CHAPTER - 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Chapter II

Review of the Relevant Studies

The review of literature is done to gather information about the work done in the past and what is being done presently. The review of literature helps in gathering information about the topic that is being researched. Review is very useful for selecting variables both dependent and independent, for selecting the research methodology and for carrying out analysis. Also it helps in discussing and interpreting the findings.

Three important variables have been selected for the investigation i.e. daily hassles, extraorganizational stressors and work commitment.

**Daily Hassles:** In an extensive study, Thakur and Misra (1995), examined a pattern of daily hassles in relation to perceived control, social support, and mental health of dual career women. The subjects were further classified as housewife and employed below 40 years and above 40 years, and two types of family structures nuclear and joint. It was found that the dual career women reported significantly greater incidence of daily hassles. Interestingly, even with more hassled life, they displayed greater degree of life satisfaction as compared to housewives.

Older dual career women from nuclear family perceived greater degree of control, while social support was shared similarly across all the groups.

Thakur and Misra (1999) studied the role of social support, daily hassles and well-being of women. The subjects were classified on the basis of two levels: 196 employed and 54 unemployed married women. It was found that the employed women experienced more hassles and received less social support than their unemployed counterparts. They enjoyed better well being. Employed women's higher well-being speaks of the relative deprivation in housewives' role and desire for opportunities to use their potentials for self-actualization and self-gratification. Resources generated by employment (income, status) are adequate to cope with stresses and also enhances well-being.
Hahn and Smith (1999), conducted a study to examine three explanations for the overlap definitional confusion, measurement problems associated with using normative measures to assess stressful events, and poor measure development. They need two types of stressors i.e. hassles and chronic stressors to examine the overlap issue. Items from traditional work and non-work hassles and chronic stressor measures were categorized by 323 hospital employees as either hassles or chronic stressors. Results indicated that items from traditional hassles measures were not consistently categorized by participants as hassles but were categorized by some as chronic stressors. Results suggest that traditional normative measures of hassles and chronic stressors may be inadequate.

Matthews, Power and Stanfeld (2001), examined whether social qualities in psychological distress can be explained by work home factors and whether the impact of these factor is similar for men and women. Explanatory factors work- home roles: i.e. employment, marital status, domestic responsibility, children and elderly care and work-home characteristics: i.e. job strain, insecurity, unsocial working hours, and youngest child’s age, number of children and level of involvement in child care. Work factors have consistently strongly associations with DIS and with social class among men and women. Work factors had a greater impact on class differences in DIS in men. Associations for home roles and characteristics were less consistent and their combined effect on class differences in DIS was negligible for both sexes. Explanations for the social gradient differ for men and women. Work may be more important for men than women, but the impact of home factors were not strong during the early adulthood of this cohort.

Singh et al. (1986), Steffy et al. (1986) and Surti, (1983) found that technocrat women suffer more stress than non-technocrats and in many respects more than male colleagues. It is also found that married female executives with children were under great stress than single or divorced workingwomen. The women at work frequently suffer more stress than the
male because they have to combine their jobs with running a home, caring for their husbands, and coping with children's ailments.

Sim (2000) examined the relationship of daily hassles and specific social support with regard to parent, peer and teacher relationship to depression and antisocial behaviour among early adolescent. The findings show that except for parental support, hassles alone affected the level of maladjustment. Social support did not moderate daily hassles in emotional and behavioural adjustment.

Zohar (1999) studied the effect of daily work hassles on effort, exertion and negative mood. Using pooled time series analysis on daily records of a sample of military jump masters (parachute trainers), it was shown that hassles severity predicted end of day mood, fatigue and subjective workload. This indicates that, despite their transient nature, daily hassles at work constitute significant factor whose effect has been overlooked by available methods of occupational stress. Furthermore, the interaction between assignment complexity and hassles that other variables, such as coping options for dealing with hassles, moderate the effect of hassles on behavioral and emotional outcomes.

Williams, Lawler and Kathleen (2001) examined the stresses-illness relationship in a biracial group of low-income women. Two personality constructs, hardiness and John Henyrism, were studied for their possible moderating influences on the stress-illness relationship. Hardiness moderated the stress-illness relationship, with high stress, low hardy women having higher levels of illness. Hardy women perceive their external environment as less stressful, although high and low hardy women perceive their external environments as less stressful, although high and low hardy women have similar levels of network stress. Life event stress, network and low-income concerns were all associated with illness scores. Thus, a range of stress measures are linked to physical illness in low income women.

Allen and Herst (2000) conducted a study in which the outcomes associated with work-to-family conflict were conducted and effect sizes were
estimated. A typology was presented that grouped outcomes with 3 categories: work-related, non-work related, and stress related. The results demonstrate the widespread and serious consequences associated with work to family conflict.

De Bord, Penning, Robekah and Kerpelman, Jennifer (2000) explored about people manage their work and family responsibilities. Factors that were felt to be supports or obstacles to families during this process were also identified. The individuals appeared to experience greater success when their own needs and the needs of their families were being met and when they were able to meet the demands of work, leading to greater work-family fit. Support from the workplace and other community sources, as well as participants' personal attributes contributed to this work family fit.

Zohar (1997) tested the concept of hassles in context of work, by transposing the three major occupational stress categories (i.e., role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload) to a middle level of analysis. Role conflict was represented through various hassle types associated with conflicting expectations at work. Using a sample of hospital nurses, it was shown that hassles severity provided incremental prediction of burnout symptoms beyond that offered by available role stress scales since the primary symptoms of burnout are physical and mental exhaustion (Maslach and Jackson, 1986), these findings support the concept of effort exertion as a key factor in response to obstacles during goal directed episodes.

In another study, Motowildo, Packard and Manning (1986), used a list of list of 45 disruptive events associated with hospital nursing. As with other hassle scales, frequency and severity ratings were used. Both scores predicted symptoms of anxiety and depression supporting the hypothesized effect of hassles on negative emotion. Similar results were reported by Koch, Tung, Gmelch and Swent (1982), using a hassles check list for school administrators as the predictor variable, and emotional reaction as dependent variable.
Another study related to stressful life events was conducted by Ram (1998). This study was aimed at finding out if there were differences in the stress experienced from the daily hassles among working mothers in two widely differing cultures of New Zealand and India. The daily hassles checklist (Kanner et al, 1981), which consists of 117 hassles, was used for both groups. The analysis of data revealed a highly significant and positive relationship between frequency and intensity scores for both the groups. The result revealed that, though culture differs in several aspects, among urban working mothers with dependent children, the number of hassles experienced and the intensity of stress arising from the hassles are quite similar across the New Zealand and Indian groups of working mothers.

**Extra-organizational stressors:**

The survey of literature reveals that the social and family role stress has rarely been studied in researches of stress and work. Stress at home is carried into the workplace and vice versa. The basic source of stress may not reside only in the family, but it may also reside in the society and in the workplace. However, there is growing evidence that a person’s work life should be studied in the context of his/her family and society.

Marshall and Cooper (1979) have highlighted two problems regarding manager’s relationship with his family and work-time and spillover of stress from one to the other. They have mentioned four intrusions of work into home life: carrying pending work at home, business travel, organizational-social commitments, and exclusive job pursuits such as advancement in the job and accepting new assignments.

Ivancevich and Matteson (1980) identified extra-organizational stressors such as societial/technological change, the family, relocation, economic and financial conditions etc. The family stressors have been examined more closely because of its great impact on personality development. They found that the circular relationship exists between family and work. Stressors in the family vary greatly in severity and in the degree of
continuity; there are brief crisis, such as illness of a family member, or long term strained relations with spouse or children. Relocation and change produce varied symptoms such as emotional disorientation, confusion, and even physical ailments (Sinetar, 1986). In order to cope with economic and financial stressors many people have been forced to take a second job or the spouse has had to enter the work force in order to make ends met. The overall effect on the employees is more stress on their primary jobs.

Davidson and Cooper (1981), have proposed a multidimensional approach acknowledging that stress at work can also affect an individual in home and social environment and vice-versa.

Bhagat et al (1985) employed a sample of 282 men and women full time, white-collar, administrative, health care and clerical personnel. They found the relationship between negative personal life stress, organizational outcomes, indicating that people do not separate their personal lives from their jobs i.e., there is spillover of the effects of non-work stress on organizational outcomes.

Abhyankear and Ram (1988), studied beliefs and employment as predictors of role stress among 200 married employed and 200 married unemployed women. Regression analysis showed that employment of married women and irrationality in their beliefs was the significant predictors of role stress. Of the two, irrationality and beliefs was a better predictor.

Agrawal (1994) discussed the stressors and stress management strategies of multiple role women. Working women did not differ from working men, but they carry the additional burden of motherhood. Men and women differ in their appraisal of stressors and coping strategies. Role overload and role conflict in working women's families produce stress. Naturalistic methods for identifying the stressors and establishment of family counseling centers and training programmes for helping women in cope with stress are suggested.

Sinacore and Akcali (2000) assessed the effects of family environment on men's job satisfaction and self esteem. The results indicate that the family
environment has a limited effect on men's self esteem. The authors concluded that the limited relationship between these measures may be due to men's lack of involvement in their family and that men continue to have a traditional view of their role in the family as that of provider and disciplinarian.

Stoeva, Chiu and Greenhaus (2002), conducted a study to examine the mechanisms by which negative affectivity (NA) influences two directions of work-family conflict: work interference with family and family interference with work. The positive relationship between family stress and family interference with work conflict was stronger for high-negative affectivity individuals than for low-negative affectivity individuals.

Fielden and Davidson (2001) explored the major sources of stress, organizational and extra organizational, encountered by women managers, and the factors that influence the responses of managers to those stressors. They also considered the potential impact of such stress on the behaviour and mental and physical well-being of women managers, by evaluating the risk facing female managers as a result of their position within the workplace.

Perrew and Carlson (2002) investigated that interaction of gender and social support as the impact both the work and family domains in terms of conflict and satisfaction. The findings of the study indicate that men are more likely to perceive social support in their family environment than are women. Women are more likely to perceive conflict stemming from their work domain. Finally, women seem to benefit more than do men from both work and family social support. These results shed light on the importance of social support in the well-being of today's working men and women.

Field and Bramwell (1988) conducted a study to examine the relationships between responsibilities and the levels of perceived pressure experienced by working women and whether marital status and employment status impacted upon the perception of pressure. The results showed that caring responsibilities correlated positively with the amount of pressure reported by working women; marital status affects the perception of pressure among married women reported that they felt under more pressure than
single women & part-time workers felt themselves to be under more pressure than their full-time working colleagues.

Carmen & Shaffer (2001), in their study examined the influence of family-and-work-specific determinants of multiple forms of family interference with work (FIW) and work interference with family (WIF) conflict. They used 267 Hong Kong University staff. It was found that parental demands and hours spent on household work were important determinants of FIW conflict and that role conflict, role overload, and hours spent on paid work influenced WIF conflict. Deferential gender effects for family interference with work and work interference with family conflict support the traditional gender roles.

Eagle, Icenogle, Maes and Miles (1998), investigated the reported experiences of work-family inter role conflict differences between American men and women. Results of the study reveal that men reported significantly higher levels of work to family and strain-based, family-to-work conflict. Married men with working spouses, with and without children, and married men with children and non working spouses reported higher level of time-based and strain based family-to-work conflict than women in each corresponding category. The highest time-based, family-to-work conflict was reported by divorced women with children.

Bernas and Major (2000) studied both work and family with the stress resource perspective and organizational leadership theory based on the premise that stress is a major contributor to work-family conflict, this research examined resources likely to reduce the stress and work-family conflict women experience. Family emotional support, leader-member exchange, and hardiness were explored as potential resources. The subjects completed measures of job stress, work family conflict, family stress, leader-member exchange, family emotional support, and hardiness path analytic tests supported most of the relationships in the hypothesized model. Leader-member exchange, family emotional support, and hardiness were each shown to be important resources for the reduction of stress and subsequent
conflict. Findings suggest that having a high-quality relationship with one’s supervisor may have complex implications for work family conflict.

Perrewe, Hochwarter, and Kichritz (1999) examined two distinct constructs of work family conflict as work interfering with family life and family issues interfering with work. This study examines value attainment as a mediating variable in the work family conflict and satisfaction relationship. Response from 270 hotel managers indicate that value attainment either partially or fully mediates the relationship between work interference with work and both job and life satisfaction value attainment is argued to be a meaningful explanatory variable for the negative relationship between work family conflict and job life satisfaction.

Edwards and Rothbard (1999) used person environment fit theory to examine how the comparison of work and family experience to person’s values relates to stress and well-being. By using the data of university employees, they assessed fit regarding autonomy, relationships, security, and segmentation for both work and family and examined the relationship of fit work and family satisfaction, anxiety, depression, irritation, and somatic symptoms. In general, well being improved as experience increased toward values and improved to a lesser extent as experiences exceeded values. Well-being was also higher than when both were low. These relationships were generally strongest for with in domain fit and well-being (i.e. work fit and work satisfaction, family fit and family satisfaction), and several relationships were moderated by work and family centrality.

Geurts, Rutte and Peeters (1999) conducted a cross-sectional field study in which a comprehensive model of work home interference (WHI) was developed among 166 medical residents. Results revealed that one home characteristic and three work characteristics put pressure on the interface between the work and home life, i.e. (1) having a spouse who works overtime frequently, (2) an unfavorable work time schedule, (3) a high quantitative work load, (4) a problematic dependency on the superior. Results further show that WHI was positively associated with emotional exhaustion and
depersonalization (i.e. work related health indicators), as well as with psychosomatic health complaints and sleep deprivation (i.e. general health indicators).

Dorman, and Zapf, (1999), investigated the moderating effects of social support by supervisors and colleagues relative to social stressors at work and depressive symptoms using a structural equations approach in a three wave longitudinal study over one year LISREL analysis with latent moderating effects revealed a moderating effect for supervisor support. This applied only if the time was 8 months, but not for longer or shorter lags under low-support conditions depressive symptoms were increased by social stressors, where as social stressors reduced subsequent depression under high support conditions. No moderating effect for colleague support was found.

Phillips, Dianne, and Mpprison (2000) explored the effects of sex differences of married employees on job satisfaction and work related stress. The dependent variables were (1) job satisfaction, (2) satisfaction with 6 facets of work (kind of work, amount of work, working conditions, coworkers, financial elements, and career future), (3) the effect of work related stress factors on career, (4) the effect of marital or family stress on career, and (5) perceived spousal support for career 242 married employees provided information regarding work satisfaction, work related stress, marital family stress, and spousal support for career than did their male counterparts. Areas of greatest work dissatisfaction for both genders were income and time required at work. No difference was found between the genders in the effect of work related stress on career.

Work Commitment:

A comparative study on Work commitment of employees in United States and India was conducted by Kwantes, C. T. (2003). The components of work commitment were affective, continuance, and normative on four type of OCB- personal industry, individually initiative, interpersonal helping, and loyalty were specifically examined engineers working in five American and
five Indian manufacturing companies. Affective commitment was the only component found to relate to either positive or negative organizational behavior in the American sample while all the three components were differentially related to work behaviors in the Indian sample. In the Indian context normative commitment showed no significant relationship, while affective commitment did show a significant relationship with personal industry.

Biswas (1998) examines the effect of six life style stressors—performance, threat, boredom, frustration, bereavement, and physical damage—on organizational commitment. The sample consisted of 160 managers, supervisors and workers (age 35-53 years) of three large and medium public and private sectors organizations in Baroda. They completed the Demographic Information schedule, the life style stressor Questionnaire, the organizational Commitment Questionnaire, the job involvement Questionnaire, and the perceived Organizational Effectiveness Questionnaire. Results indicated that performance threat and frustration stressors were significant predictors of organizational job involvement. Organizational effectiveness was positively correlated with organizational commitment and job involvement. In comparison to supervisors and workers managers scored higher on organizational commitment and job involvement.

Ahmad and Ansari (1999) used the O.C. Questionnaire (Mowday et.al. 1979) was administered to assess organizational commitment and the biographical Information Blank was also used to obtain information on age, income, job tenure, turnover etc). Results indicated that blue-collars workers expressed a comparatively higher degree of organizational commitment than the owners. Although the owners expressed a moderate level of O.C., they were affected by factors like lack of organizational resources and lack of proper guidance and cooperation from the local authorities and state governments.

Patel (1999), investigated the impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment among 200 bank employees, with an equal
number of Ss from nationalized and co-operative banks, divided into three age groups: young (below 35 years), middle (35-45 years), and older (above 45 years). Results revealed low job involvement and low organizational commitment in the younger group of employees in both types of banks. Significant differences in organizational commitment but not in job involvement were found among the middle group of employees. Nationalized bank employees expressed higher commitment than their counterparts in co-operative banks.

Yousef (2002), conducted a study to explore the mediating role of job satisfaction between role stresses, i.e. role conflict and role ambiguity as sources of stress, on the one hand and on the other hand various facts of organizational commitment, i.e. affective, continuance, and normative, on a sample of 361 employees in a number of organizations in the United Arab Emirates. Path analysis revealed that role ambiguity directly and negatively influences both affective and normative commitments. Results also reveal that job satisfaction directly and positively influenced affective and normative commitments and negatively influenced continuance commitment. The findings also suggest that both role conflict and role ambiguity directly and negatively influence job satisfaction. It also revealed that job satisfaction mediated the influences of role conflict and role ambiguity on various facts of organizational commitment, except continuance commitment.

Gautam Van Dick and Wagner (2001), examined the three-dimensional organizational commitment (OC) concept (Meyer and Allen, 1997) in Nepal by administering standardized questionnaire to a heterogeneous group of 103 employees (average age 40.1 yrs) of four different Nepalese organizations (bank, food corporation, telecommunication and an airline). Exploratory factor and confirmatory factor analyses replicate the dimensionality of O.C. i.e., the three facets of commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) could be found also in a developing country with a cultural background very different from the places where the commitment concept was originally formulated. Antecedents and
consequences of organizational commitment were investigated by multiple regression analysis. Continuance and normative commitment were both explained by job characteristics, i.e. by the perception of the job as interesting, affective commitment could not be explained either the set of variables used in this study.

Delobbe and Vanderberghe (2000), examined the reliability and validity of 4 dimensions of organizational commitment i.e. internalization, compliance, affective and continuance commitment by using 2 samples from various organizational in Belgium. Confirmatory factor analysis by LISREL showed that the 4 factor were reasonably distinct:

a) internalization and affective commitment are strongly correlated with each other and display similar relationships with major criteria variables i.e. met expectations, job satisfaction, and intent to leave,

b) the compliance scale shows weak reliability and needs to be expanded.

Pattanayak and Mishra (1997), attempted to make a comparative assessment of shift and non shift employees in relation to job-satisfaction, perceived organizational-commitment, job stress and HRD climate. The main findings of the study may be summarized as –

(a) Executives were found to have more job satisfaction as compared to supervisors.

(b) No significant differences were observed between shift and non-shift employees on job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.

(c) No significant differences were found between executives and the members of supervisory staff on organizational commitment scores.

(d) Shift employees perceived better HRD climate than non-shift employees. Both executives and supervisors perception of HRD climate did not differ significantly.

(e) Executives and supervisors showed significantly on job stress; supervisors showed higher job stress than executives. No significant difference were observed between and non-shift employees on job stress scores.
Sharma (1997) explored the situational and personal determinants of organizational commitment among skilled workers of a private sector manufacturing organization. The measures of organizational characteristics adequacy of resources and humane and fair management style were significantly and positively related to organizational commitment of the numerous task characteristics, only task difficulty and task ambiguity were significant correlated to commitment. None of the personal characteristics were significantly related to commitment. Situational variables were found to be more important determinants of organizational commitment than personal variables.

Pattanayak (2000) studied the affects of shift work and hierarchical position in the organization on job satisfaction and perceived organizational commitment of 360 employees of the Rourkela Steel Plant. The nature of duty as well as the hierarchical position of employees influenced organizational commitment. Both executives and supervisors in shift and non shift areas experienced an almost similar level of job stress in a number of dimensions with regard to the HRD climate, there was a significant difference between shift and non shift employees irrespective of their job category.

Vashishtha and Mishra (1999) conducted a study to explore the relationship between social support and organizational commitment of supervisors. General population form of Interpersonal Support Evaluation List (ISEL) developed by when Cohen, Mermelstein, Kamarch and Hoberman (1985) and the organizational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1984) were administered on a sample of 200 supervisors employed in Scooters India Limited, Lucknow (U.P). The result revealed that social support has a positive and significant relationship with the organizational commitment of supervisors.

Heffner and Rentsch (2001) presented a model of organizational commitment proposing that social interaction influences affective commitment. They hypothesized that work group social interaction would influence work group affective commitment, social interaction and work group
affective commitment would independently influence organizational affective commitment. The path analytic results supported the hypothesized relationships between social interaction and affective commitment. Comparative analyses showed the employee’s focus of commitment was significantly related to differences between affective & continuance commitment.

Finegan (2000) explored the relationship between personal values, organizational values, and organizational commitment. 121 Ss from a large petrochemical company rated 24 values with respect to how important the value was to the organization. It was found that hierarchical multiple regression analysis 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 behaviour differently.

Abdulla and Shaw (1999) examined the role of personal characteristics (nationality, gender, marital status, education, age, salary, tenure) in organizational commitment in 147 employees of the Ministry of Health in the United Arab Emirates. Result revealed significant relationships between personal characteristics and commitment. Gender, marital status, and branch assignment were the strongest predictors of affective commitment. Nationality interacts significantly with personal characteristics is predicting continuance and affective commitment.

Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002), by using the Meyer and Allen’s (1991) scale contains that the three forms of commitment are related but distinguishable from one another as well as from job satisfaction, job involvement, and occupational commitment. Affective and continuance commitment generally correlated as with the hypothesized antecedent variables. All three forms of commitment related negatively to withdrawal cognition and turnover, and affective commitment had the strongest and most
favorable correlates with organization-relevant (attendance, performance, and organizational citizenship behaviour) and employee relevant (stress and work family conflict) outcomes.

Rhoades, Eisenem and Armeli (2001), conducted three studies and examined the interrelationships between work experience, perceived organizational support (POS), affective commitment (AC), and employee turnover by using a 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 POS and AC in retail employees over a 2 year span and a 3 year span. POS was positively related to temporal changes in AC, suggesting that POS leads to affective commitment. Study 3 found a negative relationship between POS and subsequent voluntary employee turnover that was mediated by AC in retail employees. Their results suggest that favorable work conditions operator via POS to increase affective commitment.

Randall & O’ Driscoll (1997), studied higher levels of calculative commitment in a sample of 350 employees of a 4 diary co-operatives were associated with organizational policies, perceived organizational values, and bonds to various facts of the organization. This pattern of findings was reversed for level of affective commitment.

Clay and Aryee (1999) examined the generalizability of the concept of careerist orientation and its implications for work attitudes in a collectivist culture. They studied on employees (means age 31 yrs) working full time in Singapore completed structured questionnaires that measured these variables. The results supported the generalizability of careerist orientation across cultures and showed an absence of a moderating influence for career growth opportunities, suggesting that organizations cannot effectively counter the negative effects of careerist orientation on work attitudes.

Sturges, Guest, Conway and Davey (2002), investigated the relationships between organizational and individual career management
activities and organizational commitment in the early years of graduate careers. Data were obtained from 212 graduates (mean age 26-31 yrs). The findings suggested that high organizational commitment predicts the practice of career management activities, by graduates to further their career within the organization while low commitment is closely associated with behaviour aimed at furthering the career outside the organization.

Hirschfeld and Field (2000) tested the proposition that identification with the work role and engaged in the work. The investigators focused on whether work centrality and work alienation exhibited theoretically-meaningful, differential correlation with 6 variables (work ethic, leisure ethic, work locus of control) work self discipline, job involvement – role and affective organizational commitment. The results of the study showed that people who are highly committed to work not only identify with the work role; they are also engaged in the work itself.

Cannon (1998) analyzed the concept of organizational commitment as related to personal interferences that conflict with in a sample of 300 hold employees. The results showed that an inverse relationship was found between organizational commitment and certain types of interferences, specially child care and medical problems.

Cheung (2000) examined the commitment to organization in exchange for support from their organization. This article uses exchange theory to examine the reciprocal relationships between an employee’s commitment to the employing organization and support given by the organization in the content of a non western society. The author found that employee’s organizational commitment and perceived organizational support exhibited strong reciprocal 7 positive relationships with control for number of background characteristics. The author also suggested that exchange theory explains a large part of organizational commitment of Taiwanese employees like that of American employees.

Metcalfe and Dick (2000) measured the police commitment. They analyzed the extent to which organizational commitment is shaped by:
employees experiences of the level of management support, organization support & performance appraisal. They found that these factors strongly influence at all ranks. The new findings reveal that the level of commitment varies according to position in the hierarchy and police commitment increases with tenure.

Riketta and Landerer (2002), assumed that attitudinal organizational commitment (AOC) and accountability to an external audience mutually behaviour. These hypotheses were tested for two types of work behaviour i.e. in role performance and organizational citizenship behaviour. The findings showed that the correlation between attitudinal organizational commitment and in-role performance was higher for low as opposed to high accountability and the correlation between accountability and in-role performance was higher for low as opposed to higher attitudinal organizational commitment.

Cannings (1992) conducted a study to analyze the extent to which corporate employees are merely attached to their firm rather than committed. A model of managerial loyalty was developed where loyalty was described as a function of percentage pay increase that an employee would require to leave the current firm for alternative employment. This model got strong support during stable environment & not found strong support in case of turbulent environment (i.e. during privatization and deregulation).

Cohen (1992), examined whether the relationships between organizational commitment and its antecedents differed across occupational groups. The member model focused on personal variable, while the organizational model focused on role related structural and work experience variables. The study was based on the sample group of N=98. The total sample was divided into two main occupational groups: white collar employees that were again sub divided into professionals and non professionals, and blue collar employees, general, the relationship between organizational commitment and personal antecedents representing the member model was stronger for blue collar and non-professional white-collar employees than for professional employees. For the organizational model differences among the occupational groups were less consistent.
Sharma and Pandey (1995) tested the hypothesis that the quality of work life (QWL) perception will show significant relationship with the organizational commitment of managers in India. Two hundred young managers (age between 25-17 yrs) were selected from five levels of the managerial hierarchy. Results reveal that perceptions of QWL were significantly and positively related to organizational commitment. Moreover, QWL work involvement of individual and organizational goals was found to be significant predictors of organizational commitment of managers.

Casper, Martin, Buffardi and Edwins (2002) investigated the impact of work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW) on women's organizational commitment and examined both the direct and moderating effects of their perceived and organizational support. The study found that WIF was positively related to continuance commitment but unrelated to affective commitment. FIW was not related to either form of organizational commitment.

Donald, Katheleen and Daniel (1994) studied that how family life influence the work behaviour. This research was undertaken to test four competing hypothesis about the effects of family life on a woman's job performance and work attitudes. They used the sample of 94 non professional women and they completed several work and family oriented questionnaires. Their managers provided job performance ratings of the four hypotheses tested (diffusion of energy; spillover effect; compensatory effect; and motherhood demands), the pattern of results best support the motherhood demands hypothesis. Results showed that women with children were significantly lower in occupational commitment relative to women without children.

Clugston, Howell and Dorfman (2000) introduced a new measure of supervisor commitment by extending the three dimensions of organizational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1991) to two other foci; supervisor & work group. These five dimensions are as follows:- identification with supervisor, internalization of supervisor; extra effort for supervisor; and attachment to supervisor.
Powel and Meyer (2004), tested Becker’s (1960) side-bet conceptualization of commitment within the context of Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three component model of organizational commitment. The findings of the study provided strong support for Becker’s theory. All seven side-bet categories correlated significantly with a revised measure of high sacrifice continuance commitment, and structural equations modeling analysis revealed that the relations between the side bets and turnover intention were fully mediated by commitment. The findings also address issues pertaining to the dimensionality and measurement of continuance commitment and help to explain relations among the three components of commitment.

Vanderberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber (2004) conducted three longitudinal studies to investigate the usefulness of distinguishing among employees affective commitment to the organization, the supervisor, and the work group. Study 1, with 199 employees from various organizations, found that affective commitment to these entities were factorially distinct and related differentially distinct and related differentially to their theorized antecedents. Study 2, with a diversified sample of 316 employees, showed that organizational commitment. (a) had an indirect effect on turnover through intent to quit (b) partially mediated the effect of commitment to the effect of commitment to the supervisor on intent to quit, and (c) completely mediated the affect of commitment to the work group on intent to quit. Study 3, with matched data collected from 194 nurses and their immediate supervisors, determined that (a) commitment to the supervisor had a direct effect on job performance, and (b) organizational commitment had an indirect effect on job performance through commitment to the supervisor.

However, study three failed to show any effect of commitment to the work group on performance.

Hypothesis

In the light of relevant research literature reviewed and keeping the objectives of present research in mind, it is imperative to mention that while
carrying out any scientific investigation there is need to formulate hypotheses to draw meaningful inferences concerning to the population of interest. The following null hypotheses were formulated, concerning our investigation purpose.

H₀₁. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for male employees.

H₀₂. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for female employees.

H₀₃. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for male employees.

H₀₄. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for female employees.

H₀₅. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for male employees.

H₀₆. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for female employees.

H₀₇. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for male employees.

H₀₈. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for female employees.

H₀₉. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for older males.

H₀₁₀. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for younger males.

H₀₁₁. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for older males.

H₀₁₂. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for younger males.

H₀₁₃. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for older males.

H₀₁₄. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for younger males.
$H_{015}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for older males.

$H_{016}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for younger males.

$H_{017}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for married males.

$H_{018}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for unmarried males.

$H_{019}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for married males.

$H_{020}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for unmarried males.

$H_{021}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for married males.

$H_{022}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for unmarried males.

$H_{023}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for married males.

$H_{024}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for unmarried males.

$H_{025}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for high job tenure male employees.

$H_{026}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for low job tenure male employees.

$H_{027}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for high job tenure male employees.

$H_{028}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for low job tenure male employees.

$H_{029}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for high job tenure male employees.

$H_{030}$. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for low job tenure male employees.
Ho31. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for high job tenure male employees.

Ho32. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for low job tenure male employees.

Ho33. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for older female employees.

Ho34. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for younger female employees.

Ho35. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for older female employees.

Ho36. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for younger female employees.

Ho37. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for older female employees.

Ho38. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for younger female employees.

Ho39. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for older female employees.

Ho40. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for younger female employees.

Ho41. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for married female employees.

Ho42. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for unmarried female employees.

Ho43. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for married females.

Ho44. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for unmarried females.

Ho45. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for married females.

Ho46. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for unmarried females.
Ho47. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for married females.

Ho48. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for unmarried females.

Ho49. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for highly experienced female employees.

Ho50. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of affective commitment for low job tenure female employees.

Ho51. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for highly experienced females.

Ho52. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of continuance commitment for low job tenure female employees.

Ho53. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for high job tenure female employees.

Ho54. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of normative commitment for low job tenure female employees.

Ho55. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for high job tenure female employees.

Ho56. Daily hassles and extra-organizational stressors would not be the predictors of total work commitment for low job tenure females.