Chapter Two
Review of Literature
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Review of Literature

The second chapter deals with the review of literature in relation to the variables of the proposed research topic. Literature review is carried on to gather information regarding the work done in the past and also to ascertain what is being done currently in the context of variables of the study under investigation. This in turn particularly helps in gathering the information about the topic which is being researched upon. It is also useful in selecting the predictor as well as the criterion variables; selection of research methodology and finally in the statistical data-analysis. At the same time it also helps in the discussion and interpretation of the research findings.

In the proposed study, in all four currently relevant variables are selected. Quality of working life and role stress are the two independent variables, whereas, perceived organizational commitment and psychological well-being further are the two dependent variables. Efforts had been taken to condense only relevant and exhaustive studies conducted so far.

STUDIES ON QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE

Quality of Working Life or QWL has always been important in studying organizational behaviour. In present scenario of high technology world, it has become a great concern for management as well as employees. Quality of working life is the most substantial work related behavioural phenomenon, which has positive impact on productivity and effectiveness at large. Though there are a number of studies conducted time to time on quality of working life of administrative staff, educators, teachers, hardly any study was conducted to assess the quality of working life of various levels bank managers. However, attention has been given to as many studies as would pertain to research problem in hand.

Payne and Pheysey (1971), had conducted studies on organizational climate. Organizational climate scales were correlated with three facets of Job Descriptive Index Scale namely, satisfaction with work, supervision and pupil. Sample was of 348 managers, supervisors and staff personnel. Positive correlations were obtained between positive perception of organizational climate and job satisfaction. This was to highlight quality of employee's work life. Job satisfaction is an indication of positive quality of working life (QWL). Hence, whatever studies will be put forth on job satisfaction would be determining relationship of some variable with QWL as job satisfaction is a good indicator of QWL.

Pestonjee (1973), reported that supportive organizations are positively related to workers morale and job-satisfaction. Similarly, in a study conducted by Schneider and Snyder (1975), it was found that climate and satisfaction are
positively correlated, and almost the same result was found in a study of Lafollette and Sims (1975), as they found organizational climate and organizational practice correlated to jobs. Rajappa (1978), found that organizations with achievement oriented climate were highly productive.

Costello and Sang (1974), reported that majority of job incumbents of publicly owned utility firms were satisfied with security and social needs but, were different in the fulfillment of increase order needs – self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualization. Study made by Rhinehard et.al (1969), on managers, compared managers working in government agencies with those from business and industries. They found that perceived deficiency in need fulfillment likely to increase successively at lower level which was almost similar to the findings of Johnson and Marcrum (1968). Their study also revealed that increased dissatisfaction was found among managers of government agencies as compared to managers of business and industries.

Balkrishnan (1976), examined the relational importance of physical, social, financial, security, achievement, responsibility, recognition, and growth factors of industrial employees. Results indicated that financial and physical factors were very important as compared to other factors. Workers were found to be above physical and safety needs and were somewhere between social and ego needs.

Kumar and Bohra (1978), studied relationship of workers job satisfaction with their perception about existing organizational climate. Results revealed that perceived organizational climate effects workers job satisfaction significantly. Workers perceiving organizational climate as democratic had increase in job satisfaction as compared to those who perceived organizational climate as autocratic or undecided.

Singhal (1983), emphasized on the job quality of life where it is pointed out that quality of working life (QWL) will be meaningful if the people working in organization live a happy life in society. Economic, family and health related aspects to which employees are exposed as member of larger significant-society are significant factors that influence their quality of working life (QWL) experience. He also made a point that QWL is a time and situation bound concept that requires constant revisions and modifications as psycho-socio and organizational contents change over time.

Sharma (1983), studied the importance of organizational climate for employed manager and satisfaction at work. The study consisted of 50 industrial organizations which were surveyed. Observation was – work related facets like, grievance handling; recognition; opportunities for growth and development and participative management have been found to be important
factor for healthy organizational climate, which enhances work motivation and satisfaction of job incumbents. Almost same results were obtained by Srivastava and Pratap (1984), who found a significant positive relationship between positive perception of organizational climate and job satisfaction.

Kornbluh (1984), suggested that the contribution of increased worker’s participation in decision-making is appearing more often on labour-management agenda as a strategy to increased employee’s QWL. The reason for management interest include need for (i) increased probability positive quality (ii) improving QWL for the new workers who are educated and have good work ethics, but are alienated and unmotivated under current management practices (iii) meeting foreign competition.

Levine, et al. (1984), made an attempt to develop a definition and measure of QWL. In a specific case setting, 64 employees engaged from large insurance company Delphi Panel constituted in defining QWL. A 34 item QWL questionnaire was developed from that definition. Tested on 450 employees of company, results showed 7 predictors of QWL, which extended beyond job content.7 predictors, were (i) Organization to which supervisors show respect and have confidence in employee’s abilities. (ii) Variety in a daily work routine (iii) Work challenges (iv) Organization to which present work leads to good future opportunities (v) Self-esteem (vi) Extent to which life outside work affects work (vii) Extent to which work contributes to society.

Rice and others (1984-85), found out the relationship between work satisfaction and quality of life. Work experience and outcomes can affect person’s general quality of life both directly or indirectly through their effects on family interaction, leisure activities and levels of health and energy. Modification in workplace can have their effect by changing environment or changing worker’s own class and they can affect his quality and family life.

Braun (1985), presented a paper at annual meeting of rural sociological society in which he propounded some important suggestions regarding QWL programmes and industrial justice. According to him currently, QWL programmes exists only to increase physical productivity, never to decrease it for the benefit of increased workers happiness. To properly judge true productivity based on industrial justice, there must be a great societal and worker’s voice on how productivity is defined. Small benefits to the company at great cost to worker’s and to society at large are to be avoided. Such costs include speed up discrimination, reduction in work freedom through increased setting of standards, lack of flexibility in setting up and enforcing standards, pseudo-careerism, and defining out of existence of unskilled workers that had served as a social buffer to provide jobs for anyone, no matter what is his experience. Industrial justice requires that workers be allowed to produce with
an average rather than an extra-ordinary amount of effort, and that they have right to demand sympathy on occasions.

Graham (1985), investigated worker’s support and rejection attitude towards QWL programmes on the sample of shop floor workers. Results indicated that attitude towards QWL leads to four generalization (i) When workers experience increased influence and organizations in their relation with management they likely support QWL (ii) When this greater influence enable them to obtain changes in both job procedure and working conditions, they are likely to continue their participation (iii) If QWL increased cooperation among workers, they will support it, but if it increased competition they will likely reject their programme (iv) Worker’s support for a QWL programme is likely to be maintained only if the power of union in bargaining is not hindered. When QWL programmes have such positive effects on these four sets of relations, workers ability to obtain changes in workplace to which they see as significant, is increased and their support for increased cooperative relation with management is most likely to be developed and then maintained.

Sengupta and Sekaran (1985), studied bank employees and found, QWL in bank is not high and he gave reasons for the same. External environment (government and union interference) facing the banks are seen as impendent to take effective actions by banks. Findings showed that government formulating broad policies, leave it to banks to attain goal by whichever means they think, greater decentralization, more autonomy and power will facilitate banks to recruit right people, design job as per requirements, rewards employee differentially on the basis of performance and enhance QWL and offer quality service to people.

Chakraborty (1986), found out that there are many organizational situations which indicate hidden realities of QWL. Researchers are required to examine QWL in light of new paradigm based on study of Indian psycho-philosophy offered from a strict problem-solving point of view and may have relevance to educate predicting managers.

Keller (1987), studied relative contribution of work and non-work variables on QWL among different ethics groups.127 White, 30 Hispanic, 33 American Banker and 121 Mexicans were taken as the subjects. Results showed no significant relationship between ethics’ groups and QWL. Home life and family network variables accounted for increased variance in QWL than did work variables like jobs, job-stress and job level.

Dhillon and Dandona (1988), conducted a study on “QWL and Job Involvement: A comparative study of managers of public and private banks.” The study found significant difference in QWL variable related to job
involvement in public and private sector banks. Karrier and Khurana (1996), found managers with increased job satisfaction and more job involvement had perception of increased QWL.

Srivastava (1996) pointed out that organizational climate and higher order needs (self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualization) are positively related to job involvement. This study has not denoted variables which had been undertaken for study as term QWL but also organizational climate, higher order needs and all other bio-social needs which are determinants of QWL. Therefore, it is not always necessary to use the term QWL but the variables are attributed to the aspect referring to QWL.

Gary (1988), tested the specific hypothesis regarding apprenticeship-socialization strategy, using sample of new insurance company employees. He found that perceived quality of intern-assignment managers work relationship to have important direct and moderating effect on intern work outcomes. Quality of work relationship was significantly positively related to intern met expectations, role clarity, organizational commitment, and performance.

Chakraborty (1989), suggested that quality of domestic life transmits its inevitable effect on quality of home life so as to reduce the intensity of stress experience in context of work life. According to one forecast, by the end of 1990, 50% of American children will belong to single parent or no parent category, is used by author in constructing major emerging scenario of stress. He warned Indians to restrain from uncalled problems of socio-cultural changes. There exist reinforcing cycle of stressors both at home and in workplace.

Mee Lin and Bain (1990), have studied relationship between QWL programmes and organizational performance measures through a review of 27 studies on unionized firms. Impact of QWL on organizational effectiveness (performance of labour management relations and economic and non-economic performance of the firms) was measured in these studies at 3 levels: (i) industrial (ii) group division/store (iii) plant/store of industry. All studies found favourable attitude of workers towards QWL programmes and 7 of 10 studies at division level and at job 10 macro level studies found positive effect of QWL programmes on productivity. At 3 levels employee participation measures and job redesign were the approaches of QWL programmes were most commonly implemented by both union and management. Mixed impact of QWL programmes on absenteeism, grievances, turnover, discipline, and labour relations.

Havlovic (1991), studied the influence of QWL initiatives on HR outcomes. Data was collected by unionized Midwestern heavy manufacturing firm for
period during 1976-1986. Results indicated that QWL initiatives significantly reduce absenteeism, minor or accidents, grievances and quits.

Venkatachalam, et al. (1997), studied that production increased with change adapted by increased QWL. Perception of employees, several other factors like security, autonomy, equity of pay and rewards help to increase QWL, satisfaction, involvement, work environment and so on. Some findings showed significant positive relationship between QWL and organizational commitment.

Nasreen and Ansari (1997), conducted a study on supervisors and middle level managers and reported that socio-psycho personality variables failed to influence QWL perceptions. Barkat and Ansari (1997), found significant influence of job tenure and number of promotions earned on perceived QWL. The above two studies did not include job involvement but are important to highlight relationship of biographical and psycho-social personality variable in relation to QWL. Job involvement is a phenomenon which is outcome of perception of increase QWL in which aspects like identification with work, organization, as well as incumbent conductive conditions. Most appropriate to work and working environment as above all variables combined together determine level of job involvement.

Lan and May (1998), examined how perceived image of a company’s QWL will affect its market and financial performance growth. Profitability of two groups of company was compared, based on sales growth, assets growth, return on equity, and return to assets. Results indicated companies with increased QWL can also enjoy exceptional growth and profitability.

Robert (1998), presented a summary of determined tests of the assumption that success rates are so low in organizational commitment that doubt or cynicism constitute the appropriate mind-sets. This opinion continues to appear in the literature, both scientific and popular, despite the existence of several large data sets that could either reinforce the doubt or cynicism, or require variously nuanced caveats about them. 16 major data sets are reviewed in effect to sketch some confidence intervals concerning reasonable estimates of success rates in varieties of planned change commonly labeled as QWL; organizational development and organizational commitment.

Donaldson, et al. (1999), studied a major incentive for work-site. Health promotion activities promised increase of company’s profitability. Although employee sleep patterns predicted health care utilization and psychological well-being, for most of the part employee-health behaviours were not strong predictors of proximal organizational effectiveness factors. However, QWL factors significantly predicted organizational commitment, absenteeism, and
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tardiness frequency. Findings suggested the value of improving the system of work in which employees are embedded as part of comprehensive work-site health promotion efforts.

Eden (2000), described the importance of different factors in relation to quality of working life among individuals (aged 25-29 years) granted early retirement due to disorders of the musculoskeletal system. Explanatory variables concerning poor quality of life were established among disability pensioners with musculoskeletal disorders and a control group. In both groups, health status, leisure time activities, and social network were important for quality of life. Among the retirees immigration, employment before retirement, and a negative attitude to the disability pension were related to poor quality of life.

Pirjo and Seppo (2000), measured six dimensions of QWL to find out the relationship of burnout and QWL in the retail trade versus metal industry. Some demographic variables were included in the analysis. Results showed the great impact of psychological job demands on burnout in both business lines. The impact of the other five indexes (conflict, job-control, work of superior, organization of work, and monotonous job) on burnout was different in these two business lines. Still variables had some impact on burnout in both the retail trade and in the metal industry. Age turned out to be a complicated factor in relation to burnout.

Chan, et al. (2000), compared the experiences of work stress, work satisfaction and mental health on 2,589 managers and workers from six different professions and para-professions, namely; general practitioners, lawyers, engineers, teachers, nurses, and life insurance personal. Results showed that performance pressures and work family conflicts were perceived to be the most stressful aspects of work. Two of the stressors contributed to the overall work stress. Further, stress arising due to work, family conflicts, performance pressure and poor job prospect was negatively associated with level of work satisfaction. These findings were discussed in contexts of increasing professionalization, and deprofessionalization and growing emphasis on productivity and efficiency in a quickly developing economy.

Sirgy, et al. (2002), developed a new measure of QWL based on need satisfaction and spillover theories. The measure was designed to capture the extent to which the work environment, job requirement, supervisory behavior, and ancillary programmes in an organization are perceived to meet the needs of employees. Seven major needs were identified, each having several dimensions. There are: (a) Health and safety needs (b) Economic and family needs (c) Social needs (d) esteem needs (e) Self-actualization needs (f) knowledge needs (g) Aesthetic needs. The measures convergent and
discriminant validities were tested and the data provided support to construct validity of QWL measuring. Further, the measures nomological (predictive) validity was tested by hypothesis deduced from spill over theory.

**STUDIES ON ROLE STRESS**

The second, and also the second independent variable of the study is Role Stress. Stress of job life develops negative and positive attitudes about various aspects of job in the employee, which ultimately generate the feeling of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the employees. This leads to study the stress, arising out of role played by an employee in an organization.

Jhonson (1979), investigated the relationship of situational and individual differences. Variables with role stress, psychosomatic symptoms and jobs in entry level police and safety officers. Increase role stress was significantly correlated with decrease group cohesiveness, increase need for independence, decrease need for achievement, increase dogmatism, decrease distortion in responding, external locus of control, and more psychosomatic symptoms.

Fielder et al. (1979), investigated the conditions under which personnel in leadership and staff position effectively use their intelligence and experience in performance of their task in military organizations. Results provides consistent evidence that individual use their intelligence if the relationship with immediate superior is non-stressful. They fail to use their intelligence or misuse it, if the stress with superior is high. Experience is used effectively when this stress is increase not decrease.

Shah (1980) studied impact of stress or sample of officers representing cooperative banks, marketing and consumer society, industrial society and cooperative departments. Physiological changes felt by these officers were fatigue, exhaustion, migraine, headaches, hypertension, and decrease of appetite, indigestion, sleeplessness and dizziness.

Parasuram (1981) conducted a study on individual in middle and junior level positions. Found that role frustration and technical problems were major sources of stress that is stressors reflecting quantitative overload, decrease status, and adequate supervisory instruction and impediments to task accomplishment in form of technical resource inadequacies that managers tended to be more production and quality.

Sen (1982), reported that bank-managers with intermediate level of qualification experience decrease inter-role distance, role autonomy, role overload, because such employees knowing that they are educationally handicapped in going up in the organization, takes their duties rather lightly.
Srivastava (1982), examined whether or not the employee’s potentiality produce comparatively increase influence upon their perception of role stress. Results showed employee with low and high production group significantly differed from each other with respect to their indices of perceived role stress. Employees’ producing higher was observed to perceive low ambiguities, conflicts and work load with respect to their job roles as compared to those belonging to low production group.

Koch et al. (1981), investigated the relationship between perceived job related stress and certain personal characteristics among school administrators. Four factors of perceived job stress (role based stress, conflict mediating stress, task-based stress, and bounding based stress) were extracted. They found that each of these two factors were related to respondents’ self-report of physical health. These factors of perceived job-stress were found to have differential effects among subjects depending upon respondent’s age, year of administrative experience and position in organization.

Jagdish (1983), studied the relationship of occupational stress with job satisfaction and mental health of first level of supervisors. He reported that occupational stress arising from role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, group and political pressures, responsibility for persons, under participation, powerlessness, poor peer relations, intrinsic impoverishment, low status, strenuous working condition and unprofitability significantly impaired the supervisor’s job satisfaction, overall as well as area wise. He further reported that occupational stress showed a more inverse relationship with on-the-job dimensions of satisfaction than with its off-the-job dimensions.

Cooke and Rousseau (1984), investigated the contradictory models of effects of family role and work-role expectations on strain in teachers. Role theory predicts that multiple roles can lead to stressors (work-overload, and inter-role conflict), and in turn to symptoms of strain. Results indicated that work expectations were found to be related to work overload and inter-role conflict, and these stressors were found to be related to strain. Family roles were found to be related to strain in three ways: they interact with work role expectations, so that the relation between these expectations and work overload is progressively greater for single teachers than those who are married, and those who have children; they are indirectly related to strain through their relation to inter-role conflict; and finally, they are directly and negatively associated with physical strain when their relation to inter-role conflict is controlled.

Osipaw et al (1985), showed that older respondents generally reported increased overload and responsibility, boundary role and physical environmental stresses than did their young counterparts. Older subjects displayed a trend towards decrease vocational, psychological, physiological
and interpersonal strain than did younger ones, and increase recreational self care and rational-cognitive resources than younger subjects. Their study brings out possibility of age moderating stress strain relationship.

Ahmad et al. (1985), conducted a study of stress among executives. Thirty executives from personal and private sectors were compared on role stress. Out of ten dimensions, significant difference in three dimensions, that is, role isolation, role autonomy, and self-role distance was found. It was also found that public sector executives had slightly increased stress than private sector executives.

Jasmine (1987), compared job related stress among public and private sector blue-collar employees. Role incumbents of public sector organization experiences significantly higher role stress than subjects of private sector organizations.

Vachom (1987), conducted a study on executives and pointed out that role stress may occur not only during one’s official professional job but may also result from the fact that they are expected to continue their role when they are outside the organization. Thus, Vachom’s views provide significant information that role stress does not only have its impact within the organization but, also outside the organization that is in the family and other segment of socio-cultural conditions.

Srilatha (1988), found young and higher earning salary managers experience higher organizational satisfaction, role overload, and role conflict than managers who were older and earned less salary.

Srilatha (1988), investigated that opportunity for promotion was negative and significantly associated with role stress variables. Managers, who received five or higher promotions exhibited significance, lower role overload, role conflict and overall stress than those who had not received any promotion.

Singh (1988), studied stress experiences of 250 juniors and middle level executives belonging to seven private and three public sector organizations of North India. Junior level executives experienced higher stress (namely lack of group cohesiveness, role conflict, inequity, role autonomy, role overload, lack of leadership support, inadequacy of role authority) than their middle level counterparts.

Chaudhry (1990), studied the relationship between role stress and job satisfaction among bank officers. Results revealed that role stress and job satisfaction were negatively correlated in high as well as low age group of bank officers.
Siegrist and Klein (1990), analyzed the influence of chronic occupational stress on cardiovascular reactivity in healthy blue-collar male workers. High occupational stress leads to high blood pressure elevations under challenge than did subjects with lower level of stress.

Akhtar and Vadra (1990), pointed out that there are many sources of stress within the organization which are directly or indirectly related to outside events. Amongst other factors, family and society have its higher impact such as illness of any family members, conflict between members of family, family financial crises etc.

Singh and Nath (1991), explored the effects of organizational role stress on job involvement among banking personals. Results revealed higher organizational role stress (overall as well as dimensions wise) were lower involved in comparison to subjects of lower organizational role stress.

Srivastava and Krishna (1991), examined the relationship of different degrees of occupational stress with job performance of technical workers in a locomotive industry. Subjects experienced moderate level of stress performed job most efficiently and low and high occupational stress correlated positively and negatively with job performance.

Ganesan and Johnson (1992), examined occupational stress and health among supervisors. They reported that organizational group and career stressors were experienced by the supervisors in the lower range but these stressors were indicators of a possible causal relationship to physical and psychological symptoms and to the physiological indicator of stress.

Reddy and Ramamurti (1992), investigated job-stress among executives. They found out that older executives experienced more stress in the area of relationship with colleagues, role in organization, working conditions and home work interface. However they experienced low stress in some areas of organizational structure, its development and relationship with the boss.

Vander and de Hues (1993) examined difference between male and female Dutch managers in work stress, social support, and strains. Work and life support negatively correlated with work stress. Only work support was strongly related to each measure of strain.

Terry et al. (1993), hypothesized that higher level of work stress would have a negative impact on job satisfaction and psychological well-being and availability of work related support from supervisors buffered the negative effects of work stress that is role conflict and work overload.
Akinnusi (1994), found out education to be significantly associated with stress. The higher qualified the managers, the higher psychological stress they experience. They are also highly subjected to organizational stressors but suffer low job stress, probably because they occupy positions of authority and their jobs are more intrinsically satisfying than their lower qualified counterparts.

Mishra (1994), reported that under particular situation some stressors did not have moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and involvement.

Spielberger and Reheiser (1994), measured perceived psychological severity and anxiety of thirty job stressors events. Overall stress levels were similar for male and female but gender difference was found in perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of individual for events. Managerial group was higher on job satisfaction than clerks.

Chandraiah et al. (1996), examined the incidence of occupational stress, job satisfaction and type ‘A’ behaviour among 255 managers (upper middle level). They reported that junior managers experienced higher job related tension, particularly in terms of home work interface as well as lower job satisfaction on the “job itself”.

Anirudh (1997), developed a model for predicting role efficacy and role stress of workers and supervisors using demographic variables like age, education, and experience. Out of eleven models, development and prediction of ten dimensions of role stress to all eight models and predictions of role-stagnation, role-erosion, role-x-on, personal inadequacy, self-role distance, role autonomy, role inadequacy and role stress total were found to be good predictors.

Mishra (1997), conducted a study to compare the level of occupational stress among public and private sectors public relation officers. He found that PRO of public sector experienced significantly higher occupational stress on the dimensions of role ambiguity, role conflict, reasonable group and political pressures, powerlessness, poor peer relations at work, intrinsic impoverishment, low status and strenuous work conditions as compared to PRO’s of private sector. He also explored that, PROs of private sector were significantly higher on role overload than the PROs of public sector.

Jagdish and Singh (1997), examined the moderating effect of hierarchical level on occupational stress and strain, job satisfaction and mental health. They reported a significant relationship between job satisfaction and
occupational stress. However, this was not observed in case of occupational stress and mental health.

Rajendran et al. (1997), measured occupational stress and different coping strategies employed by executives during stressful encounters. Two groups-executives of neurosis control group differed significantly in work, role ambiguity, poor peer relations, low status, strenuous working conditions, responsibility, under participation and powerlessness. Significant difference was observed between acting strategy and interpersonal strategy of coping used by comparison group.

Venkatammal (1998), examined stress experienced by teachers of Annamalai University. Results revealed factor of autonomy, factor of stress do not differ significantly on occupational stress for male and female. Teachers who are just satisfied with their jobs show high stress than those who are highly satisfied with their jobs.

Pandey (1998), explored relationship between personality dimensions of individuals and their perceived organizational role stress. Results indicated that psychotic reality and neuroticism stability dimensions were found positively associated with individual's perceived organizational role stress; whereas extroversion-introversion dimension was found to be negatively associated with perceived organizational role stress.

Ritsa and Cooper (1998), examine the findings of large community-wide survey on occupational stress and job satisfaction. They reported that job satisfaction was greater among the high socio-economic groups. Hey also found out that the issue of “Control” was significant in predicting greater job satisfaction among social classes, but not for mental or physical well-being.

Yu Shanfa et. al (1998), studied occupational stress of 121 Chinese steel work employees and 122 managers. They explored that organizational structure and climate and relationship with other people was important predictor for workers. Moreover, management process and organizational forces emerged as strongest prediction of job satisfaction for both managers and workers.

Malik and Sabhrawal (1999), carried out a study to analyze relationship between role stress and locus of control. Results indicated that externally controlled subjects perceived higher role stress in three areas namely role-expectation conflict, role overload and role ambiguity as compared to their counterparts.

Mohan and Chauhan (1999), reported that higher level executives experienced less stress and strain as compared to the middle and lower level executives, utilized better coping strategies and enjoyed more positive outcomes.
Moreover, executives of public sector organizations experienced less effective coping strategies and rated themselves as less effective than their counterparts from private sector.

Upadhaya and Singh (1999), found that executives as well as the teachers experienced a moderate level of stress, executives experienced more stress as compared to teachers. The results revealed a significant difference between these two groups on the experience of stress on factor such as role overload, intrinsic impoverishment and status variable.

Pradhan and Mishra (1999), explored experience of occupational role stress (ORS) perception of HRD climate among 120 younger (25-45 years old) versus 120 older (45-65 years old) executives from public versus private sector occupational sector. Subjects completed measures of ORS and HRD climate. Younger subjects significantly differed from older subjects with respect to their experiences of role stagnation, role ambiguity and self-role distance, suggesting that younger subjects experienced slightly higher stress with respect to role expectations conflict on total ORS scores. There were significant differences between younger and older subjects and between public and private sectors subjects with respect to perception of HRD climate. There were significant differences due to age but not due to public versus private sector.

Peiro et al. (2001), examined the effects over three role stress variables (role-conflict, role-ambiguity, role-overload) on three burnout dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment). Results revealed three role stress variables predict emotional exhaustion overtime. Role ambiguity predicts personal accomplishment overtime.

**STUDIES ON PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Studies conducted, on this particular variable, till recently, relate directly or indirectly to general organizational commitment. In the present endeavour, perceived organizational commitment will be taken into consideration. Organizational commitment being the primary source of positive attitude towards job and job related aspects plays a vital role in industrial psychology. Due to the pivot of the interest in perceived organizational commitment, it is kept in the focus and several studies have been reported in literature review on the same. Some of the studies sought to find out relative importance of organizational commitment. Some studies attempted to determine relationship between organizational commitment and work characteristics. Some studies have ascertained factorial structures and sought to find out work related differences related to organizational commitment.
Bruning and Snyder (1983), investigated and concluded that respondent’s sex and their employment position are predictors of employee’s commitment. 583 employees of social service organizations were taken. The findings failed to predict organizational commitment as a function of employee’s hierarchal position and sex difference.

Fukami and Larison (1984), tested parallel models of commitment to company and commitment to union on a sample (N= 114) of transportation department employee of a unionized metropolitan newspaper. Results showed organizational commitment model is lowly successful in predicting union commitment than company commitment. Most striking divergence occurred with respect to personal characteristics, which were significantly correlated with extraneous variables related to supervisory relations and social involvement were significantly correlated with both union and company commitment.

Williams and Hazer (1986), reviewed the model of commitment to identify the casual relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, to identify the antecedents of these variables. Results indicated support relationship between personal or organizational characteristics and job satisfaction and between satisfaction and commitment. Moreover, commitment was also found an important aspect of turnover.

Bhattacharya and Verma (1986), studied 160 executives of Bharat Cooking Coal Limited, Dhanbad. Results showed organizational commitment, need satisfaction, and managerial respect were significant and positively related with job satisfaction both either independently or in conjunction thereof.

Jhonson (1990), investigated how changes in key antecedents (leadership behaviour, role stress and job satisfaction) influenced the development in commitment and how changes in commitment affected turnover intentions and behaviour. 102 sales people suggested that role ambiguity and job satisfaction (but not leadership behaviour) is significant contributors to the development of organizational commitment during early employment. Moreover organizational commitment influenced turnover through its significant impact on prosperity to leave.

Luthans et al. (1992), evaluated importance of social support for employee’s commitment and found strong positive correlation between strong supportive climate and bank tellers organizational commitment.

Christopher (1994), examined the perceived political climate organizational commitment, and job satisfaction of 119 employees of a financial service
firm. Their status or level in the firm was rated by firm's personal manager. Results showed employee's level or status moderated the relationship among political climate, commitment and satisfaction.

Angle and Lawson (1994), studied the relationship between employee's commitment and performance in manufacturing firm. Link between organizational commitment and performance may depend on extent to which motivation rather than ability underling performance.

Vandenberg and Scrapello (1994), investigated in one of their longitudinal study the relationship between employee's commitment to occupation and organization and they viewed occupational commitment as casual antecedent to organizational commitment (N=100). First management system professional supported through cross-lagged analysis. Further, authors examined longitudinal causal model of turnover process in which occupational commitment was placed as an antecedent to organizational commitment.

Akhtar and Jan (1994), examined organizational commitment questionnaire on 259 retail bank employees. Factor analysis founded three dimensions proposed by Porter et al. first dimension, that is, desire to maintain organizational commitment overlaps the withdrawal construct. Consistent with three-dimensional attitude theory, organizational commitment was re-conceptualized in terms of cognitive, conative and emotive meanings. Proposed dimensions include need commitment, ambiguity commitment, volititve commitment (extent of conative orientation towards organizational goals).

Lowe and Vodanovich (1995), examined the effect of distributive (outcomes) and procedural factors on the satisfaction and organizational commitment. Results indicated aspects of distributive (outcomes) were stronger predictors of satisfaction and commitment then were aspects of procedure. Neither fairness nor level of outcome consistently interacted with procedural justice.

Brett et al. (1995), examined the role of employees' financial requirement as a moderator of relationship between their organizational commitment and performance. Results indicated stronger relationship between organizational commitment and performance of those lower financial requirements than for those with higher requirements.

Wilson (1995), investigated the effects of power and politics on organizational commitment. Two theoretical explorations for organizational commitment were developed which incorporated five independent variables were there. (1) Power based theory of commitment (2) Theory of politics. (a) Sub-unit power
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(b) leadership power (c) leadership behaviour variables (d) arbitrary personal practices (e) political control variables. 942 senior executive service managers in federal government who completed ambiguity commitment scale which measured strength of loyalty, identification with their sub-unit. Results showed empirical support for effects team power, good leader member relations, political control on commitment levels of top executives in federal government.

Sharma and Pandey (1995), tested that will QWL will show significance with organizational commitment of managers in India. 200 young managers (25-27) were selected from five level of managerial hierarchy. Results revealed that perception of QWL were significant and positively related to organizational commitment. Moreover QWL, work involvement, organizational effectiveness, and pursuit of organizational and industrial goals were found to be significant predictors of organizational commitment of members.

Mishra, and Patnayak (1995), conducted a study on 80 employees of public sector industrial organization. Results indicated that experience of commitment was satisfactory and often increased among employees. No difference between technical and non-technical subjects was seen. Moreover technical education had not influenced experience of commitment or resistance to accept work experience.

Knoop (1995), studied the relationship among participative decision making, overall job satisfaction, facets of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Participative decision making positively correlated with organizational commitment, overall job satisfaction and five dimensions of job satisfaction—work, pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers. A significant correlation was found between commitment and job satisfaction. Making decisions jointly with employees showed highly positive job outcomes.

Randell and 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 organization. This pattern of findings was reverse for affective commitment.

Harrison and Habbard (1998), conducted a study to examine commitment levels among Mexican employees in US firms along with potential antecedents to their commitment, job characteristics, organizational characteristics, and work experience. Results showed job satisfaction, participative decision making, and age was predictive of organizational commitment. Leader behaviour and tenure was found to be significantly
correlated to commitment, whereas perceived organizational effectiveness tends to be correlated with commitment.

Patel (1998), studied the relationship between perceived organizational health and organizational commitment. 100 employees from private unit manufacturing organization were taken as subjects. Results showed significant positive correlation between overall organizational health and organizational commitment. Skilled staffs perceived highly favourable overall health of their organization and were also highly committed to their organization than to their counterpart workers. In case of skilled staff, high organizational health perceivers were found to have better organizational commitment than low organizational health perceivers.

Venkatachalam (1998), made an attempt to explore various related aspects in literature on organizational commitment, with special emphasis on concept, definition, and approaches, followed by literature on individual and organizational characteristics of organizational commitment. He 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. Work values, rewards, motivation, culture, organizational climate etc are principle determinants of organizational climate. Turnover, absenteeism, job satisfaction, job tension, job role, autonomy, personality factors, workers, characteristics and role conflict are certain outcomes of organizational commitment.

Meyer, Irving and Allen (1998), tested the hypothesis that influence of early work experience on organizational commitment would be moderated by the value employee place on these experiences. Work values were measured in two samples of recent university graduates prior to organizational entry, the measures of commensurate work experience and forms of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) on different occasions following entry. Regression analysis revealed that values and experience did interact in prediction of affective commitment and need commitment but nature of interaction was different from different work values or experiences combinations. This challenged common sense assumption that positive experience of work will have strongest effect on commitment among those who value most such experiences.

Schappe (1998), investigated the influence of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and fairness perceptions on organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that when all the three variables were considered concretely, only organizational commitment
accounted for unique account of variance in organizational citizenship behaviour.

Pattanayak, et al (1999), examined the nature of organizational commitment among 240 employees (1/2 executives and 1/2 non-executives), working in the Rourkela Steel Plant (India). Results revealed that there is a significant difference between executives and non-executives on organizational commitment. Executives revealed high commitment than non-executives. Employees in service units showed high organizational commitment than employees in production line.

Abdullah and Shaw (1999), studied the role of personal characteristics (nationality, gender, marital status, education, age, salary, tenure) in organizational commitment. 147 employees of Mental Health of UAE were taken as subjects. Results indicated significant relationship between personal characteristics and commitment. Gender, marital status, branch assignment were strongest predictors of commitment. Marital status, age, tenure were strongest predictors of affective commitment. Nationality interacts significantly with personal characteristics in predicting characteristics of commitment.

Rahim et al. (1999), compared the dimensionality and possession of power bases (coercive, reward, legitimate, expert and referent) and their relationship to effectiveness and organizational commitment in cross-cultural study of United States, South Korea, Bangladesh employees. Data were collected from each of three countries. Findings indicated similarities between Bangladesh and South Korea's employees in relationship between coercive power base and effectiveness a well as between reward and legitimate power bases and commitment. The three countries were same on the relationship between legitimate power and commitment.

Abraham (1999), conducted a study of emotional dissonance on organizational commitment and intention to turnover. In the workplace emotional dissonance (ED) is the conflict between experienced emotions and emotions expressed to confirm to display rules. This study is an empirical examination of the impact of emotional dissonance on organizational criteria and its moderation by self-monitor and self-support. Emotional dissonance was theorized to stimulate turnover intentions, either solely through job dissatisfaction or through both job dissatisfaction and reduced organizational commitment. Job dissatisfaction was found to be sole mediator. Emotional dissonance resulted in job dissatisfaction, which in turn, stimulated withdrawal intentions. Self-monitoring and self-support extended moderator effects, albeit in opposing directions. Emotional dissonance aroused feelings of job dissatisfaction and reduced organizational commitment among high self
monitors. In contrast self-support lessened negative impact of emotional dissonance on organizational commitment.

Mishra and Srivastava (1999), aimed to find out the mental health as a moderator variable organizational commitment and job satisfaction relationship. Scales were administered upon a sample of 250 male physicians employed in a government medical college in Lucknow. Findings showed that mental health has a moderating effect on organizational commitment and job satisfaction relationship. The relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction is higher for doctors with high mental health rather than doctors with low mental health.

Vashishtha and Mishra (1999), made an attempt to explore the moderator effect of a tangible support on the occupational stress organizational commitment relationship. A sample of 200 factory supervisors was taken. Findings showed that tangible support has partially moderating effect on the occupational stress and organizational commitment relationship.

Vashishtha and Mishra (1999), examined the relationship between social support and organizational commitment of supervisors. 2000 supervisors aged (35-40 yrs) employed at Scooters India Limited, Lucknow, with 10-20 years of work experience were chosen. General Population Form of Interpersonal Support Education List was administered upon them. Results showed significant positive correlation between (1) affective commitment and overall organizational commitment with social support; (2) appraisal support and organizational commitment; (3) belonging support and organizational commitment (4) tangible support and organizational commitment. Results confirm that support have a positive and significant relationship with organizational commitment of supervisors.

Finegan (2000), explored the relationship between personal values and organizational commitment. 121 subjects from a large petrochemical company were taken as the subjects. 24 values were rated with respect to how important the value was to them and how important it was to organization. The results found that commitment was predicted by employee’s perception of organizational values. Further, affective; normative; continuance commitments were each predicted by different cluster 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.

Rai and Sinha (2000), examined the relationship of factor-analytically derived dimensions of transformational leadership with dimensions of organizational commitment, and moderating effect of organizational climate on the basis of
responses obtained from 261 middle-level male executives of banks. Results showed that subjects’ superior transformational leadership style had significant relationship with commitment. Further, it was found that facilitating climate enhanced the strength of association of leadership with commitment. Some of dimensions of transformational superior leadership and commitment were also found to be significantly correlated with aspects of subjects’ financial performance.

Kidd and Smewing (2001), investigated the relationship between supervisors support activities, their subordinates’ career, and organizational commitment. The findings suggested a positive linear relationship between supervisors support and organizational commitment for women but the association between supervisors support and organizational commitment seems to be less forward for men. The results indicated no relationship between supervisors support and career identity, career resilience or career planning.

Yousuf (2001), studied the moderating impacts of the Islamic work ethics on relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. It was administered upon a sample of 425 Muslim employees in several organizations of UAE. The results indicated that Islamic work ethics directly influence organizational commitment and job satisfaction and it moderates the relationship between these two constructs. Results also revealed that national culture do not moderate the relationship between the Islamic work ethics and both organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The support of Islamic work ethics differ across age, education level, work experience, national culture, organization type (manufacturing or service) and ownership (private or public). Results also suggested that there is a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

STUDIES ON PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

Psychological well-being basically is a concept of clinical psychology, but in the present study it has been studied in the context of organizational psychology. Studies relate psychological well-being to blood-pressure, cardiac arrests etc., which are a part and parcel of clinical psychology. However, here only the studies relevant to our research have been discussed.

Klitzman and Stellman (1989), examined the relationship between physical office environment and psychological well-being of office workers. 1830 non-managerial workers have been taken as subjects. Results indicated adverse environment conditions, especially poor air quality, noise, ergonomic conditions, lack of privacy are likely to affect worker’s satisfaction and mental health. Worker’s assessment of physical environment is different from their assessment of general working conditions such as workload, decision
making, attitude, and relationship with other people at work. Findings also support that stress which people generally experience at work may be due to combination of factors including physical working conditions under which they work.

Nazli, et al. (1990), studied the quality of employed women’s experience in the home-making role and its relationship to their psychological well-being and distress. All this was investigated using scale data from a random stratified sample of 403 women aged 25 to 55 years, who were employed as social workers or licensed practical nurses in Boston, Massachusetts. Results indicated that positive homemaking role experience is associated with increased psychological well-being and lower distress. Associations that are affected by the quality of subjects paid for their work experiences. This suggested that the relationship of homemaking-role quality to psychological outcomes is influenced by the effects to paid work-role quality.

Feldt (1997), investigated the role of the Sense of Coherence (SOC) as a main effect on well-being and its possible moderating role in relationship between work characteristics and well-being in 989 Finnish technical designers (aged 25-64 years). Results indicated strong support for the main effect model for stronger the sense of coherence, the lower the level of psychosomatic symptoms and emotional exhaustion. Some support for the moderating role of sense of coherence on relationship between perceived work characteristics and well-being was also found. The results show that strong sense of coherence’s subjects seemed better protected from the adverse effects of certain work characteristics. Furthermore, good social relations at work emphasized well-being among subjects with very weak sense of coherence, whereas these relations mattered less in determining well-being in subjects with a stronger sense of coherence.

Jamal and Preena (1998), conducted a study in which job stress was operationalized in terms of perceived experience at jobs which were chronic in nature. Employees’ well-being was operationalized in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction. Results indicated that job stress was significantly related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. There is no support for the role of gender as a moderator of the stress outcome relationships.

Jamal et al. (1998), examined the difference between moonlighters and non-moonlighters on job stress and well-being among 420 college teachers in Canada. Well-being was operationalized in terms of burnout, job stress, job involvement, and turnover intention and job performance. Findings supported the energy/opportunity of hypothesis of moonlighters than deprivation/ constraints hypothesis. Low support for age, gender, teaching experience,
education and income as potential moderators of moonlighters’ status and outcomes of variables was found. Results are discussed in the light of previous empirical evidence on that job holding and quality of work and non-work life.

Christiansen et al. (1999), conducted a study on occupations and subjective well-being. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between occupations and subjective well-being. The stress related with personal projects was significantly positively correlated with well-being. The strongest predictors of well-being were the composite project factors of stress and efficacy. Two personality traits, sensing and extraversion, interacted with project dimension of stress to emerge as significant predictors of well-being. Together, these four variables explained 42% of variance in well-being scores.

Epitropaki and Martin (1999), investigated the role of difference in age, organizational tenure, and gender between manager and employees leader-member exchanges (LMX) and related work outcomes. 73 (33 males, 40 females) employees (aged 21-60) of large academic institutions, were taken as the subjects, age and organizational difference was created by employees age and organizational tenure lines from that of their supervision. Results supported interaction effect of Member-Exchange organizational tenure, differences with Leader-Member-Exchange and outcome variables. Employees with high organizational tenure different from manager reported the worst work outcomes when they perceived LMX was of low quality, whereas when quality of LMX was high, they reported highest work attitudes and well-being. There was no support for moderating role of gender similarity.

Thakar and Misra (1999), studied the role of social support in daily hassles and well-being experiences of women. 196 employed and 54 unemployed married women have been taken as subjects considering the complexity of social support. 3 measures of social support were used. It was found that though the employed women experienced more hassles and received less support than their unemployed counterparts, yet they enjoyed better well-being. Employed women’s higher well-being speaks of the relative deprivation in house wives role and desire for opportunities to use their potentials for self-actualization and self-gratification. Resources generated by employment (e.g. income, status) appear adequate not only to cope with stresses emanating for multiple roles, but also to enhance well-being.

Chan and Joseph (2000), examined the association between personality, self-relevant intrinsic and extrinsic values and expectations, and psychological well-being. 40 male and 67 female college students (aged 18-37 years), completed the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, aspiration index as well as
measures of happiness, self-actualization, and self-esteem. Scores on the personality and aspiration scales were entered together in a regression equation to predict scores on happiness, self-actualization and self-esteem. It was found that greater extraversion and lower rated importance of financial success were associated with high scores on happiness, self-actualization and self-esteem. It was also found that likelihood of financial success was associated with higher scores on self-actualization, and likelihood of community feeling was associated with higher scores on happiness.

Wright and Cronpanzano (2000), conducted a study on the happy productive work hypothesis. It has most often being examined in organizational research by correlating job satisfaction to performance. Recent research has expanded this to include measures of psychological well-being. However, to date, no field research has provided a comparative test of the relative contribution of job satisfaction and psychological well-being as predictors of employee performance. Two field studies that were taken together provided an opportunity simultaneously to examine the relative contribution of psychological well-being and job satisfaction on job performance. In study one, psychological well-being, but not job satisfaction, was predictive of job-performance for 47 human service workers. These findings were replicated in study 2 for 37 juvenile probation officers. These findings are discussed in terms of research on the happy-productive worker hypothesis.

Bruke (2000), examined the relationship of work alcoholism as indicator of psychological and physiological well-being. 530 male and female managers and professionals were used anonymously. Measures included work alcoholism types, work involvement, work enjoyment, psychological well-being, psychosomatic symptoms, life style behaviours, and emotional well-being. The results indicated a relationship between work alcoholism and poorer emotional and physical well-being.

Hypotheses of the Proposed Study

It is imperative to mention that while carrying out a scientific investigation, there is a need to formulate hypotheses in order to draw meaningful inferences regarding the sample under study. Keeping in view the objectives of the present research and in the light of the relevant research literature, the following null-hypotheses were formulated, concerning our investigation purpose. They are as follows:

$H_1$ Quality of working life will not influence perceived organizational commitment among various levels bank managers.
H2: Quality of working life will not influence psychological well-being among various levels bank managers.
H3: Role-stress will not influence perceived organizational commitment among various levels bank managers.
H4: Role-stress will not influence psychological well-being among various levels bank managers.
H5: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence affective commitment among overall various levels bank managers.
H6: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence continuance commitment among overall various levels bank managers.
H7: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence normative commitment among overall various levels bank managers.
H8: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total organizational commitment among overall various levels bank managers.
H9: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence good mental health among overall various levels bank managers.
H10: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence poor mental health among overall various levels bank managers.
H11: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social support among overall various levels bank managers.
H12: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social stressor among overall various levels bank managers.
H13: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work support among overall various levels bank managers.
H14: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work stressor among overall various levels bank managers.
H15: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal support among overall various levels bank managers.
H16: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal stressor among overall various levels bank managers.
H17: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total psychological well-being among overall various levels bank managers.
H18: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence affective commitment among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H19: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence continuance commitment among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H20: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence normative commitment among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H21: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total organizational commitment among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H22: Quality of working life and role stress will not influence good mental health among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{23}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence poor mental health among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{24}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social support among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{25}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social stressor among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{26}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work support among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{27}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work stressor among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{28}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal support among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{29}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal stressor among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{30}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total psychological well-being among overall various levels bank managers of MP state.
H$_{31}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence affective commitment among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{32}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence continuance commitment among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{33}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence normative commitment among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{34}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total organizational commitment among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{35}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence good mental health among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{36}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence poor mental health among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{37}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social support among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{38}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social stressor among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{39}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work support among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{40}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work stressor among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{41}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal support among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{42}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal stressor among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
H$_{43}$ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total psychological well-being among overall various levels bank managers of UP state.
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H₄₅ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence continuance commitment among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₄₆ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence normative commitment among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₄₇ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total organizational commitment among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₄₈ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence good mental health among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₄₉ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence poor mental health among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₅₀ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social support among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₅₁ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social stressor among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₅₂ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work support among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₅₃ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work stressor among overall scale-1 bank managers.
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H₅₅ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal stressor among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₅₆ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total psychological well-being among overall scale-1 bank managers.
H₅₇ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence affective commitment among overall scale-2 bank managers.
H₅₈ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence continuance commitment among overall scale-2 bank managers.
H₅₉ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence normative commitment among overall scale-2 bank managers.
H₆₀ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total organizational commitment among overall scale-2 bank managers.
H₆₁ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence good mental health among overall scale-2 bank managers.
H₆₂ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence poor mental health among overall scale-2 bank managers.
H₆₃ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social support among overall scale-2 bank managers.
H₆₄ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social stressor among overall scale-2 bank managers.
H₆₅ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work support among overall scale-2 bank managers.
Chapter Two
Review of Literature

H_{66} \text{ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work stressor among overall scale-2 bank managers.}

H_{67} \text{ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal support among overall scale-2 bank managers.}

H_{68} \text{ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal stressor among overall scale-2 bank managers.}

H_{69} \text{ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total psychological well-being among overall scale-2 bank managers.}

H_{70} \text{ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence affective commitment among overall scale-3 bank managers.}

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H_{74} \text{ Quality of working life and role stress will not influence good mental health among overall scale-3 bank managers.}

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H_{153} Quality of working life and role stress will not influence poor mental health among overall scale-3 bank managers of UP state.
H154 Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social support among overall scale-3 bank managers of UP state.

H155 Quality of working life and role stress will not influence social stressor among overall scale-3 bank managers of UP state.

H156 Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work support among overall scale-3 bank managers of UP state.

H157 Quality of working life and role stress will not influence work stressor among overall scale-3 bank managers of UP state.

H158 Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal support among overall scale-3 bank managers of UP state.

H159 Quality of working life and role stress will not influence personal stressor among overall scale-3 bank managers of UP state.

H160 Quality of working life and role stress will not influence total psychological well-being among overall scale-3 bank managers of UP state.