate concern for quality, a sacrifice orientation, a willingness to share knowledge and presence in the workplace.

Luthans et al. (1992) examined the relationship between the social supportiveness climate and organizational commitment among bank employees. Both qualitative and quantitative analysis indicated that significantly influence work related behavior especially, employee’s commitment with work.

Allen & Meyer (1993) examined affective, continuance and normative commitment as a function of age, service tenure, and positional tenure. Study was conducted on library employees and hospital employees and they were more closely related to increase in organizational commitment and positional tenure. Further relationship between work experiences and affective commitment was witnessed to be differed only slightly across tenure levels and not at all across employee’s age groups.
Vandenberg & Scarpello (1994) examined the hypotheses that occupational commitment is a casual antecedent to organizational commitment and the results supported the proposed hypotheses.


Zeffane (1994) surveyed 474 public and 944 private sector employees in Australia to examine the organizational commitment and perceived management style. Attachment to organization, flexibility and adoption, work discontinuity/change, tenure and number of employees were also assessed. Findings revealed that private sector employees had higher organizational commitment and scored high on flexibility, adaptation, and on workgroup discontinuity/change than public sector employees. Tenure and supervision also had some effect on organizational commitment, but more so in terms of feelings of attachment to the organization (for tenure) and in terms of feelings of attachment to the loyalty/citizenship (for supervision). Variation in perceived management style was found to have a significant effect on employees’ commitment, but more so in terms of the degree of emphasis on flexibility and adoption that employees perceived. Organizational size shows moderate negative effect on organizational commitment, especially in the private sector.

Ben-bakr et al. (1994) studied the predictive strength of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, value commitment and continuance commitment with respect to turnover. The findings revealed that each of these variables predicted turnover significantly. On comparing with each other organizational commitment correlated significantly with turnover more than job satisfaction whereas, value commitment and continuance commitment were not as strong in their prediction as expected.
Christopher (1994) examined the perceived political climate, organized commitment, and the job satisfaction of 119 employees of a financial services firm. Their status or level in the firm was rated by the firm’s personal manager. The results indicated that employee’s level or status moderated the relationship among political climate, commitment and satisfaction.

Somer (1995) examined the relationship between affective, continuance and normative commitments and employees’ retention and absenteeism. The analysis of the data revealed that affective commitment emerged as a sole predictor of turnover and absenteeism, whereas, affective commitment in conjunctions with normative commitment was found positively related to intention to remain. Normative commitment in its individual effect was only related to withdrawal intentions. Continuance commitment interacted with affective commitment in predicting absences and intention to remain.

Becker et al. (1995) examined the relative ability of the multidimensional view of commitment and the theory of reasoned action to explain employee intentions and to predict their work behavior. Results revealed that variables in the theory of reasoned action were superior to commitment variables in explaining employees’ intentions to be punctual and to engage in altruistic acts. However, the theory of reasoned action did not explain unique variance in their volitional behavior (altruism) or in less volitional behavior (tardiness). In the same years Brett et al. (1995) examined the role of employees’ financial requirements as a moderator of the relationships between their organizational commitment and performance of those with low financial requirements than for those with high requirement. Shore et al. (1995) on the basis of their organizational citizenship behavior positively predicted manager-rated affective commitment, whereas, continuance commitment was found negatively related to a variety of outcomes including managerial potential and promo ability.

Randell & O’Driscoll (1997) found high level calculative commitment associated with lower perceived organizational support, lower agreement with organizational policies, fewer perceived organizational values, and fewer bonds
to various facets of the organization. This pattern of findings was reversed for affective commitment.

Meyer et.al. (1998) tested the hypotheses that the influence of early work experiences on commitment would be moderated by the value employee's place on these experiences. Work values were measured in two samples of recent University graduates prior to organizational entry, and measures of commensurate work experiences and three forms of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) on different occasions following entry. The findings provide some challenge to the common-sense assumption that positive work experience will have the strongest effect on commitment among those who value most such experiences.

Hutchinson et al. (1998) investigated the effects of leader behavior and leader gender on employee's perception of support from the organization and employee's commitment with the organization. Results highlighted that high interpersonal orientation and high task orientation had the most positive effect on employee's attitudes. However, the higher interpersonal orientation and higher task orientation were not equally effective for both female and male leaders. Employees perceived more support from the organization when their supervisors, either female or male used a high consideration, high initiating structure style than when they used a low consideration-low initiating structure style. It is also reported that only those employees who worked for male supervisors, who were high in consideration and high in initiating style were more committed to the organization.

Sagia (1998) studied commitment as a function of absenteeism. He tested the hypotheses that voluntary as opposed to involuntary absenteeism can be predicted by commitment, job satisfaction, and their interactive effects, secondly, that intention to quit was expected to predict voluntary absenteeism as well. Result supported to the first hypotheses, whereas, the intention to quit was not significantly related to either type of absence.

Cohen (1998) examined the relationship between work commitment forms (e.g. commitment, job involvement, occupational commitment, work
involvement, and protestant work ethic) and work outcomes (e.g. withdrawal intentions from the organization, job and occupation, absenteeism, perceived performance, job-induced tension) among 238 hospital nurses. The findings showed the usefulness of work commitment in predicting work outcomes in the nursing profession. This support was based on the mutual effect of more than one commitment on organization and job withdrawal intentions and on organizations and job induced tensions. The findings also emphasized the importance of occupational commitment as a predictor of work outcomes of nurses. Moreover, no relationship was found between job involvement and withdrawal intentions.

Tyosvold et al. (1998) conducted an important study on Chinese and Japanese employees of a Japanese multinational organization operating in Hong Kong found that cooperative goals contributed to open discussion between employees, which resulted in productive work and stronger work relationships, which in turn led employees to feel committed.

Harrison & Hubbard (1998) conducted a study to examine the commitment levels among Mexican employees in the U.S firm along with potential antecedents to their commitment, job characteristics, organizational characteristics, and work experiences. Result indicates that job satisfaction, participative decision-making, and age were predictive of commitment. Leader behavior and tenure was found to be significantly correlated with commitment, where as perceived organizational effectiveness tends to be correlated with commitment.

Patel (1998) studied the relationship between perceived organizational health and commitment among 100 employees taken from a private sector manufacturing organization. Findings of the study showed significant positive correlation between over-all organizational health and organizational commitment. Skilled staffs perceived more favorably the over-all health of their organization and were also more committed to the organization than to their counterpart workers. Further, in case of skilled staff, high organizational health
perceivers were found to have better perceived organizational commitment than low organizational health perceivers.

Venkatachalam (1998) reported that several empirical studies revealed that there is a strong relationship between the demographic variables (age, sex, pay, job tenure) and organizational commitment whereas, education showed negative relationship with organizational commitment. The research also showed that the work values, rewards, motivation, culture, organizational climate, etc., are the principle determinants of organizational commitment. Further there are research evidences that the turnover, absenteeism, job satisfaction, job involvement, job tension, job role, autonomy, personality factors, workers characteristics, and role conflict are certain outcomes of organizational commitment.

Abdulla & Shaw (1999) investigated the role of personal characteristics (nationality, gender, marital status, education, age, salary, tenure) in organizational commitment. The results revealed that significant relationship exists between personal characteristics and commitment. Gender, marital status, and branch assignment were the strongest predictors of continuance commitment. Marital status, age, and tenure were the strongest predictors of effective commitment. Nationality interacts significantly with personal characteristics in predicting continuance and affective commitment.

Yousef (2000) investigates the potential mediating role of organizational commitment in the relationships of leadership behavior with the work outcomes of job satisfactions and job performance in a non-western country where multiculturalism is a dominant feature of the work-force. It also explores the moderating effects of national culture on the relationships of leadership behavior with organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance in such a setting. Result suggest that those who perceive their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership behavior are more committed their organizations, more satisfied with their performance is high. The result also indicates that national culture moderates the relationship of leadership behavior with job satisfaction. The result support western research studies. Further,
Yousef (2000) also investigates that affective commitment mediates the influence of satisfaction with working conditions, pay, supervision and security on both affective and behavioral tendency attitudes toward change. Continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives) mediates the influences of satisfaction with pay on cognitive attitudes toward change. Satisfaction with various facets of the job directly and positively influences different dimensions of organizational commitment.

Bishop, Scott & Burroughs (2000) investigated that job performance was related to team commitment; intention to quit was related to organizational commitment; and citizenship behavior was related to both team and organizational commitment. Commitment mediated the relationships between support and the outcome variables.

Lok & Crawford (2001) studied the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational culture and sub-culture, and job satisfaction and commitment. The results suggest that managers may need to focus more on organizational sub-cultures in generating greater commitment among employees. Payne & Morrison (2002) reports an empirical study of the self-reported psychological strain, ill-health, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of public sector employees and the results show that negative affectivity has a variety of effects on both health and job attitude variables.

Yoon & Thye (2002) proposed and tested a new dual-process model of organizational commitment that connects organizational practices and specific job characteristics to the emotions and cognitions of employees. The results provided strong support for the model. The main findings were that feelings of job satisfaction and perceptions of organizational support operate through independent channels to mediate the impact of work experiences on organizational commitment.

Hochwarter (2003) examined the impact of political behavior and perceptions of politics on job satisfaction and affective commitment. It is hypothesized that political behavior and perceived greater use of these tactics would be more satisfied and committed when work environment was viewed as
political in nature. In general results perceived politics interaction term explained incremental variance beyond demographic variables, control variables, and indicators of perceived control and understanding for each outcome. These findings indicate that some individuals may experience positive consequences when occupying an environment perceived to be highly political.

Rhodes, Eisenberger & Armeli (2001) examined the interrelationships among work experienced perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and turnover. Using a diverse sample of 367 employees drawn from a variety of organizations, study 1 found that perceived organizational support mediated positive associations of organizational rewards, procedural justice, and supervisor support with affective commitment. Study 2 examined changes of perceived organizational support and affective commitment in retail employees over a 2-year span (N=333) and a 3-year span (N=226). Perceived organizational support was positively related to temporal changes in affective commitment, suggesting that perceived organizational support leads to affective commitment whereas study 3 found a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and subsequent voluntary employee turnover that was mediated by affective commitment in retail employees (N=1124) and in poultry and feed-processing workers (N=262). These results suggest that favorable work conditions operate via perceived organizational support to increase affective commitment, which, in turn, decreases employee withdrawal behavior.

Rhodes & Eisenberger (2002) reviewed more than 70 studies concerning employees' general belief that their work organization values their contribution and cares about their well being (perceived organizational support). A Meta analysis indicated that 3 major categories of beneficial treatment received by employees (i.e., fairness, supervisor support, and organizational rewards and favorable job conditions) were associated with perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support, in turn, was related to outcomes favorable to employees (e.g., job satisfaction, positive mood) and the organization (e.g., affective commitment, performance and lessened withdrawal). These relationships depended on processes assumed by organizational support theory:
employees’ belief that the organization’s actions were discretionary, feeling of obligation to aid the organization, fulfillment of socio-emotional needs, and performance-reward expectancies.

Sjoberg & 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 of the interactive effect of job involvement and organizational commitment an employee withdraws and the study suggests that the proposed involvement/commitment interaction is theoretically justified, and underscores the pertinence of investigating intermediate linkages in turnover research.

Patel (1999) investigated the impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment of nationalized and co-operative bank employees in India. Results show that younger subjects (aged < 35yrs) of both nationalized and co-operative banks exhibited less jobs involvement and organizational commitment than did middle aged (aged 35-45yrs) and older subjects (aged > 45yrs). The only significant difference between employees of these two kinds of banks were that middle-aged nationalized bank employees showed more commitment than did middle aged employees of co-operative banks.

Alnajjar (2000) analyzed some psycho-social factors which influence the commitment of employees. The results showed no relationship between age and years of service on the one hand, and job commitment on the other; however, salary and educational level appeared to be significantly related with all organizational commitment sub-scales except the discipline sub-scale. Those who were more satisfied in the jobs seemed to be more committed, and females demonstrated more concern about their jobs than did male employees who used discipline as a way of expressing their commitment to their organizations. Employees working in firms which were managed by nationals were found to have higher commitment in the dimensions of discipline and concern. Moreover, married employees were more disciplined than were single ones. This study might provide some insights into the theoretical constructs predicting the
organizational commitment of employees which have yet to be shown to have cross cultural validity.

Hackett, Lapierre & Hausdorf (2001) investigated the conceptual distinctiveness and causal links between organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job involvement, work involvement, and intentions to withdraw from the organization and form the occupation. Results suggest that work involvement affects both organizational commitment and occupational commitment indirectly though its effect of job involvement. Furthermore, job involvement affects intention to leave the organization indirectly though its effect on occupational commitment. Analysis also suggested that organizational commitment and occupational commitment have indirect effects on both forms of withdrawal intention.

Meyer et al. (2002) conducted meta-analysis to assess: (1) relation among affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization and (2) relation between these 3 forms of commitment and variables identified as their antecedents, correlates and consequences in Meyer & Allen’s (1991) three-component model. Results show that the 3 forms of commitment are related yet distinguishable from one another as well as form job satisfaction, job involvement, and occupational commitment. Affective and continuance commitment generally correlated as expected with the hypothesized antecedents variables. As predicted, all 3 forms of commitment related negatively to withdrawal cognition and turnover, and affective commitment had the strongest and most favorable correlations with organization-relevant (attendance, performance, and organizational citizenship behavior) and employee-relevant (stress and work-family conflict) outcomes. Comparisons of studies conducted within and outside North America revealed considerable similarity yet suggested that more systematic primary research concerning cultural differences is warranted.

Cannon (1998) analyzes the concept of organizational commitment as related to personal interferences that conflict with work in a sample of 300 hotel employees. The implications of this research are numerous as hospitality
organization analyzes ways to minimize work conflicts and maximize employee
organizational commitment.

Vashistha & Mishra (1999) examined the relationship between social
support and organizational commitment supervisors. Results show significant
positive correlations between (1) affective commitment and overall
organizational commitment with social support; (2) appraisal support and
organizational commitment; (3) belonging support and organizational
commitment; and (4) tangible support and organizational commitment. Results
confirm that social support has a positive and significant relationship on the
organizational commitment of supervisors.

Finegan (2000) explored the relationship between personal values,
organizational values, and organizational commitment. The result found that
commitment was predicted by the employee’s perception of organizational
values. Furthermore; affective normative and continuance commitment were
each predicted by different clusters of values. It is suggested that this study
highlights the importance of recognizing that values are multidimensional and
that each value cluster may affect behavior differently.

Lee, Carswell & Allen (2000) examined relations between occupational
commitment and several person and work-related variables. Major findings are
as follows: first, occupational commitment was positively related to job focused
constructs such as job involvement and satisfaction, suggesting that attitudes
towards the job itself may be a central concern in committing to one’s
occupation. Second, consistent with previous work, occupational commitment
and organizational commitment were positively related. The relation was found
to be moderated by the compatibility of the profession and the employing
organization. Third, occupational commitment was positively related to job
performance and had an indirect effect on organizational turnover intention
through occupational turnover intention. This latter effect suggest that
understand of organizational turnover can be enhanced by incorporating
occupation related variables in to turnover models.
Gunde, & Havalappanavas, (2001) examined the relationship between personal values and organizational commitment of bank managers. 350 managerial level personnel from a variety of banks completed the personal values questionnaire concerning religious, social, democratic, aesthetic, economic, knowledge, hedonistic, power, family prestige and health value; and the organizational commitment questionnaire concerning organizational identification, involvement, and loyalty. Results show significant relationships between organizational commitment and social, democratic and aesthetic values. In contrast managers reporting high levels of hedonistic, power, and religious values showed the least organizational commitment.

Cho & Lee (2001) examined public and private managers perceptual and attitudinal differences associated with organizational commitment in South Korea. The questionnaire assessed perceived role ambiguity, authority centralization, and prestige of employing organization, job satisfaction, reward inequity, and personal investment variables (age, tenure, educational attainment). Korean public managers scored higher on perceived job prestige and perceived centralization than did their counterparts in the private sector. There were no significant differences in the dimensions of commitment to stay, job satisfaction, and perceived inequity between the two sectors. It is concluded that one of the powerful antecedents of organizational commitment in the Korean public sector is job prestige perceived by public managers.

Gaulet & Frank (2002) examines organizational commitment of workers in 3 sectors: public, non-profit and for-profit. Previous work in this area has been limited to the study of organizational commitment in 1 sector, or a comparison between only 2 sectors. In order to examine organizational commitment across the 3 sectors, 228 employees in public sector, non-profit sector, and for-profit sector organizations were surveyed. The results indicate that for-profit workers were the most committed to the organization, followed by non-profit employees. Workers with the lowest levels of organizational commitment were those in the public sector.
Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe (2003) examines the job attitudes of people who hold more than one job satisfaction, stress and organizational (continuance and affective) commitment were assessed for both primary and secondary jobs for 83 full-time workers who held two jobs concurrently. He found that holders of multiple jobs had higher satisfaction, higher stress, and higher affective organizational commitment with their primary jobs compared to their secondary jobs.

Alam, Garg & Shah (2004) conducted a study on Indian bank employees to study the impact of various dimensions of occupational stress on organizational commitment. Results revealed that out of twelve dimensions of occupational stress only three dimensions viz., poor peer relation, powerlessness and strenuous working conditions emerged as a predictor of organizational commitment.

Dvir, Kass, & Shamir (2004) explores that vision formulation, content of social-oriented values, and assimilation were positively related to affective commitment to the organization, and unrelated to continuance commitment. Francesco & Chen (2004) explores the role of collectivism as a moderator of a relationship between organizational commitment (OC) and employee performance in Chinese setting. The relationship between OC and both in-role and extra-role performance were thought to be because of feelings of obligation to the organization that may have been aroused in collectivists who considered the organization as an in-group.

Siegal et al. (2005) examined the utility of a procedurally based approach to understanding employees’ reactions to work-life conflict. They examined whether the fairness of procedures used by organizational authorities to plan and implement decision moderates the (inverse) relationship between work-life conflict and employees’ organizational commitment. Three studies using different methodologies showed support for the moderating role played by procedural fairness. That is, the tendency for greater work-life conflict to lead to lower commitment was significantly less pronounced when procedural fairness was high rather than low.
Carmeli & Gafen (2005) explore how work commitment forms affect one another and how together they serve to influence work behavior and outcomes. They tested the relationship between two work commitment models and two forms of employee withdrawal intentions: from their organization and from their occupation. This research contributes to work commitment literature by providing empirical findings and theoretical interpretations regarding the role of a particular professional setting in explaining the interrelationships among models of work commitment, and how some constellations of different work commitment foci explain multiple withdrawal intentions.

Wasti (2005) suggests that affective commitment is the primary driver of positive outcomes, especially when combined with low levels of continuance commitment. Heinzman (2005) suggests that tenure and job satisfaction are critical success factors in developing a new work force. Tenure and job satisfaction affect both the retention of members of Generation X and the sustained retention of the aging workforce.

Fedor, Caldwell & Herold (2006) investigated how organizational changes in 32 different organizations (public and private) affected individuals’ commitment to the specific change and their broader commitment to the organization. The results indicate that both types of commitment may be best understood in terms of a 3-way interaction between the overall favorableness (positive/negative) of the change for the work unit members, the extent of the change in the work unit, and the impact of the change process was found to interact with the effects of work unit change on organizational commitment.

Cunningham (2006) investigates that (a) the relationship between affective commitment to change and turnover intentions was fully mediated by coping with change, (b) the relationship between continuance commitment to change and turnover intentions was only partially mediated by coping with change, and (c) normative commitment to change had a direct impact on turnover intentions. Results are discussed in terms of implications for managing organizational change. The purpose of this study is to integrate and expand this
research by examining the relationship among commitment to change, coping with change, and turnover intentions.

Having given comprehensive details of survey of literature pertaining to work commitment (a dependent variable in this larger research endeavor), now it is warranted to highlighting the literature pertaining to independent variables (HRD activities, organizational culture, and occupational stress) which are also inevitably important.

**HRD Related Studies:**

Before discussing the available studies on HRD-activities it is important to mention here that HRD activities in an organization has a wider scope and so far as HRD activities are concerned it is to say that all activities harnessing and accelerating human working capabilities and capacities are being undertaken to enhance organizational effectiveness may be conveniently covered under HRD-activities. Therefore, HRD activities related literature will reflect such aspects.

The literature on HRD activities follows:

Koys (1988) tested the hypotheses that whether 37 selected human resource management activities were perceived by 88 full-time professional employees as motivated by a desire to treat employees fairly; attract/retain employees; motive performance; or comply with the low of particular interest was a positive association between perceived motivation and employees’ organizational commitment. Result support the hypotheses that an employees’ organizational commitment is positively associated with the perception that human resource management activities are performed to enhance and maintain justice and fairness. The perception that human resource management activities are performed to attract/retain individual was positively related to employee’s organizational commitment.

Glaser & Eynde (1989) suggested four strategies on organization can adopt to move toward a participative management style; the "top down" approach (a role modeling approach); the "internal" approach in which the starting point to participative management begins with a middle manager; the "joint labor management" approach; and the "bottom up" approach, involving
formation of work structures and problem-solving processes that give employees the means to communicate recommendations for organizational improvements.

Singh (1989) designed a study to identify the variables that affect managerial success. Criteria for managerial success were number of promotions, career progress, and length of service. Results revealed that successful managers tend to be intelligent, reserved, placid, radical, relaxed, power oriented, younger, and better educated. Seven factors associated with managerial success emerged — emotional stability, intrinsic values, anxiety, introversion Vs achievement, and conservation Vs radicalism.

Singh (1989) argues that top management should examine the managerial culture of the group and the organization before introducing change through human resource development (HRD) interventions.

Kumara & Koichi (1989) tested the hypotheses that supportive supervision and co-worker's social support positively affects the employee's satisfaction with the work climate. Responses of 126 employees were analyzed that support the hypotheses. Also a significant interaction effect between supportive supervision and job awareness was obtained. This interaction suggests that supportive supervision was very important in increasing job satisfaction when workers had low level of job awareness.

Snell (1992) in his study examined the relationship between strategic context, (viewed in terms of product market variation, work flow integration and firm size) and executive use of human resource management system including input behavior and out put controls. The results revealed that positive relationship exists between product market variation and the use of behavior control, mediated by the presence of manager's knowledge of cause- effect relations and the crystallization of standards of desirable performance. However, negative relationship was found between workflow and integration, and behavior and output, mediated by crystallization of performance standards, and a positive relationship between firm size and input control that were independent of administrative information.
Mohan (1993) examined the effect of intensive human resource development training on the leadership style and effectiveness by administrating a questionnaire both prior and after training. Results revealed the significant difference between prior and after mean scores. Further the highest scores were obtained in the participative style and the least on the delegating style. The most pronounced change was observed in the leadership effectiveness.

Guest (1994) in his theoretical paper focused on the development and application of the concept of human resource management an important source of growth for occupational psychology. The author viewed that the growth of human resource management can be attributed to the growth of competition in the market place, dissatisfaction with traditional personal management and the advance made by occupational psychology and organizational behavior in knowledge, theory and applied techniques. The four elements of human resource management model have been presented, viz., policies and practices, human resources goals, positive organizational outcomes, and a supportive organizational leadership and culture.

Hall & Hall (1995) presented a decision model that offers a systematic way to evaluate a firm’s growth strategy in the light of human resource implications. The assessment was organized as a series of questions and includes an evaluation of employee’s knowledge, skills and abilities coupled with their motivation. They suggested that growth expectations that are not matched to the industry and to competitive conditions should be adjusted for enhancing motivation.

Shikdar & Das (1995) suggested that under appropriate working conditions, challenge and incentive may be advantageously applied to improve work performance in industry.

Gain & Rainayee (1996) examine empirically the policy and practice of HRD in the organization and to explore the attitudes and approaches of managerial personnel and workers towards the existing practices of HRD. The results emerged from the study showed that HRD practices in the organization are ineffective and adversely affected productivity, morale, job knowledge, and
potential development of employees. The top management was found having damp attitude in developing its human resources.

D’Arcimoles (1997) conducted an empirical longitudinal study on 61 large French companies during the period of 1982-1989. Significant correlation was found between profitability or productivity ratios and human resource management indicators. Two major conclusions obtained were:- training expenses may have some important effects on immediate and future economic performance; and some recovery effects of dismissals can also be identified.

Chung (1998) discusses some current trends towards increasing human resource management practices (benefits and services) that effect employee’s non-work lives. Some of the historical contexts of organizational that have influenced employee’s off-the-job lives have been highlighted. The article exposes why employee involvement in employee’s non-work lives has become an important issue, and discusses employer influence through human resource management practices on employee non-work lives, particularly in the hospitality industry.

Wognum (1998) surveyed HRD representatives of companies in 3 economic sectors to examine the HRD policy-making processes in these companies. Variables included in HRD policy making process are strategic choices about the specific field content of HRD programs and participating employees, starting points for HRD processes, and characteristics of the company and the HRD department. Significant differences in the HRD policy-making process and resulting strategic choice were found between groups and companies. The author argued that findings stress the importance of further investigation of effective and specific types of HRD policy-making processes within companies. This is important in order to align HRD programmes to the company’s situation and thus, provide employees with right competencies at the right time to enhance their own performance, the departmental performance and that of company at large.

Cawley et al. (1998) investigated that overall participation in appraisal was most strongly related to satisfaction while, Biswas (1998) investigated the
effect of several contextual factors on training effort. 131 managerial level employees from 50 different organization were investigated personally through questionnaire administration that measured their involvement in training decisions, the credibility and intention of the source recommending the training, job and career utility, job involvement, organizational commitment, and the effort they put in during the training programme. Result indicated that career utility of the programme and organizational commitment have significantly predicted training efforts; decision involvement that resulted in higher perception of career utility; decision maker credibility affected job utility; and training transfer climate affected job utility.

Pardhan & Mishra (1999) examined experiences of organizational role stress (ORS) perceptions of the human resource development (HRD) climate among 120 younger (25-45yr old) Vs 120 older (45-65 yr old) executives from public Vs private sector organizations. Results revealed that with regard to perceptions of HRD climate, there were significant differences among younger and older executives. However, no differences were found among private and public sector organization.

Randall et al. (1999) explored a study to investigate the relationship between organizational policies and organizational support to various work attitudes and behavior (job satisfaction and performance, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions). Result indicates that organizational commitment, turnover intentions and supervisor rating of organizational citizenship behavior. However, only support was related to performance.

Mishra et al. (1999) conducted a study to test the hypotheses that job satisfaction is a correlate of HRD climate irrespective of the type of industry. Sample was drawn from a manufacturing (pharmaceutical) and a service (banking) industry, each with 100 respondents. The findings of the study support the hypotheses and also suggested that HRD climate contribute to the overall organizational climate by facilitating individual as well as organizational development.
Sethumadhavan & Kandula (1999) conceptualizes that (I) Training is the most important strategic tool to facilitate the government departments to anticipate and manage the changes, (II) Traditional training system (TTS) is an inadequate strategy to supplement the endeavor of government departments in managing change, and (III) need to substitute TTS with strategic training system (STS) as the later is a powerful paradigm for managing change and achieving excellence in government departments.

Heijltjes (2000) explores in 2 steps the relationship between the design of human resource management policies and the use of advanced manufacturing technologies. First, the relationship between advanced manufacturing technologies and changes in the production environment is examined. Second, changes in the production environment are related to the design of HRM policies, for one, data from 10 Dutch & 8 British Companies in the chemical, food and drink industries indicate that the use of advanced manufacturing technologies significantly alter the production environment in terms of product, production and process flexibility. The strength of the impact, however, differences between large batch and mass production on the one hand and continuous process production on the other hand, is dependent on the type (s) of automation methods of manufacturing types is developed to relate these changes to the design of HRM policies.

In 2003 again Heijltjes makes an attempt to gain further insight into the environment-strategy performance linkages. A frame work is developed to relate managers’ perception of their performance marker environment and competitive strategies to the (advanced) adopted by their firms. Data from 12 Dutch and 8 British Companies in the chemical, food and drink industries reveals that firms with coherent environment-strategy-technology-HRM configurations outperform rivals with incoherent profiles. Further, refined typologies of manufacturing technologies and HRM policies are proposed.

Huang (2001) attempts a study to examine the interactive effects of various combinations of business and human resource management strategies from the stand point of contingency theory. Contingency theory holds that HRM
methods are selected in accordance with the type of competitive strategies adopted by a business. It moreover assumes that companies that closely coordinate their business strategy and HRM activities achieve better performance than companies that do not. The conclusion is based on analysis of questionnaires completed by 315 local firms in Taiwan. The results show that different business and HRM strategy combinations have different effects on organizational performance. However these differences were not always consistent with the predictions of contingency theory.

Sambrook (2001) wrote an article which is based on research conducted in the British National Health Service. This article describes how HRD is “becoming”, one way of theorizing this evaluation is to look for distinct periods in which training and development and HRD are talked about and predicted in different ways, and then to explore how is the change is were negotiated. A contingency frame work is presented as an analytical tool. It is suggested that the evolution to date has three distinct stages accompanied by three discourses: tell, sell and gel. The frame work helps analyze both the current state of HRD and how future roles and practice might evolve.

About the future of the HRM and the role of HR manager Lipiec & Jacek (2001) presented a paper. The paper presents the result of nine large reports that have been undertaken around the world. The market, demographic, social and management changes taking place are addressed. Taking into the account these trends, a precise role of HR manager in the future is outlined.

Monks et al. (2001) indicates that International Human Resource Management (IHRM) is becoming increasingly important growing number of Irish international companies, which, while large in national terns are medium sized when compared with other European and North American multinational firms. Research was undertaken in 11 Irish companies. Three areas of IHRM practice were explored in the research: international staffing, which encompassed the management of expatriates; management development; and remuneration. The findings of the research suggests that the development of comprehensive IHRM policies and practices may enable smaller firms to be
more proactive in their approach to internationalization and to have a greater choice over the types of markets and countries they enter.

A modular approach to Human Resources Information Systems (HRIS) is addressed by Bhattacharyya (2002), including product content and features including products on recruitment management, training and development, and attendance. An example of one company’s HRIS implementation experience is discussed. Conclusions from this experience suggest in-house HRIS development.

Khatri & Budhwar (2002) examines 5 strategies human resource management issues using a qualitative methodology. Two of these are related to the central organizational-level constructs of structure and culture. The other three pertain to human resource strategy, human resource competency and human resource outsourcing. The study employed a multiple-case design method, with a view to understanding theory in strategic HR management research. Semi-structured interviews were conducted and results indicate that top management enlightenment and level of HR competencies together determine the role and status of HR function in organizations, and that the companies studied pursue 4 types HR strategies: Informal and not communicated, Formal but not communicated, Formal and communicated.

Expatriates are critical to the navigation of an increasingly complex international business world and, as such, the demand for their skills, knowledge and experience, as well as their supply, needs to be better understood. Further more, the role of human resource policies is of key concern in ensuring the right people are chosen to represent companies in overseas locations, as is the provision of pertinent support policies, such as preparation for overseas assignment and cross cultural training. For this purpose Clegg & Gray (2002) conducted a research to examine these issues with the focus on Australian expatriates in Thailand. Questionnaire survey was conducted of members of the Australian-Thai Business Council in Thailand, an association representing Australian expatriates, in 1999. The findings provide some insights for expatriates’ management policy, including the notable conclusions that the
market for expatriates is changing and becoming more demanding and that the
imperatives of the emerging global market for human capital require a much
more structured approach to expatriate management development.

Teo & Waters (2002) examined that HR practices may be effective as part
of a symptom-directed approach to stress intervention and that further replication
of these results in both Asian and Western samples is required.

Chapman & Webster (2003) presented the results of a survey which
examined technology use in recruiting and selection in order to determine (a)
What technologies are being used in human resources (HR), (b) HR managers’
goals for using these technologies, (c) The extent to which these goals are being
met and (d) What organizational factors (e.g., organizational image) lead to
adopting these technologies. We conclude that use of HR technologies are in a
state of flux with most organizational continuing to use a mix of traditional and
technology based HR methods. Further more, technology-based solutions are not
necessarily a panacea for HR managers: nearly a third reported that their
attempts to use HR technology have resulted in limited or moderate success.

The findings of Gardener, Lepak & Bartol (2003) suggests that
information technology enables HR professionals to more efficiently access and
disseminate information while it also influences what is expected of them.
Implications & future direction are discussed.

Searle & Ball (2003) examine the coherence of organization’s utilization
of human resources (HR) recruitment, training and performance management
policies to support an enhance firms’ innovation performance. Representative of
88 industrial organizations completed surveys. Through a social-psychological
perspective, findings were situated in the two diverts areas of the psychological
measurement of innovation and the internal and external integration of distinct
HR policy elements. Results show that, while attaching importance to
innovation, the surveyed organizations failed to consistently translate this
importance into coherent HR policies. Typically, HR policy rewarded non
managerial employees for innovation, while managerial staffs were expected to
being so as a matter of course. This inconsistency is source of resistance that blocks the generation of new ideas and their organization-wide implementation.

Budhwar & Boyne (2004) compare human resource management (HRM) practices in Indian public & private sector organizations. The results of the study reveal that the gap between Indian public & private sector. HRM practices are not very significant. Moreover, in few HR functional areas (e.g. compensation & training and development) Indian private sector firms have adopted a more rational approach then their public-sectors counter parts.

Theoretical research in HRD has established itself and is now at a point where many avenues exist for further contributions to the field but what kinds of theoretical research appear to be needed at this stage in the development of HRD? Torraco (2004) identifies areas in which further research in theory and theory building might be conducted. Possible areas for future research include new HRD theory, theory-building research methods, HRD’s theoretical foundation, and published work that includes both the theory building research process and the theory itself. The paper argues that as more theory is being developed, the justification of the need for theory becomes more important. Considering the merits of alternative theoretical contributions, HRD professionals are asked to make judicious choices about the direction of future theoretical research. The implications of this study are provided.

The four C approaches define a method to assist human resources development (HRD) professional design strategic global training in a multinational environment. The method was developed from an analysis of published global HRD articles and two books. By Petranek (2004) four common elements were discovered during the review of the design and development of global HRD. Cooperation, collaboration, communication and culture are the four Cs that from the backbone of any global HRD organization. This approach is at the conceptual level with the mechanics of implementation left up to the HRD professional. Each section of the four Cs presents the definition, discuss application, and summarize implementation. The opinion of the author is
presented in the context of instructional system design to facilitate understanding the four Cs.

The components of human resource (HR) flexibility and their potential relationship to firm performance have not been empirically examined. Bhattacharya, Gibson & Doty (2005) hypothesize that flexibility of employees skills, employee behavior and HR practices represents critical sub dimension of HR flexibility and are related to superior firm performance. Results based on perceptual measures of HR flexibility and accounting measures of firm performance support this prediction. Whereas skill, behavior, and HR practice flexibility are significantly associated with an index of firm financial performance, the authors find that only skill flexibility contributes to cost-efficiency.

The management of expatriation has grown in importance as the numbers of multinational companies has grown significantly since the 1970s. However, public & non-government sector organizations have long traditions of managing expatriates. Anderson (2005) presents a paper to compare the manner in which Australian private, public and non-government sector organizations selected their expatriates. The results confirm the numerous reports in international human resource management (IHRM) literature that, in private sectors organizations, selection is carried out largely on the basis of technical competence, with minimal attention being paid to the interpersonal & domestic situation of potential expatriates. The limited role of HR managers in this process is also identified. The selection practices of public sector organizations reflect the merits selection policies of this sector. The non-government sector organizations’ selection practices differ markedly from those of the organizations in the other two sectors, in that psychological testing is widely used and the family is treated as a unit and included in the selection process.

Hall (2006) examines the management of agency workers in Australia and, in particular, to identify the challenges presented to HRM by agency work. When the attitudes and preferences of agency workers are compared with those of direct employees it is found that agency workers are no more satisfied with
their job security, skill utilization and development, pay, autonomy and influence at work. Given these findings, it is argued that agency work may be incompatible with HR strategies that are based on high performance work practices. This article gives helpful advice to HR mangers in any organization that are in the market for agency workers.

Hatcher (2006) examines democratizing the workplace through the professionalism of HRD. The primary question the article seeks to explore is to what extent a democratic profession can potentially minimize undemocratic workplaces. Drawing from several conceptual and research bodies of literature, including democracy and democratic work places, globalization and sociology of professions, this article describes democracy and how professions can enhance its growth.

In the preceding writings studies and views pertaining to the efficacy to HRD activities have been given. It has already been mentioned earlier that direct studies pertaining to human resource development are not possible as human resource development is nothing but a number of organizational activities directed to improve individual employees working capabilities and capacities and thereby enhancing organizational effectiveness through managing man-machine interface. It is therefore evident from the survey of literature that studies on various aspects of work and work related behavior have occupied the place to fill the purpose of HRD activities.

The other independent variable is that of 'organizational culture' which has been taken as an independent variable other than the variable of HRD-activities, and occupational stress. A bit detail of relevant studies of organizational culture will follow in the proceeding pages.

Organizational Culture Related Studies:

Organizational culture as a whole and its various dimensions were taken in this study as predictor variables. The aspect of organizational culture has its notion in the very human relation movement that rose in the work scenario in the mid-1920 and was in its peak during 1930’s to 1950’s. But formal stress on the aspect of organizational culture has not a long history. It is hardly few decades
back that organization started giving emphasis on the very aspect or organization culture meaning to develop such as organizational environment that may provide supportive humanized work environment. In this regard the available studies focusing directly or indirectly to organizational culture have been discussed here. Before going in to discussion, it is pertinent to point out that organizational culture is the broad term which has scores of determinants like organizational climate, leadership, behavior, participating management, open-appraisal system, interpersonal-trust, autonomy at work, etc. hence, studies on these in relation to work related behavior or outcome will also reflect the influence of organizational culture or its various dimensions on the dependent variables.

Pyne & Pheysey (1971) in their study investigated the relationship of organizational climate with three facets of Job Descriptive Index (JDI) viz., satisfaction with work, supervision, and people. The study was conducted on a sample consisting of N= 348 managers, supervisors and staff personnel. The findings witnessed the positive relationship between the perception toward organizational climate and job-satisfaction facets.

Pyne & Pheysey's study on organizational climate refers to one of the dimensions of organizational culture and it is a matter of fact that organizational climate which is determined by leadership behavior and organizational policies are the best indicator of organizational culture. It has already been mentioned above that in the context of organizational culture, the studies pertaining to organizational climate, leadership behavior will be presented, as these are the key determinants of organizational culture.

Similarly Pestonjee (1973) on the basis of his study found supportive organization to be truly related to worker's morale and job-satisfaction. Schneider and Snyder (1975) have also found the relationship between climate and satisfaction. Almost the same result was found in a study conducted by Lafollette & Sims (1975) who also enumerated that organizational climate and organizational practices are related to job-satisfaction.
In a very significant study conducted by Rajappa (1978), it was found that organization with achievement-oriented climate were highly productive organizations. Kumar & Bohra (1979) reported that the workers perceiving existing organizational climate as democratic were found to be highly job-satisfied compared to those perceiving organizational climate as autocratic or undecided.

In a study conducted by Sharma (1983) on the importance of organizational climate for employees motivation and satisfaction and she observed that work related facets like grievance handling, recognition, opportunities for growth and development and participative management have been found to be the important factors for healthy organizational climate, which enhances work motivation and satisfaction of the job-incumbents. Shrivastava & Pratap (1984) who obtained positive relationship between the positive perception of organizational climate and job-satisfaction reported almost the similar findings.

Sheridon (1992) investigated the retention rates of 904 college graduates hired in six public accounting firms over a six-year period. Organizational culture values varied significantly among the firms. The variation in cultural values had a significant effect on the rates at which the newly hired employees voluntarily terminated employment. Subjects voluntarily stayed 14 month longer in the culture emphasizing interpersonal relationship values than in the culture emphasizing work retention also varied significantly with organizational culture values. The cultural effects were stronger than the combined exogenous influences of the labor market and the new employee’s demographic characteristics.

Rubaii- Barrett & Beck (1993) contended that organizational cultures dimensions are highly related to job satisfaction. Phillips (1994) explored the existence of industry cultures by comparing broad-based assumption sets about two industries (fine arts museums and California wineries) 96 subjects from twelve organizations representing a cross-section of these two industries were interviewed, substantial differences in conceptualization of
membership, competition, the origins of "truth", the purpose of work, and the
current narrow focus in research on industry-based cognitive can be productively
broadened to include a fuller range of culture element and a wider range of
industry participants.

Zamanou et al. (1994) described communication intervention program
designated to change the triangulation approach. Specially, questionnaires,
interview data and direct observation were combined to study the areas of
organization culture scale (OCS) before the intervention and a representative
sample was interviewed. Then, the entire organization participated in an
organization development program. Two years later subjects were again given
the same tools and it was found out that dimensions; information flow,
involvement, morale, and meetings are significantly important aspects of
organizational culture.

Bloor et al. (1994) proposed a new conceptual framework for
understanding professional culture in organizational context, beginning with an
attempt to identify the complex interplay between individual sense making,
group belief and culture. The articles concluded with a critical reappraisal of the
significance of professional sub-culture as a determinant of an organization's
cultural system.

Maczynski et al. (1994) examined leadership style differences among
matched samples of 146 Polish, 891 Austrian and 2631 US managers. Austrian
subjects were found most participative, Polish subjects were most autocratic and
US subjects were between these two extremes. These differences produced
greatest agreement with the prescriptions of a normative model of decision
making among Austrian managers and the least agreement among Polish
managers. Polish subjects were more participative as the importance of the
problems declined, and the Austrian managers were more participative when
conflict among subordinates was likely.

Klein et al. (1995) tested a model linking and integrating the following
constituents: normative aspects or organization culture, the distribution and the
total account of control, employee performance and perceived quality of service.
They found significant relationship between organization culture and control distribution, culture, and total amount of control, culture and service quality, and culture and employees’ performance and total control and service quality. Results found to support the model. Further, Petty et al. (1995) examined the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance. Result indicated measure of organizational culture were significantly related objective measure of performance. Also teamwork was strongly associated with organizational performance.

Harris & Mossholder (1996) explored the influence of manager’s and executive congruence with their organizational culture on their affective orientation towards the organization. This relationship was examined in the context of the organization undergoing significant cultural transformation across the 4 dimensions of culture. Management style, organizational climate, leadership, an organizational definition of success, the “glue” bindings the organization, and the dominant organizational characteristics were the attributes found to indicate culture. Job-satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, and job turnover intention were the affective outcomes measured. Results show that organizational commitment and optimism about an organization’s future explain the discrepancy between subject’s assessments of the current culture and their ideal culture.

Weatherly & Beach (1998) examined the relationship between an organization’s culture and their decisions made with in the organization having two goals: first, to provide a theoretical link between culture and organizational decision making, and secondly, to test some of the implication of this link. Four studies were conducted with employees and managers form commercial organizations and study 1st found that different organizations have different degrees of culture fragmentation and this could be measured by the organizational culture survey. Study 2nd found that the decisions of an organization’s members are influenced by the degree to which the features of the options are compatible with the features of the organization’s own culture. Study 3rd found that and organization’s members are more likely to endorse a
management decision if the features of the decisions are compatible with the features of the organization's culture. Study 4th found that the greater the differences between subject's assessments of an organization's culture as they perceived it be now and as they thought it actually ought to be, the less satisfied they reported themselves to be with this jobs.

Burke (1997) investigated the relationship between organizational hierarchy and aspects of cultural values with a large professional services firm. The importance, presence, and gap between importance and presence of term cultural values serves as dependant variables. The highest and lowest hierarchical levels had more favorable opinions on the importance and presence of the cultural values.

Bendixaen & Burger (1998) examined the influence of management philosophy on management and organizational effectiveness. Results indicated that there were five different management philosophies; rational management, entrepreneurial management, elegant management, market oriented management, and educated Vs experienced management. These philosophies had varying degrees of influences on management and organizational effectiveness. Rational, market-oriented and entrepreneurial management was positively correlated to organizational effectiveness. The prevailing combination of the way, in which their philosophies were embraced by managers, Clansmen developmental managers, holistic managers, frees marketers and professional managers. Results support the proposition that management and organizational effectiveness are dependent on management philosophies.

In our view the contentions of Bendixean et al. are of course very significant as organizational culture basically is determined by the management philosophic in mapping strategies for running organizations with utmost efficiency.

Sinha (1998) made a review of work culture of Indian organizations till the end of the 1980's and identified the presence of a non-work culture fostered by socio-cultural factors such as families-paternalism, patronage, and centralization of power. Further, examination differentiated the non-work or
“soft” work culture, as it is called from the synergetic work culture which reflects a philosophy of self-reliance, strong work norm, and humane practices, leading to greater viability & satisfaction.

Miller (1998) pointed out diversity is one of the most significant forces influencing organizational change in the 1990’s. The members of diversity workshop, videos, journals, article board-games, handbook and CD-ROM’s testify to its significance, few recognize diversity as a potential source of organizational effectiveness. This article presents diversity as a key resource to create a high performing work culture that enables all members of the organization to do their best work.

Saunders (1998) outlines the inter-relationship between telematic learning support and the organization culture of the work place, focusing on learning requirements that emerge from the technical, social, organizational, ethical and political practices characterizing the working environment of an individual or group. He identifies concepts of organization culture and assesses the plausibility of the argument that telematic can effect change in culture.

Casey (1999) making a significant effort critically examines primary processes and effects of the so called “New organizational culture” that is organized on the principles and practices of Total Quality Management (and its variations) which is increasingly being practiced in corporate organizations during 1990’s. Specifically, analyses of the effects of the organizational cultural practices of “family” and “team” on the employee and discusses their role in corporate discipline, integration, and control. The study comprises the data drawn from field research conducted in a large multinational corporation and the analyses and critical social psychoanalytic perspective forms interpretative propositions. The paper disputes the conventional view that the practices of the “new culture” and its purported reforms of the hierarchical, specialized, conflict-ridden workplaces of traditional industrial organizations “empower” employees and provide “meaningful” relationship in the workplace. It is argued, on the contrary, that these new “designer” cultural practice serves as processes of regulation, discipline and control of employee subject selves.
In 1998 Johnson & McIntyre studied organizational culture and climate correlates of job satisfaction. Correlation indicated positive and significant associations for the measures. The measures of climate most strongly associated with scores on job satisfaction were communication, followed by goals, creativity and innovation, and decision making. Results are discussed in terms of their practical and meaningful relevance to organizational effectiveness.

Wentling & Dalma (1998) report the results of a study on the current status and future trends in diversity initiatives in the workplace as perceived by a group of 12 experts. The experts were surveyed through in-depth, open-ended telephone interviews. The study identified barriers that have inhibited the employment, development, retention, and promotion of diverse groups in the workplace and the significant factors that are in fluency diversity initiatives. It revealed that the primary reasons for managing diversity are to improve productivity and remain competitive, to form better work relationships among employees, to enhance social responsibility, and to address legal concerns.

Randall (1999) investigated the relationship of organizational policies and support to various work attitudes and behaviors among a field sample of 128 participants from 3 organizations. Results indicated that politics and support were related to job satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions, and supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behaviors. However, only support was related to job performance.

Tesluck, Vance & Mathieu (1999) examine the relationship between participative climates as they exist at top and middle organizational levels and employee attitudes and behaviors. Results indicated that district and unit participative climates interacted with one another in influencing work-related attitudes and behaviors. The importance of multiple participative climates operating in relation to one another to influence individual attitudes and behaviors and how these climates are supported, is discussed.

Bhargava & Kelkar (2000) conducted a study on managers, officers and supporting staff of a business organization by completed a questionnaire assessing organizational structure as well as corporate culture, job satisfaction,
and empowerment. Results show 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 organization should opt for the strategies that could take into account the all-round development of their members through strategic human resource management.

Cable et al. (2000) focuses on the beliefs that applicants develop about organizational culture during the anticipatory stage of socialization. Data from 240 job applicants (mean age 24yrs) suggested that an organization used product and company information to encourage applicants to hold favorable, rather than accurate, culture beliefs. Results suggest that firms can manage job applicants’ beliefs about company culture during the anticipatory stage of socialization. Specifically, they found that company information and product information were related in predicted ways to applicants’ culture beliefs.

Wilson (2001) studied that the actions of employees and pointed out that their beliefs, norms and values derived from the organizational culture influence their actions and the informal message that they communicate. A mystique still exists around the concept at organizational culture. This paper attempts to clarify the mystique by reviewing the literature relating to organizational culture, focusing on its definitions, the factors which influence it, and the arguments as to whether it can be managed. The paper highlights the complexity of the phenomenon of organizational culture and the need for corporate marketers to be more sensitive to this complexity in the development and execution of corporate communication strategies. This requires markets to work more closely with researchers and practitioners working in the fields of the organizational behavior and human resource management.

Robert & Wasti (2002) examined individualism and collectivism as meaningful dimensions in the context of organizational culture, and evaluated
the construct validity of a scale based on observed relationships at the individual level (person-organization fit) and the organizational level of analysis. Results of analyses indicate that fit between individuals’ values and perceptions of the organizational culture predicted job attitudes, and that organizational individualism was related to the use of individualistic human resources practices at the organizational level. The significant results for the person-organization fit added to the evidence for the construct validity of the scales. The utility of this approach for understanding the relationship between individuals, organizations, and societies is discussed.

Erdem & Satir (2003) examines organizational culture within manufacturing organizations (from the point of weak-strong and positive-negative features) through the use of metaphors. The study demonstrates that the use of metaphors is useful tool for uncovering feeling towards an organization and suggests that is might be important for managers, researchers and consultants to understand, and be sensitive to their use.

Liu (2003) adopts integration and differentiation perspectives to examine why unity and diversity of organizational cultures emerged as a function of economic reform, and how sub-cultural differences were reflected in employees’ perceptions of cultural practices. Data were gathered from in-depth interviews and a large-scale survey in two large, state owned enterprises in north-east China. Results indicated that, although all employees were oriented towards a common set of cultural themes, the two generations of employees did not exemplify the themes in the same way. Specifically unity was illustrated by employees’ desire to maintain Harmony and to reduce Inequality. Diversity was revealed by first-generation employees’ higher ratings on loyalty, security and even bureaucracy. The findings are discussed in the light of traditional Chinese cultural values, political ideology and the social context.

Lowe (2003) analyzed correlates of workers’ perceptions of the extent to which their work environment is healthy and how these perceptions influence job satisfactions, employee commitment, workplace morale, absenteeism, and intent to quit. Their study supports comprehensive model of workplace health
that targets working conditions, work-relationships, and workplace organization for health promotion interventions.

Organizational engage in explicit and intentional communication with employees in various ways. However, communication will not be received in a "neutral" context. Employees operate in an organizational (or behavioral) context determined by the organizational culture, structures and systems, and the management-practices. This context acts as a source of implicit communication towards employees. This view fits the various perspectives about communication, which does not need to be considered as a two-way process, and which can be intentionally or unintentionally, transmitted and received. All too often, implicit communication is at odds with the "official" explicit communication. Though this latter form of communication the organization might, for example proclaim a quality image, while in reality employees' experience that, in case of conflicts, delivery planning prevails over quality. Likewise, communication about the "learning organization" appears to be cumbersome in a culture suppressing discussion about failures. The effect of implicit communication should not be underestimated. Cynicism among employees is repeatedly the result of inconsistent messages being received (Hoogervost et al. 2004).

Within the body of organizational culture literature, there is a conspicuous absence of large-scale studies reporting on comparative studies. In order to increase comparability of organizational cultures Vander Berg & Wilderom (2004) propose a definition and a set of dimensions. Organizational culture is defined as shared perceptions of organizational work practices with in organizational units. On the basis of empirical studies we discerned threw following five dimensions: autonomy, external orientation, interdepartmental coordination, human resource orientation, and improvement orientation. Use of this definition and a set of such generic dimensions would facilitate the comparison of organizational cultures and the accumulation of research findings.

Madsen et al. (2005) indicate significant relationships between readiness for change, organizational commitment, and social relationships. Relationships
were also found between readiness for change and number of children, social relationships and gender and organization commitment or one of its 3 components (identification, job involvement, loyalty) and employee age, educational level, and gender.

Tredway et al. (2005) studied that increases in politics perceptions are associated with decreases in job performance for older employees and that perception of politics do not affect younger employees’ performance.

Ostroff et al. (2005) examined the relative importance of multiple types of value congruence-person-environment (P-E), person-person (P-P), and across multiple dimensions of values was investigated in a sample of 951 employees from 113 bank branches. As expected, different types of value congruence and different value dimensions were differentially important for outcomes. Both P-E fit (between an individual’s personal values and the cultural values of the organization) and perceptual fit (between an individual’s perception of the organization’s values and the organization’s values as perceived by others) were found to be related to satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intentions, while P-P fit (between an individual’s personal values and the personal values of others) was not. Further, P-E congruence results were generally stronger for fit with the work group that fit with the manager and results were stronger for the rational goal dimension which focused on external customer service. In contrast, results for perceptual fit revealed that fit was generally more important for fit with the workgroup and was generally more important for the open system dimension which focused on flexibility and innovation.

Byrne (2006) revealed that procedural justice reduced the negative effects of perceptions of covert, self-serving political behaviors (e.g., going along with others), but not overt political behaviors (e.g., teasing others down to build up self) on turnover intentions both procedural and interact ional justice moderated effects of covert, but not overt political behavior, on OCB beneficial to the organization.

The common practice of characterizing organizations as having a family environment assumes that organizational and family functioning constructs are
conceptually congruent. To date, this assumption has not been examined in a systematic fashion. Brotheridge & Lee (2006) examined the congruence of organizational and family functioning concepts using the Work Environment Scales and the Beavers Self-Report Family Inventory in a sample of 204 government employees. A canonical correlation analysis found a moderate amount of shared variance between these two sets of data, suggesting that there may be an underlying congruence between work and family constructs. Additionally, specific dimensions of work unit climate and group conflict were predictive of equivalent family functioning dimensions.

Having discussed the literature of organizational culture it also seems necessary and important to have literature review of occupational stress that follows:

**Occupational Stress Related Studies:**

In the present piece of research endeavor we are specifically concern to the phenomenon of occupational stress, so, in ongoing lines we will discuss available studies in relation to occupational stress. To measure occupational stress probably Srivastva & Singh (1981) were among a few Indian people who initiated to device a psychometric test namely, “Occupational Stress Index” comprised of twelve stressors have been incorporated. Later on, scores of studies in Indian context have been witnessed and studies on occupational stress still occupies a major place in the areas of organizational behavior for psychologist, managers, supervisors and specifically of HRD specialist.

Occupational stress has been studied in relation to various dimension such as Jagdish (1983) studying occupational stress in relation to job satisfaction and mental health on the sample of first level supervisor and he reported that with the exception on responsibility for person, factors of occupational stress, all other relevant stressor significantly impaired supervisor’s job satisfaction. He also pointed out that employee’s job satisfaction significantly moderated relationship between occupational stress and mutual health. Most of the researchers have studied occupational stress from the pathological point of view although, occupational stress plays vital role in any organization and it is found highly
associated with absenteeism (Margolis, Koras & Quinn, 1974; Gupta & Beehr, 1979.) voluntary turnover (Ivansevich et al. 1982) and job dissatisfaction (Bheers, 1976; Pestonjee & Singh 1982.).

Taylor & Cangoni (1988) examined occupational stress research and concluded that psychological factors can effect job satisfaction, work adjustment, work attitudes, and overall well being in the work environment. In one of the studies Bason (1988) described potential sources of occupational stress comprising (i) factors intrinsic to the job, (ii) role in the organization, and (iii) organizational structure and climate.

A look on the researchers in the area of occupational stress have indicated that stressor at work many in number which can be broadly put under the broad categories of organizational, environmental and individual factors. In view of Selye (1956), stress is an additive phenomenon as for example, a single stressor even at work may seem to be relatively unimportant but if it is added to an already high level of stress then it can further increase the stress to the extent like there is a saying that “even and addition of straw can break the camel’s back.

Nowadays, Occupational stress has been used in broader way and which refers to the intrinsic aspects of job, organizational structure and climate as well as role facets in the organization. Orpen (1991) pointed out that the major source of stress derives from the occupational environment. It means that stress affects employees in many ways and it is psychological agent that influences physical and emotional well being and our ability to perform our jobs. It lowers down our productivity; reduce motivation and increases errors and accidents. So, in today’s context, stress is a costly business expense that affects both employee health and company profits (Susan, 1994).

About 15% of all occupational disability is stressing related (Sadok, 1995). Modern mechanisms of production and methods of trade are contributing in an increase in stress risks in the industry (Karasek & Theorell, 1992). Compensation claims for all stress related disorders are growing in number while all other disabling work injuries are decreasing (Baker & Karasek, 1995).
It has been documented that shift work leads to sleep disturbances and this in turn affects health and well being (Akersted & Knutsson, 1995), concentration impairment, mistake and makes the worker more vulnerable for accidents (Kar, Dutta, & Kar, 1996). More than 5% of the employees had significant sleep problems as reported in a study by Kar & Haridas (2003). Bharti et al. (1991) found significantly inverse relationship between job satisfaction and Occupational stress. Jex et al. (2002) studied the role of negative affectivity in occupational stress, Nelson et al. occupational stress and gender differences.

Lu,luo et al.(2000) examined managerial stress in Taiwan and UK as representative cultures of the East and the West. More specifically, the relationship between work pressure and strain, the possible moderating effects of coping and locus of control were examined in each country and compared across cultures. ‘Recognition’ and ‘managerial role’ were important predictors of strain for the Chinese managers whereas ‘Relationships’, ‘Organizational climate’, and ‘Personal responsibility’ were important predictors of strain for UK managers.

Chan et al. (2000) conducted a study to examine the influence of professionalization and bureaucratization on the quality of work life, the paper compared the experiences of work stress, work satisfaction, and mental health on 2,589 men and women from six different professions and Para-professions, namely, general practitioners, lawyers, engineers, teachers, nurses and life insurance personnel. Results showed that performance pressure and work-family conflicts were perceived to be the most stressful aspects of work. These two stressors also significantly contributed to the experiences of overall work stress. Further, stress arising from work-family conflicts, performance pressure and poor job prospects was negatively associated with the level of work satisfaction. Widerszal et al. (2000) concluded that greater economic effectiveness of private economic sectors is accompanied with greater psychological effectiveness, and that, to a small degree, managers in private organizations have higher psychological well-being as compared with those of state organizations.
Occupational stress has been recognized as a major health issue for modern work organizations. Spector (2002) highlights conditions of the workplace that have been shown to lead to negative emotional reactions (e.g. anxiety), physical health problems in both the short term (e.g. headache or stomach distress) and the long term (e.g. cardiovascular disease), and counterproductive behavior at work. Morrison & Payne (2003) suggests that changes at the job level in the objective job characteristics will have a modest but highly predictable outcome to reduce stress. Approaches at the individual level may be broken in to three strategies: skill development, improved selection techniques and the delivery of stress assistance. However, it is argued that it seems likely that the biggest gains will be found with management/supervisor training aimed at managing employee perception of the work situation.

Harvey, Kelloway, & Duncan (2003) examined the role of trust in management as a moderating factor in work overload’s impact on personal strain (i.e., burnout, psychological strain, and work’s interference with family). Both work overload and trust in management had the expected negative and positive main effects on the outcomes variables respectively. The impact of work overload on the outcome variables was moderated by employees’ trust in management.

Dewe & Trenberth (2004) despite the enthusiasm for coping research, review as are concerned that much of the research has failed to live-up expectations as to its practical relevance. So, coping research needs to adopt measurement methods that reflect the techniques of clinicians. Hoge & Bussing (2004) investigated different ways in which work stressors, sense of coherence (SOC), and negative affectivity (NA) might influence strain. Three models covering direct, moderating, and mediating effects between the variables were tested for hyper-responsitivity, causality, perception, selection and stressor-creation mechanisms. They concluded that besides direct effects on strain, significant perception, selection and stressor-creation mechanisms of SOC could be identified. After controlling for SOC and NA, work stressors remain substantial predictors of strain.
Transformational organizational change is a significant life event for employees within the organization in question and can be a source of considerable stress. Robison & Griffiths (2005) concluded a study to look at transformational change in a government department. Five sources of change stress were found: increased workload, uncertainty/ambiguity interpersonal conflict, perceived unfairness, and perceived loss. Fifteen coping responses accounted for the data. These were categorized into four coping types: task-centered coping, emotion-focused coping, cognitive coping, and social support coping. Four of the five stressors were related to the use of certain coping types. A model proposed to account for the process of coping with organizational change stressors, which is offered for quantitative validation.

Brown et al. (2005) examines the moderating effects role overload on the antecedents and consequences of self-efficacy and personal goal level in the longitudinal study conducted in an industrial selling context. The results indicate that role overload moderates the antecedents' effect of perceived organizational resources on self-efficacy beliefs. They also show that role overload moderate the direct effects on both self-efficacy and goal level on performance, such that these relationships are positive when role overload is low but not significant when role overload is high. Further, the results reveal a pattern of moderated mediation, in which goal level mediates the indirect effect of self-efficacy on performance when role overload is low but not when it is high.

Alam, Garg & Zaffar (2005) carried an empirical research on bank employees to study the occupational stress of them. Results revealed that role-overload and role-conflict have emerged as most powerful stressors for bank employees whereas, un-profitability was found to be least stressor.

Supervisors-subordinate similarly affects a number of work-place outcomes, but the effect of similarly in work-family values is not well understood. Thompson et al. (2006) conducted a study on 209 participants (121 female & 88 male) from a range of occupations. A structural model was tested in which subordinate perceptions of supervisors support and reduced family conflict, with an indirect effect through these variables to job satisfaction.
Higher work-family conflict and lower job satisfaction had significant paths to emotional exhaustion, as a key indicator a good fit to the model for both men and women. Similarity of work-family values influenced emotional exhaustion through its impact on work-family conflict and job satisfaction.

Interrelated Studies of the Variables:

According to Koys (1988) an employee's organizational commitment is positively associated with the perception that HRM activities are performed because of justice and fairness. The perception that HRM activities are performed to attract/retain individuals were positively related to employee organizational commitment.

Fisher (1989) describes the role of the manager in a high-performance, high-commitment workplace. The various aspects of management role are separated into two categories: things that are observable, such as behaviors and styles, and things that are not observable, such as individual's values, assumption, paradigms, and vision.

Hochwarter et.al. (1999) demonstrated that the positive relationship between organizational politics and job tension decreased as organizational commitment increased. Culture is an important antecedent to organizational commitment. Clungston, Howell and Dorfman (2000) gave empirical support to it that cultural dimensions are significant predictors of multiple bases and foci of commitment- specific significant results include: (1) power distance is related to normative commitment across all foci; (2) uncertainty avoidance is related to continuance commitment across all foci and (3) collectivism is related to workgroup commitment across all bases of commitment.

Rai & Sinha (2000) found that the facilitating climate enhanced the strength of association of leadership with commitment. On the other hand Sanghi (2001) investigated that the higher the level of motivation in the organizational climate, the higher the job satisfaction and organizational commitment for employees.

Suliman (2002) explores that the organizational commitment and its two factors - normative and continuance commitment play different roles in
mediating the relationship between perceived work climate and performance, as rated by the employees themselves and their immediate supervisors. Whereas, Wasti (2003) indicated that satisfaction with work and promotion are the primary determinants of affective and normative commitment for employees who endorse individualist values. For employees with collectivist values, satisfaction with supervisor was found to be an important commitment antecedents over and above satisfaction with work and promotion, similar results were obtained for continuance commitment. The results indicate that although some antecedents of organizational commitment are common across the two groups, the emphasis placed on task versus relationships differs across individuals with varying cultural orientations.

Lok & Crawford (2004) explores that innovative and supportive cultures, and a consideration leadership style, had positive effects on both job satisfaction and commitment, with the effects of an innovative culture on satisfaction and commitment, and the effect of a consideration leadership style on commitment, being stronger. Participants' level of education was found to have a slight negative effect on satisfaction and a slight positive effect on commitment.

Hartman & Johnson (1989) supported the hypotheses with their study that structural equivalence was more associated with role ambiguity and that commitment was more associated with cohesion. On the other hand, Kalliath, O'Driscoll & Gillespie (1998) provided support for the converse hypotheses that low commitment contributes to the experience of burn out. Vashishtha & Mishra (1999) made an attempt to explore the moderator effect of tangible support on the occupational stress-organizational commitment relationship.

Schwepker (1999) suggests that ethical conflict is negatively associated with organizational commitment and positively associated with turnover intentions.

Jex et al. (2003) investigated relations between three work-related stressors (role ambiguity, role conflict, and organizational constraints) and altruistic behavior in the work place. On the other hand, relationships between
role stressors (ambiguity, overload, and conflict), anxiety, commitment (affective and continuance) and turnover intention were examined by Glazer & Beehr (2005). Three role stressors were predicting anxiety and indirectly predict intention to leave. Anxiety was predict affective and continuance commitment, and anxiety, affective commitment, and continuance commitment were predict intention to leave the organization.

Mackie, Holahan & Gottlien (2001) suggested that increased exposure to employees’ involvement management practices was indirectly associated with lower levels of depression through both perceived work stress and sense of coherence. Vigoda (2002) pursued that workplace politics have a long-range impact on employees’ job distress and aggressive behavior, both physical and psychological, in and around organizations.

Gelade & Ivery (2003) examines how climate and human resource management function as joint antecedents of business unit performance. Significant correlations are found between work climate, human resource practices and business performance. Kirk & Brown (2003) suggested that Employee Assistance Programs are currently considered one of the main vehicles for occupational stress management and are rapidly evolving into providers of holistic well-being programs in the work place. Halpern (2005) explores that employees with time-flexible work policies reported less stress, higher levels of commitment to their employer, and reduced costs to the organization because of fewer absences, fewer days late, and fewer missed deadlines.

Sharma & Sharma (1989) found that organizational climate was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job anxiety.

Peterson & Wilson (2002) describe that culture is an important component of work stress and may be key to creating effective organizational stress interventions. It is concluded that work stress is as much managerial and business concern when it is framed in a cultural argument. Elovainio et al. (2002) stated that people use quality of social relationships as an important indicator of fair treatment and that, in turn, is related to occupational strain.
Aycan, Kanungo & Sinha (1999) gave support to the model of culture fit postulates that the socio-cultural environment affects the internal work culture, which in turn influences HRM practices. Neal, West & Patterson (2005) explores that the relationship between HRM and productivity will be stronger for firms with a poor climate because employees working in these firms should have the greatest amount of spare capacity.

As stated above it seems that HRD, Organizational Culture, and Occupational Stress studies in relation to work commitment are very few or failed to provide any clear cut direction of the relationship as a whole. Hence, now, there is no option left except to formulate null-hypotheses for empirical testing that are given below:

**Hypotheses:**

Formulation of hypotheses is a very important step in research investigation. A hypothesis is a presumption which provides the basis for investigation and ensures the proper direction in which the study should proceed (Michael, 1985). According to Kothari (1987), a hypothesis is a preposition, which can be put to test its validity. Thus, hypotheses are significantly important in every scientific investigation/inquiry because they are working as instrument of theory, have a prediction values and also they are powerful tools for the advancement of knowledge and making interpretation meaningful (Kerlinger, 1983). So, hypotheses help in determining comprehensively the objectives of the study and subsequently help in making a proper choice of statistics for analyzing the data in quest of answering objectives of the study. Here, an effort was made to formulate null-hypotheses comprehensively and briefly that follows:

**H₀ 1:** “Forecasting Human Resource Need in Organization”– a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall Work Commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

**H₀ 2:** “Training”– a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facets of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.
H0 3: “Organizational Climate”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 4: “Organizational Change”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 5: “Fairly Liberal Management Function”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 6: “Employee-Management Relations”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 7: “Total Quality Management”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 8: “Appraisal System”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 9: “Recognition”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 10: “Flexibility”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 11: “Competition”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

H0 12: “Cooperation”—a facet of HRD activities will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.
$H_0$ 13: “Overall HRD activities” will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facets of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 14: “Fairness”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 15: “Mutual Trust”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 16: “Openness”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 17: “Organizational Climate”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 18: “Synergy”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 19: “Organizational Environment”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 20: “Autonomy”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 21: “Work Value”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

$H_0$ 22: “Organizational Belongingness”– a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.
Ho 23: “Confrontation”—a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 24: “Pro action”—a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 25: “Organizational Loyalty”—a facet of organizational culture will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 26: “Overall Organizational Culture”—will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facets of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 27: “Role Overload”—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 28: “Role Ambiguity”—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 29: “Role Conflict”—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 30: “Unreasonable Group & Political Pressure”—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 31: “Responsibility for Persons”—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

Ho 32: “Under participation”—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.
\( H_0 \) 33: "Powerlessness"—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

\( H_0 \) 34: "Poor Peer Relation"—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

\( H_0 \) 35: "Intrinsic Impoverishment"—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

\( H_0 \) 36: "Low Status"—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

\( H_0 \) 37: "Strenuous Working Condition"—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

\( H_0 \) 38: "Un profitability"—a facet of occupational stress will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facet of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

\( H_0 \) 39: "Overall Occupational Stress"—will not significantly influence overall work commitment or any of its facets of bank employees in general and specifically working in public or private sectors.

The above formulated hypotheses were framed to gain micro-level information of the pattern of the cause and effect relationship. Moreover, the hypotheses clearly highlight the very objective of the present endeavor, which were empirically tested to fill the void of knowledge in this specific area. The findings of the investigation will help the organization to redesign the work environment, & HRD pattern in such a fashion that might have positive influence on the perceived work related behavior especially, like, work commitment which subsequently may lead to efficient and decent work performance.