REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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JOB ALIENATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational Commitment is one of the most important determiners of excellence in performance. The term organizational commitment refers to an affective attachment to an organization apart from the purely instrumental worth of relationship (Buchanan, 1974). It plays a very significant role in the success and progress of the organization as - (a) it is highly related with organizational effectiveness (Schein, 1971, Steers, 1975, and Angle and Perry, 1981, (b) highly committed employees may perform better than low committed ones (Mowday et al. 1974), and (c) in general, it is a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction (Porter et al. 1974 and Koch and Steers, 1976).

The commitment of an employee shows a strong belief and acceptance of organizational goals, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership (Porter et al. 1974).

Two different approaches have been taken in defining organizational commitment (Steers and Porter, 1983). In the first approach, organizational commitment is referred to as a behaviour while in the second approach, organizational commitment is referred to as an attitude. In the behavioural approach the individual is viewed as committed to an organization if he/she is bound by past actions of "sunk costs" (fringe benefits, salary as a function of age or tenure). Thus, an individual becomes "committed" to an organization because it has become too costly for him/her to leave. In this approach,
organizational commitment is depicted as more calculative in nature (Etzioni, 1961), and the works of Becker (1960), Hrebiniax and Alutto (1972) and Salancick (1977) can be incorporated in this approach. Becker (1960) described commitment as the tendency to engage in "consistent lines of activity" because of the perceived cost of doing otherwise. In the case of commitment to the organization, the activity referred to by Becker (1960) involves staying with the organization, and perceived costs associated with discontinuing the activity (i.e. leaving) might include the loss of attractive benefits and seniority, the disruption of personal relations created by moving to another location, the effort of seeking a new job and so on.

In contrast, in the attitudinal approach, organizational commitment is viewed as a more positive individual orientation towards the organization. Here, organizational commitment is defined as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals and he/she wishes to maintain membership in the organization, in order to facilitate its goals. Incorporated into this approach are the works of Etzioni (1961), Kanter (1968) and especially Porter and Smith, (1970) and Porter et al. (1974, 1976).

Meyer and Allen (1984) and Allen and Meyer (1987) used the term affective commitment and continuance commitment respectively, to characterize Becker's (1960) and Porter's (1970) discrepant views of the construct. It was noted that although both, affective and continuance commitment reflect links between the employee and the organization that
decrease the likelihood of turnover, the nature of the links are quite different. Employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to, whereas those with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Consequently, one might expect the on-the-job behaviour of those who are affectively committed to the organization to differ from that of employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment. Those who value and want to maintain membership would be willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Mowday et al. 1982). In contrast, those who feel compelled to remain to avoid financial or other costs may do little other than the minimum required to retain their employment.

The most widely used measure of affective commitment to date, has been the Organization Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday et al. 1982). There is some evidence that scores on this measure correlate positively with individual and group level indices of performance (e.g. Mowday et al. 1974, Steers, 1977). Thus, employees who are affectively committed to the organization tend to perform at a higher level than those who are not.

Interest in organizational commitment has been stimulated largely by its demonstrated negative relation to turnover. Committed employees have been found to be less likely to leave an organization than those who are uncommitted (Angle and Perry, 1981 and Porter et al. 1974). As turnover is costly to organizations, commitment is generally assumed to be a desirable quality that
should be fostered in employees. Several models (Steers and Rhodes, 1978, Mobley et al. 1979) link organizational commitment or job involvement conceptually to turnover and absenteeism. Empirical research on organizational commitment generally, has shown commitment to be a significant predictor of turnover. Organizational commitment has accounted for as much as thirty four percent of the variance in turnover (Michaels and Spector, 1982).

**Correlates of Organizational Commitment**

According to Morrow (1983), job involvement and organizational commitment are related but are distinct types of work attributes because of their different referents. For employees with a high level of job involvement, the job is important to their self image (Kanungo, 1982). These individuals identify with and care about their jobs. Employees with a high level of organizational commitment feel positively about the organizations they work for. They identify with a particular organization and wish to maintain membership in it (Porter et al. 1976). Workers with high levels of both job involvement and organizational commitment should be the most motivated because they are attracted both, by the job and the organization. As such job involvement and organizational commitment may function as interactive "orientations".

Randall (1988) investigated the influence of extra organizational ties on employees' level of organizational commitment, among four hundred and fifty-five university personnel. Two models were used - (1) an expansion model in which individuals view the available supply of energy as abundant, (2) a
scarcity model that posits that strong commitment to one's role may preclude attachment to other roles. Findings revealed that the level of organizational commitment was not substantively related to efforts devoted to outside work claimants or to their perceived importance. Subjects managed work and outside work spheres separately and levels of organizational commitment were relatively immune to the influence of outside work claimants.

**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND JOB ALIENATION**

Several studies have been conducted exploring the relationship of Organizational Commitment and Job Alienation.

Chelte and Tausky (1986) studied organizational commitment, antecedents (personal and role related characteristics) and outcomes (turnover intentions and job intentions) among forty-five administrators, one hundred and fifty-eight faculty and eighty-five blue collar workers at a university. No shared consistent pattern of antecedents or outcomes was found among the groups, suggesting that paths to and outcomes of organizational commitment may vary by employee rank.

The development and consequences of organizational commitment early in employees' careers were examined by Meyer and Allen (1987) among fifty-four university graduates, over a period of one, five and nine months on the job. Results revealed a significant decline in commitment and the favourableness of work experiences during the first, nine months on the job.
Analyses provided evidence consistent with the hypothesis that early work experiences influenced commitment to the organization, but did not support the hypothesis that commitment influenced work behaviour and turnover intention.

Pierce and Dunham (1987) tracked the development of organizational commitment from a pre-employment period through the first three months of employment, using ninety-nine hospital employees. All major linkages in Mowday et al.'s (1982) model of organizational commitment had a strong association with behavioural intentions to turnover, which in turn were significantly associated with subsequent turnover behaviour.

Blau and Boal (1989) conducted a study on one hundred and six graduate field office employees of an insurance company, using job involvement and organizational commitment interactively to predict turnover. Results showed that an interaction of job involvement and organizational commitment accounted for significant turnover variance beyond three demographic variables (sex, marital status, tenure), job withdrawal cognitions and job involvement/organizational commitment main effects.

Farkas and Tetrich (1989) assessed the plausibility of William's and Hazer's causal model of turnover which related personal and organizational characteristics to satisfaction, satisfaction to commitment and commitment to turnover intention. Data were collected from four hundred and forty subjects. Only partial support was obtained for the model. The relationship among satisfaction, commitment and re-enlistment intention changed with increased
tenure in the organization. This finding suggests that commitment and satisfaction may be either cyclically or reciprocally related.

Shore and Martin (1989) conducted a study on seventy-one bank tellers and seventy-two hospital professionals, to study the differential associations that job satisfaction and organizational commitment had with job performance and turnover intentions. Results showed that organizational commitment was more strongly related than job satisfaction with turnover intentions for tellers. Job satisfaction was related more strongly than organizational commitment with supervisory ratings of performance for both samples.

Cohen (1991) conducted a meta analytical review of forty one samples dealing with the relationship between organizational commitment and outcomes. The total sample was divided into two time frames according to the indicators of career stage - age and tenure. Findings indicated that career stage moderated the relationship between organizational commitment and outcomes. The relationship between organizational commitment and turnover was stronger in the early stage and that of organizational commitment with job performance and absenteeism was strongest in the late career stage, when tenure was the career indicator. Both tenure and age had the same effect on the commitment - outcome relationship.

Koslowski (1991) studied the causal link between the intention to leave a job, job satisfaction and job commitment, in a sample of fifty-nine policemen, over a five month period. Results showed that an increase in
commitment causes a decrease in intention to leave. The trend for job satisfaction was also in the same direction.

Lance (1991) proposed an integrative model of the determinants of overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment and precursors to voluntary turnover. A non-recursive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction was hypothesized. Affect (satisfaction and commitment) was proposed to mediate the effects of work environment perceptions on precursors to voluntary turnover. Data were collected from one thousand, eight hundred and seventy employees of a telecommunications firm. Hypotheses relating to determinants of commitment and turnover cognitions were largely supported. An asymmetrical reciprocal relationship between overall job satisfaction and organizational commitment was also supported.

Thomas et al. (1992) investigated the effects of Mowday et al.'s (1982) concept of commitment propensity, (comprising personal characteristics and experiences that the individuals bring to the organization) on the development of subsequent organizational commitment and voluntary turnover. Data were collected from eight hundred and forty cadets of the U.S. Air Force Academy, over a period of eighteen months. In a field setting where situational influences were very strong, commitment propensity, measured prior to the individual's entry into the organization, predicted subsequent organizational commitment, measured at five points in time after entry. Moreover, initial commitment
measured at the time of entry predicted voluntary turnover across a four year period.

The above review clearly reveals that organizational commitment is negatively related with job alienation. Some studies have shown the relationship to be moderated by career stage and career commitment. The present study investigates the relationship of organizational commitment with job alienation in middle level, male managers drawn from public sector undertakings.
JOB ALIENATION AND
QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE
QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE

Work is an essential and integral part of life and quality of working life is inextricably bound with quality of life. Efforts have to be made to make work more and more satisfying. It is the changing meaning of work which led to the development of the "Quality of Working Life" (QWL) movement. Those interested in the welfare of human beings have been forced to examine quality of work life and judge its impact. Efforts are being made to make work a rewarding experience because peoples' lives are organised around work and few things can contribute more to the quality of life than the quality of work itself. The quest for searching for what motivates people resulted in the filtering out of the concept of Quality of Working Life from a variety of studies conducted in industrial and organizational psychology and related disciplines.

Quality of Working Life can be said to be both, a goal and an on-going process for achieving it. As a goal, it is the commitment of any organization to work improvement, to the creation of more satisfying, involving and effective job and work environments. As a process, Quality of Working Life calls for efforts to realise this goal through active involvement of the people throughout the organization (Carlson, 1981).

During the past decade the Quality of Working Life movement has been attributed to three major problems experienced by the industrialized societies (Pomonis and Baumgartel, 1980). The first was a widespread and possibly growing dissatisfaction and/or alienation of blue-collar and white-collar
employees as well as managerial personnel from their work. The second was the declining rate of growth in labour productivity in the face of scarce resources. The third was the growing recognition of the paramount role of the individual's "quality of working life" in physical and mental health and family and community spheres. Toole (1973), however, gave a different perspective to the Quality of Working Life by stating that satisfaction with work appears to be a better predictor of longevity of life than known genetic factors. Various aspects of work account for much, if not most of the factors associated with heart disease.

Kopelman et al. (1990) opined that the variation in employee retention across organizations may be related to organizational culture values. They suggested that an organization's cultural values influence its human resource strategies, including selection and placement policies, promotion and developmental procedures and reward systems. Different strategies result in psychological climates that foster varying levels of commitment and retention among employees working in different organizations. Thus, one may state that towards the turn of the last decade psychologists got seriously interested in the concept of Quality of Working Life and improvement of QWL is becoming a catch slogan of today's employers and employees.

**Quality of Working Life: The Concept and Definitions**

According to De (1975), Quality of Working Life is an indicator of how free the society is from exploitation, inequality, injustice, oppression and
restrictions on the continuity of growth of man, leading to his development to the fullest. Thus, the Quality of Working Life and the quality of life in society have a direct linkage.

Spink (1975) defined Quality of Working Life as "the degree of excellence in working conditions, which contribute to the overall satisfaction of the individual and enhance the individual as well as the organizational effectiveness."

Glaser (1976) opined that the term Quality of Working Life had come to mean more than just job security, good working conditions, adequate and fair compensation and more than even equal employment opportunity or job enlargement. The quality of working life requires an organizational climate and structure that really encourages, facilitates, rewards, questions, challenges or suggests ways to improve existing modus operandi in any way. It also requires expeditious, respectful and appropriate response to such inputs.

Cherns (1978) opined that Quality of Working Life is the area of humanization of the work place, work place democracy and work restructuring. Barnes (1979) contended that the typical working life philosophy revolved around creating trust, growth equity and excellence in the organizational setting.

According to Nadler and Lawler (1983) QWL is a way of thinking about people, work and organizations. Thus the focus of Quality of Working Life is
not only how people can do work better, but on how work may cause people to
be better.

Delamotte and Takezawa (1984) further added that the concept of
Quality of Working Life and "Quality of Life" emerged relatively recently in
the industrialized nations where English was the primary language. Several
other industrial countries used synonyms like "Humanization of Work",
"Improvement of working conditions", "Worker's protection", "Working
environment" and "Democratization of the work place".

**Quality of Working Life in India**

Reddy (1985) stated that there is a view in the Third world countries,
where one hardly finds quality of life, why should one talk of Quality of
Working Life? Surrounded by innumerable problems like poverty, population
explosion, pollution and low wages, the Third world countries can hardly
afford to think of the Quality of Working Life of their workers. Nevertheless,
there is another view that by reversing the same logic, Quality of Working Life
can be used as a launching pad for the improvement of quality of life of the
citizens of developing countries, by way of higher productivity, better quality
of marketable goods and thereby, greater prosperity of the countries.

Sinha and Sayeed (1980) reported that in the Indian setting work has
already been initiated on Quality of Working Life by many, but a major
headway is yet to be made. Here, initially the orientation to Quality of Working
Life remained sociological, but lately there has been a gradual switch over to
psychological aspects of Quality of Working Life. Ganguli and Joseph (1971), De (1977 a,b) and Sinha (1977) were amongst the few who tried to approach Quality of Working Life from a psychological perspective.

**Dimensions Of Quality Of Working Life**

The concept of Quality of Working Life is essentially multidimensional. Many dimensions have been identified by various authors as dimensions of Quality of Working Life at the work place. Walton (1975) offered the following conceptual categories of Quality of Working Life: (a) adequacy in compensation, (b) safe and healthy working conditions, (c) immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities, (d) opportunity for continued growth and security, (e) social integration in the work organization, (f) constitutionism in the work organization, (g) work and total life space, and (h) social relevance of work life.

In the Indian setting, Joseph (1978) gave four dimensions of Quality of Working Life, viz. growth, mastery, involvement and self control. Ganguli (1979) presented a somewhat different list. Ghosh and Kalra (1982) delineated fifteen dimensions. Sinha and Sayeed (1980) put forth seventeen dimensions in their scale of Quality of Working Life (QWL). These are: economic benefits, physical working conditions, self respect, supervisory relations, intragroup relations, sense of achievement vs apathy, confidence in management, meaningful development, control-influence-and participation, employee commitment, general life satisfaction and organizational climate. The present
study has used this inventory for assessing the Quality of Working Life of executives.

**QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE AND JOB ALIENATION**

Advocates of participative management (McGregor, 1960; Likert, 1961; Argyris, 1964; and Walton, 1975) have stressed the fact that job involvement results from an organizational (and job) environment designed to promote ego and growth need satisfaction. Likert (1961), for instance, suggested that involvement in one’s job results from a supportive psychological climate in an organization that provides a sense of human dignity or satisfies the need for self esteem.

Bass (1965) pointed out that involvement in one's job is determined by the presence of six conditions, viz.: greater opportunity for making job decisions; the feeling that one is making an important contribution to organizational success; an experience of personal success; personal achievement; self-determination and personal autonomy in matters of setting one's own work pace.

Brutsaert (1976) conducted a study on two hundred and thirteen managers from twelve private business firms to examine the relationship between degree of formalization of an organization and the alienation from work among its managers. Analysis indicated that seniority and level of education were significantly correlated with formalization/alienation. Seniority
was negatively correlated and education was positively correlated. The positive correlation associated with higher educational level was replaced after about ten years of seniority by the negative correlation. When controlled, no interaction effect was found between formalization of the business and work alienation of the managerial employees.

Bushe (1984) discussed the concept of Quality of Working Life and quality circles, which are designed to improve the Quality of Working Life by increasing participation and involvement of lower level employees in decisions that affect their daily working lives. The purpose of this exercise was to reduce alienation, anomie and physical and mental stress. He argued that if employee participation was to take hold, it must be supported by appropriate organizational structures and procedures.

Crimando et al. (1986) surveyed three hundred and twenty one directors of a random sample of rehabilitation centres. It was determined that turnover rate in these facilities averaged 22.6% and exceeded 26% in some. Directors identified several reasons why employees left, among which were better jobs, higher pay and stress/burnout.

Spector (1986) found that high levels of perceived control were associated with high levels of job satisfaction (overall and unavoidable facets), commitment, involvement, performance and motivation and low levels of physical symptoms, emotional distress, role stress, absenteeism, intent to turnover and turnover. A similar pattern was found for autonomy and

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participation, with one exception; participative decision making was not associated with absenteeism.

Harrison (1987) analysed how personal energy was assessed, channelized and applied in traditional organizations and how it was done in high performance organizations. He maintained that while some corporate cultures fostered apathy and withdrawal, others elicited commitment and promoted the creation of a supportive environment. The central role of shared sense of mission and purpose in focussing personal energy was discussed.

Kerr and Slocum (1987) suggested that organizational cultural values may moderate differences in the retention rates of strong and weak performers. They reported that some organizations have cultures that emphasize values of teamwork, security and respect for individual members. These values foster loyalty and long term commitment to the organization among all employees, regardless of their job performance. Other organizations have cultures that emphasize personal initiative and individual rewards for accomplishing specific work objectives. These values foster an entrepreneurial norm whereby, the organization does not offer long term security and the employees do not promise loyalty. They suggested that weaker performers would stay, in order to "exploit the organization until better rewards could be gotten elsewhere". Consequently, employee retention rates may be uniformly high for both strong and weak performers in some organizational cultures, but in others culture may vary greatly, depending on employees' job performance.
Singh and Singh (1987) conducted a study on six hundred Indian blue collar workers of a company, to examine the effects of job satisfaction and participation on their performance. Results indicated that job satisfaction and participation were positively associated with performance.

Spector (1991) conducted a test of a subset of Mobley et al.’s (1977, 1978) turnover models using data from three sources. It was predicted that autonomy, work constraints, role ambiguity, and interpersonal conflict (assessed by supervisors) would lead to job dissatisfaction (assessed among one hundred and fifty-six female secretaries), which would lead to intention to quit (assessed by secretary reports) which would lead to turnover (from organizational records). The model yielded good results when role ambiguity and inter-personal conflict were deleted. Job conditions accounted for a very small amount of job satisfaction variance, and workload related in a direction opposite to the predictions.

Freda (1992) examined the factors considered by fifty-five occupational therapists in their decision to leave or to remain at a present job. In deciding to leave a job, occupational therapists most frequently rated salary, productivity expectations, professional growth opportunities, peer relations with other occupational therapists and vacation time as factors related to their decision to leave or remain in a job.

Seeman and Seeman (1992) found from among a data of five hundred male respondents, that unemployment in itself was of relatively little
consequence in producing alienation. Powerlessness in organizations was the most consistent predictor of alcohol use and abuse, and a combination of stress and high powerlessness typified those who were most vulnerable to drinking problems.

Review unequivocally reveals that a positive perception of Quality of Working Life reduces job alienation. Perception of Quality of Working Life and its relation with Job Alienation indices has also been explored in the present study.
JOB ALIENATION AND
PERSONALITY
PERSONALITY

Personality has been recognised as a very important determiner of human behaviour. The term personality is much older than the term psychology, itself. From the very ancient days, civilized people have tried to develop an insight into the nature of man. Modern social and behavioural sciences in general, and psychology in particular, aim at utilizing and controlling personality to the full development and progress of the individual and society (Mohan, 1985).

In the present study two indices of personality have been examined in relation to Alienation. These are the Eysenckian Personality dimensions and Machiavellianism.

Eysenck's Personality Theory

Eysenck on the basis of research and factor analysis (1947, 1960, 1963, 1967, 1969, 1970, 1980) put forth a dimensional system of personality which posits three major independent dimensions, viz. Extraversion/Introversion (E/I), Neuroticism/ stability (N), and Psychoticism (P). He also proposed a psychobiological model to parallel these three dimensions (Eysenck, 1967, 1981 and Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985). The model is a hierarchical one which conceptualizes that each of the three broad dimensions are subdivided at a lower level into narrower and more specific traits.

Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) reported that each of these personality dimensions includes certain subtraits. The subtraits of Extraversion were as
follows: sociable, lively, active, assertive, sensation seeking, carefree, dominant, surgent and venturesome. The subtraits of Neuroticism were as follows: anxious, depressed, guilty, low self-esteem, tense, irrational, shy, moody and emotional. The subtraits of Psychoticism were as follows: aggressive, cold, egocentric, impersonal, impulsive, antisocial, unempathic, creative, tough minded and refers to a person who does not fit in anywhere. In addition, the revised Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ-R) also contains a Lie scale (Social Desirability or L-scale) which was first incorporated in Eysenck's Personality Inventory (EPI) to measure a tendency on the part of the subjects to 'Fake good' responses. Now it measures an independent, stable factor which possibly denotes some degree of 'social naivette' (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975). It was elaborated by Perera and Eysenck in 1984 that the Lie (Social Desirability) scale was originally regarded simply as a scale to detect faking, but has recently been recognized as a personality dimension of some intrinsic interest, apart from faking. Using both the child and the adult versions of the EPQ, Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) have shown that supertraits of Extraversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism are replicable across cultures (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1982, 1983; Barrett and Eysenck, 1985; Eysenck and Long, 1986; Mohan et al. 1987).
MACHIAVELLIANISM

Machiavellianism, as a personality characteristic of an individual, refers to a disposition, a personality type involving manipulation of others (Pandey, 1988). According to Christie and Geis (1970) the term Machiavellianism describes people who express their power motivation by manipulating others in a deceptive and unscrupulous fashion. They further stated that high Machs are "Cold" - objective, unflustered, in control and maintain psychological perspective and deal with others impersonally. In contrast, low Machs are "Warm" - empathizing, involved, distractible and more open to others.

Ames and Kidd (1979) defined Machiavellianism as an individual's tendency to manipulate other individuals in interpersonal situation by subtle or non-physically aggressive tactics such as flattery, deception, bribery or intimidation.

Sinha et al. (1982) summarized some of the major characteristics of Machiavellianism as suggested by Christie and Geis (1970). They are (a) a relative lack of affect in interpersonal relationships; (b) a lack of concern with conventional morality; (c) an instrumental view of others.

Historically, Machiavellianism, as a psychological concept, has probably a stronger background of cross-cultural origin than any other concept. The original descriptions of the ideas of Machiavellianism can be traced back to the political philosophy of the east as expounded in the Arthasastra by Kautilya in India, and in the Book of Lord Shang in China (both about 300 B.C.). Much later, Nicolo Machiavelli, a 16th century Italian, through his books, 'The Prince' and 'The Discourses' advocated the philosophy and the strategies of manipulating others. Using Machiavelli's work as his starting point, Christie
first developed the scale of Machiavellianism back in 1954-1955, when he thought there might be a personality trait associated with guile, deceit and opportunism in interpersonal manipulation. According to Christie and Geis (1970), a Machiavellian orientation consists of two orthogonal sets of attributes—a cynical view of human nature and a willingness to employ manipulative strategies in social interactions. In order to be called 'Machiavellian', a person would have to believe that people are manipulable, be willing to manipulate them and show considerable skill in the art.

Robbins (1993) defined a Machiavellian personality as being pragmatic, maintaining emotional distance and believing that the ends can justify the means. The idea that "if it works, use it" is consistent with a high Mach perspective. He further elaborates by stating that high Machs manipulate more, win more, and persuade others more than do low Machs. Yet, these high Mach outcomes are moderated by situational factors. It has been found that high Machs flourish when they interact face-to-face with others rather than indirectly; when the situation has a minimum number of rules and regulations, thus allowing latitude for improvisation; and where emotional involvement with details distracts low Machs. High Machs tend to be productive in jobs that require bargaining skills (such as labour negotiation) or where there are substantial rewards for winning (as in commissioned sales).

Several researchers have suggested that there is a significant relationship between Machiavellianism and Eysenck's Psychoticism factor.
Skinner (1982) reported that high Machs obtained relatively high Psychoticism scores, verifying the suggestion that there is considerable prima facie similarity between Machiavellianism and high Psychoticism traits.

Kline and Cooper (1984) opined that those high on Machiavellianism tend to manipulate others quite unashamedly, and also tend to be high on Eysenck's Psychoticism factor. Studies conducted on Indian samples by Sarup (1987) and Arora (1990) also showed a significant positive relationship between Machiavellianism and Psychoticism.

Skinner (1988) also reported an apparent overlap in the descriptive characteristics of high Machs and the primary psychopath. A high Mach (Christie and Geis, 1970) is described by the following characteristics - lack of emotional involvement, low morality, low commitment, use of others to attain one's own ends, manipulative, opportunistic and deceitful, while a primary psychopath (high on Psychoticism, Eysenck, 1982) is impersonal, cold, has lack of empathy, has lack of concern for the rights of others, is ego-centric and aggressive.

Holley (1978) observed significant differences on the 16 PF, between high and low Machs. High Machs were more independent, happy go lucky and experimenting. Low Machs were more self sufficient but closer to average in venturesomeness than other groups.

Nigro and Galli (1985) reported a positive correlation between Machiavellianism and anxiety.
According to Buss et al. (1987) the Neuroticism scale of EPQ correlated significantly across data sources with tactics of manipulation. Arora (1990) also reported Neuroticism to be significantly related to Machiavellianism among college students.

Sarup (1993) conducted a study on five hundred university students in the age range of nineteen to twenty three years, to examine the relationship of Machiavellianism with Eysenck's personality dimensions. Her results showed Machiavellianism to be positively and significantly related with Psychoticism and Extraversion for the total sample and for males. Insignificant correlations for females were obtained on both these variables. Sarup's (1993) results also did not show any relationship between Neuroticism and Machiavellianism. Arora (1990) and Sarup (1987, 1993) found a significant negative relationship between Machiavellianism and Lie (Social Desirability) scale.

PERSONALITY AND JOB ALIENATION

Different aspects of personality may determine the behaviour and performance of an individual during a particular period of life. Research has shown that certain predisposing characteristics in one's personality may lead to alienation. Powerlessness, Normlessness, Meaninglessness, Social Isolation and Self Estrangement, the major components of alienation are indirectly related to emotional behaviour of the individual, his self concept, self identity, how he is viewed by others and his personality. Division of the personality itself is the
result of one's consciousness of his/her alienation. Both personality and alienation are affected by the developmental changes that take place throughout the life of the individual and can subsequently influence his adjustment.

Several studies have been conducted in recent years to study the relationship between personality and alienation. Seeman (1959) stated that alienation refers to a more comprehensive relationship between personality and social system, than does deprivation.

Gould (1969) discussed the personality traits of the alienated youth and found that he is characterised by a generalized distrust of others, a rejection of socially approved rules of interpersonal conduct, social introversion, poor impulse control and ambivalence. Meissner (1974) found that alienation and aggression are positively related.

Sharma and Rai (1976) reported that subjects who were high on alienation score were also higher on Neuroticism and Psychoticism but lower on Extraversion than their counterparts.

A large amount of research had been conducted on the Locus of Control of individuals to study its relationship to job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. Kimmons and Greenhaus (1976) found a positive relationship between job involvement and internal locus of control. Two other studies (Rabinowitz et al. 1977; Bigoness, 1978) did not find any significant relationship between the two variables. However, the general trend of results shows that individuals who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism
rates, are more alienated from the work setting and are less involved in their jobs than internals. The reasons for this could be that they perceive themselves as having little control over those organizational outcomes that are important to them. Internals on the other hand, attribute organizational outcomes to their own actions. If the situation is unattractive, they feel that they have only themselves to blame. Also the dissatisfied internal is more likely to quit a dissatisfying job.

Pestonjee and Ahmad (1977) stated that blue-collar workers were found to be highly alienated because they were insecure and less stable as compared to the supervisory group. They found a negative correlation between Extraversion and Alienation.

Salvatore et al. (1982) also studied personality processes and individual differences and found that Extraversion/Introversion showed a negative relation with alienation. Mohan and Joginder (1984) also contended that alienation had a negative relationship with Extraversion and positive with Neuroticism.

Mohan and Tiwana (1987) administered the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and an alienation scale to hundred creative Indian writers. Creative writers appeared to be introverted, high on Neuroticism and Psychoticism and more alienated. They also had higher Lie (Social Desirability) scores.

Some studies have also been conducted to relate job involvement/job alienation to Machiavellianism. Hellon (1983), Richard and Fortune (1984) and
Mudrack (1989) reported a positive correlation between Machiavellianism and job alienation.

Alienation has also been reported to be associated with anxiety, aggression and drug usage. Kanungo (1981) reported that it appeared that greater involvement in one's job was associated with greater worry, anxiety and apprehension concerning how the job needed to be done and whether or not the original objectives could be attained. Identification with the job may sensitize individuals to view even minor problems and failures on the job as matters too serious to be taken lightly. The resulting frustrations and tensions are therefore experienced too intently. A strong affective appearance of tension and frustration on the job may give rise to manifest hostility, which in turn may sometimes be directed towards one's own self (resulting in drug abuse, alcoholism, psychosomatic symptoms), and sometimes towards others (resulting in overt aggression and distrust).

Chusmir and Hood (1986) examined "Type A" and "Type B" behaviour patterns, motivational needs and several job related attitudes and characteristics in three hundred and fifty-eight male and four hundred and forty-one female employed persons from a variety of occupations and hierarchical positions. Results indicated that "Type A" persons were high in (n Ach, n Pwr), job commitment and managerial responsibilities, but lower in job satisfaction, than "Type B" subjects. Propensity to leave was not significantly related to "Type A" or "Type B" behaviour.
Lucker and Alvarez (1986) investigated the relationship of achievement motivation, sex role, and coping style to worker turnover and longevity in two hundred and two female line workers (average age twenty-four and a half years) in a computer assembly plant. Discriminant analysis predicted turnover from demographic and personality data for one half of the sample. Discriminant coefficients were cross validated on the remainder of the sample. A classification procedure correctly classified sixty-four percent of the continuers and sixty-nine percent of the quitters in the developmental sample and sixty-seven percent of the continuers and sixty-eight percent of the quitters in the cross validation sample. Personality data significantly improved the prediction of turnover beyond that provided by simple employee demographics.

Sahni and Chadha (1987) collected a measure of job involvement, locus of control, intrinsic motivation, self esteem and ambiguity tolerance from Indian and British male supervisors. Results showed that job involvement was positively and significantly related to ambiguity tolerance in Indian subjects, while job involvement was positively and significantly related and locus of control in British subjects. Verma (1987) also found job involvement to be related with ambiguity tolerance and morale.

Pace and Suojanen (1988) opined that managers who persist in "Type A" behaviour pattern, do so to the detriment of employee involvement. Extreme "Type A" behaviour is seen as addictive and related to other addictive
behaviours. Compared to "Type B" managers, they are more likely to be stress prone and workaholics.

Ashforth (1989) considered two factors to be relevant for job alienation. The first is a generalised expectation of control. According to him, given that unmet expectations and desires fuel reactance, an individual with high generalised expectations is apt to feel more frustrated and engage in more active and persistent problem solving efforts. Such efforts have been reported for individuals with a high need for achievement, high self-esteem and internal locus of control, and a "Type A" personality (e.g. Abramson, 1977, Zuroff, 1980). Similarly young and educated employees have been found to have higher desires for expectations of control (e.g. Kirsch and Lengermann, 1972, and Shepard and Panko, 1974) and are more likely to find a given job monotonous and lacking in meaning. Thus, Ashforth proposed that "the higher the generalised expectations of and unmet desires for control, the greater the reactance."

It is argued that it is precisely those individuals who expect and desire the most from their jobs, that are most likely to be frustrated by their powerlessness. Helplessness is seen to follow whatever reactance and resentment takes place. Thus, as job involvement and organizational identification decrease, the individual enters the final stage of the experience of Powerlessness - Work Alienation.
Villanova and Bernardin (1990) conducted a study on fifty-six part-time telephone interviewers to find out the relationship between work behaviour correlates and job compatibility for the purpose of predicting turnover. Subjects also completed the 16 P.F. and a version of the Job Descriptive Index. Results showed that the relationship between compatibility and voluntary turnover termination was moderated by employee characteristics.

The above review reveals personality characteristics to be an important determinant of job alienation, but the direction of results is not clear. There is no consistent evidence about how different dimensions of personality and job alienation are related. It was decided in the present study, therefore, to take a fresh look at the job alienation and personality relationship by taking the Eysenckian personality dimensions viz. Extraversion, Neuroticism, Psychoticism and Lie (Social Desirability) and Machiavellianism into consideration.
JOB ALIENATION AND NEED SATISFACTION
NEED SATISFACTION

Work is a potent source of gratification of all needs viz. physical, social and ego needs. Satisfaction of various needs invariably leads to better adjustment of employees to their work environment. Since need satisfaction is the main motive behind work behaviour, the study of need satisfaction of individuals is in fact a study of motivation. Venkataraman and Valecha (1981) are of the opinion that motivation is closely linked with job performance, productivity and organizational effectiveness. Thus, the topic of motivation at work has received considerable and sustained attention in recent years among both practising managers and organizational researchers.

WHAT IS MOTIVATION

The term motivation was originally derived from the Latin word 'Movere' which means to move. Various authors have described the term differently. Jones (1957) explained motivation as "how behaviour gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while all this is going on. Vroom (1964) described the term as "a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisms among alternative forms of voluntary activity."

Motivation is the result of the interaction of the individual and the situation. Individuals differ in their basic motivational drive. But the same individual who is quickly bored at one job may not be bored at another. Thus,
the concept of motivation needs to be analysed keeping in mind that the level of motivation varies, both between and within individuals at different times.

Robbins (1993) defined motivation as "the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need." The three key elements in this definition are effort, organizational goals and needs. The effort element is a measure of intensity. But high levels of effort are unlikely to lead to favourable job performance outcomes, unless the effort is channelled in a direction that benefits the organization. Therefore, the quality as well as the intensity of the effort needs to be considered. Thus, effort that is directed towards, and is consistent with the organization's goals is the kind of effort to be sought.

Finally, a need, according to Robbins (1993) means "some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive". An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates a drive within the individual. These drives generate a search behaviour to find particular goals which, if attained, will satisfy the need and lead to reduction of tension. So, one may say that motivated employees are in a state of tension. To relieve this tension they exert effort. The greater the tension, the higher the effort level. If this effort successfully leads to satisfaction, tension is reduced. In the organizational context, this tension reduction effort must also be directed towards organizational goals. Thus, the individual's needs must be compatible with that of the organization (Figure C).
THE MOTIVATIONAL PROCESS

FIGURE C
SOURCE: ROBBINS (1993)
Early Theories of Motivation

The 1950's and 1960's were a fruitful period in the development of motivational concepts. Three specific theories were formulated during this period, which are probably the best known explanations of employee motivation. These include:

(a) Maslow's (1954) Need Hierarchy Theory - which states that there is a hierarchy of five needs - physiological, safety, social, self-esteem and self-actualization. As each need is sequentially satisfied, the next becomes dominant.

(b) McGregor's (1960) Theory X - which assumes that employees dislike work, are lazy, dislike responsibility and must be coerced to perform and Theory Y - which assumes that employees like work, are creative, seek responsibility and can exercise self direction.

(c) Herzberg's (1966) Motivation - Hygiene theory

Contemporary Theories Of Motivation

1) McClelland's (1961) theory of needs - This theory focusses on three needs - achievement, power and affiliation which govern human behaviour.

a) need for Achievement is defined as - The drive to excell, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed.
b) need for Power is defined as - The need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved in otherwise.

c) need for Affiliation is defined as - The desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

2) ERG Theory - This theory was proposed by Alderfer (1972). He reworked Maslow's need hierarchy theory to align it more closely with empirical research. He argued that there are three groups of core needs - Existence needs - which include Maslow's physiological and safety needs (b) Relatedness needs - which align with Maslow's social needs and the external component of esteem classification (c) Growth needs - these correlate with the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included under self actualization. Alderfer states that multiple needs can be operating at the same time and that frustration of higher order needs can result in regression to lower level needs.

3) Theory Of Intrinsic Motivation - The theory of Intrinsic Motivation is currently being championed by Deci (1975). His construal of intrinsic motivation stems from two sources. The first is White's (1959) notion of competence motivation. He assumed that in performance settings people are motivated to do well in order to experience a sense of competence. Experiencing a sense of competence is satisfying, and as a result, individuals will strive to attain it. The second concept of intrinsic motivation, according to Deci, stems from De Charm's (1968) notion of personal causation. This
assumes that people need to feel responsible for their own actions. Responsibility for actions is the freedom to choose among alternative courses of action. This occurs in the absence of pressure, either positive or negative, to select one course of action over another. Negative pressure to display some behaviour could be created by the threat of punishment for not doing it. Positive coercion is less intuitively obvious. Here the individual loses the freedom to choose to reject a behaviour because of the positive inducements. In both cases, the individual loses control over his actions.

4) **Consistency Theory** - The Consistency Theory has been put forward by Korman (1976). This theory has two focii. Firstly, this theory states that individuals will engage in, and find satisfying those behaviours which maximise their sense of cognitive balance or consistency. More specifically, they will be motivated to perform in a manner consistent with their self image. This self image standard often described as self esteem, is the second focus of this theory.

The consistency notion predicts that high self esteem people will choose to perform highly, will choose high prestige careers, and the like, in order to maintain a consistent and therefore, satisfying state. Korman's (1976) re-evaluation of the theory implied that high self esteem people tended to perform better than low self esteem people. Also, those with high self esteem who are already launched on a career tend to rate their careers as more important. The most controversial, yet, interesting prediction of this theory, is
that low self esteem people would also behave in a manner consistent with their self image. One reason for this, according to Korman, is that these individuals may fear that if they perform well at one time, they may be expected to maintain that standard and may not be able to do so.

**MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY (1943, 1954)**

It is probably safe to say that the most well-known theory of motivation is Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory. He hypothesized that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of five needs. These are:

1. **Physiological Needs**: which include hunger, thirst, shelter, sex, and other bodily needs.
2. **Safety Needs**: which include security and protection from physical and emotional harm.
3. **Social Needs**: which include affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship.
4. **Esteem Needs**: which include internal esteem factors such as self respect, autonomy and achievement; and external esteem factors such as status, recognition and attention.
5. **Self Actualization Needs**: The drive to become what one is capable of becoming; includes growth, achieving one's potential and self fulfilment (Figure D).

As each of these needs becomes substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. So, in order to motivate a person, according to Maslow, one
MASLOW’S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY

- Physiological Needs
- Safety Needs
- Love and Belongingness Needs
- Esteem Needs
- Self-actualization Needs
needs to understand what level of the hierarchy that person is currently on and focus on satisfying those needs at or above that level.

Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower order needs. Physiological and safety needs were described as lower order needs, and social, self esteem and self actualization as higher order needs. The distinction between the two orders was made on the premise that higher order needs are satisfied internally (within the person) whereas lower order needs are predominantly satisfied externally (by such things as wages, union contracts and tenure).

Maslow's need theory has received wide recognition, particularly among practising managers. This can be attributed to the theory's intuitive logic and ease of understanding. In a very rough manner, Maslow's need hierarchy theory can easily be converted into the content model of work motivation, opined Daftuar (1982). (Figure E).

Several studies found support for Maslow's hypothesis of prepotency of needs (Porter, 1961, 1962, 1963; Porter and Lawler, 1968; Wofford, 1971). Maslow's constructs were first operationalized by Porter (1961) and Porter and Lawler (1968) in the well known Porter's Need Satisfaction Questionnaire based on a modified version of Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory (Mitchell and Moudgill, 1976). (Figure F).

The physiological needs of the managers were assumed to have been adequately satisfied and therefore were not included by Porter in this
MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY
APPLIED TO WORK ORGANIZATIONS
A MODIFIED VERSION OF MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY OF WORK MOTIVATION

( Porte, 1961 and Daftuar, 1982)

SELF- ACTUALIZATION NEEDS: Personal Growth Feelings of Self-Fulfillment, Feelings of Worthwhile Accomplishment

AUTONOMY NEEDS: Independent Thought and Action, Authority, Opportunity of Goal Setting, Opportunity in Determining Methods etc.

ESTEEM NEEDS: Feeling of Self-Esteem, Prestige inside and outside the company for One's position in Company

SOCIAL NEEDS: To Help others, Opportunities to Develop Close Friendships

SECURITY NEEDS: Feeling of Basic Security, As For Job Security
questionnaire. An additional category, 'autonomy' was inserted between the esteem and self-actualization categories. The security (safety), social (love), esteem, autonomy and self-actualization needs were elicited by the different items of this questionnaire.

In India, Daftuar (1982) in his study on job attitudes in Indian management chose Maslow's hierarchical classification scheme based on 'Prepotency' of various types of needs as a model (Maslow, 1954). Like Porter (1961), Daftuar (1982) also substituted the basic physiological needs with need for security. Just like Porter (1961) he also inserted 'autonomy' between esteem and self-actualization needs. The categories, thus given by Daftuar (1982) arranged from lowest order (most prepotent) to highest order were: (a) Security needs: The feeling of security of service in the management position held. (b) Social needs: The opportunity in the management position, to give help to other people and the opportunity to develop close association and friendship in the management position held. (c) Esteem needs: The feeling of self-esteem a person gets from being in the particular management position held; the prestige of the management position inside the company and the prestige of the management position outside the company. (d) Autonomy needs: The opportunity for independent thought and action in the management position held; the opportunity for participation in the setting of goals of the organization in the management position; the opportunity for determination of methods and procedures within the organization in the management position. (e)
Self-actualization needs: The opportunity for personal growth and accomplishment in the management position held; the feeling of self-fulfilment a person gets from being in the management position. Daftuar (1982) found that the Maslow type need hierarchy also holds good in the Indian setting. That is, in the case of all the management levels, the need deficiencies were stronger for the higher level needs than for the lower level needs.

In the present context work motivation has been studied in terms of need satisfaction, (that is, the needs employees seek to satisfy in their job), according to which they perceive their work environment as satisfying or dissatisfying. It is also assumed that the physiological needs of the respondents are satisfied (as managers comprise the sample).

NEED SATISFACTION AND JOB ALIENATION

In trying to explain the nature of job involvement, psychological explanations tend to emphasize the need-satisfying qualities of the job as basic determinants of job involvement. Vroom (1962) proposed that a person's attempts to satisfy the need for self esteem through work on the job leads to job involvement. He emphasized intrinsic need satisfaction as the essential condition for higher job involvement.

Shepard and Panko (1974) introduced a discrepancy measure of job related alienation, labelled power discrepancy. In a study with three hundred and five blue-collar workers, power discrepancy was measured by the
difference between the amount of the job related power subjects felt they were able to exercise on their present job and the amount of power they felt they should be able to exercise. It was found that power deficit increased with the degree of functional specialization at work and that power deficit was the most common experience, regardless of the extent of functional specialization. Instrumental work orientation and isolation from organizational goals were most pronounced among subjects with deficit power. Subjects with surplus job related power were at par with those with a balance between perceived and desired power in terms of consummatory work orientation and commitment to the organizational goals. Among subjects with less job related power, than they felt they should have, instrumental work orientation and isolation from organizational goals were higher for the less affluent, younger and less educated subjects.

Lee and Graham (1986) conducted a survey on two thousand three hundred and three public employees to determine the moderating effect of self actualization need strength on the relationship between job characteristics and job outcomes. Results showed that self actualization need strength moderated the relationship on four criterion variables, i.e., life satisfaction, job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intention. Implications are that employee motivation, commitment and job satisfaction can be significantly enhanced, by steering individuals with high self actualization needs towards jobs that have the characteristics for fulfilling those needs.
Anantharaman and Rajeshwaran (1987) assessed thirty-two trade union members and twenty-four non-union members for differences in job involvement, personality orientation, need satisfaction and perceived organizational climate. The only significant difference was in the non-union members' greater stress on the need for security.

Orpen and Bonnici (1987) examined the relationship between aspects of pay equity (i.e. perceptions of pay level, personal input and job demands) and work outcomes among one hundred and one Australian university teachers. Perceptions of different aspects of pay equity were found to be unrelated to the work outcomes.

Singh and Kumari (1988) concluded on the basis of their research that:

(a) Individuals having higher order need satisfaction are likely to contribute most effectively to organizational goals. Other employees, who may not be desirous of higher order need satisfaction would be ineffective and dissatisfied with them. The study established that need strength is positively associated with job satisfaction and job performance.

(b) The results indicated a positive relationship of intrinsic motivation with job satisfaction, but it did not affect job performance and absenteeism.

(c) The workers designated as the high job involved group were more satisfied in comparison to the low job involved group. Job involvement did not have any effect on job performance and absenteeism.
The interaction effect of individual variables of need strength, motivation and involvement, as well as these variables taken together, did not affect employee's job satisfaction and absenteeism.

Dolke and Srivastava (1988) collected data from two hundred clerical and one hundred and eighteen technical textile mill workers to investigate whether the job attitudes of satisfaction, involvement and intrinsic motivation were conceptually distinct and empirically independent variables or not. Results provided strong evidence for treating the three variables independently.

Efraty and Sirgy (1990) investigated whether need satisfaction or quality of working life for twenty-one workers was positively related to organizational identification, job satisfaction, job involvement, job effort and job performance and negatively related to personal alienation. Need satisfaction related significantly to all the factors. According to them, improving the quality of working life of employees may have tangible or intangible benefits to the employing organizations in terms of job satisfaction and motivation, job involvement, organizational identification, job effort and job performances.

Beck et al. (1991) conducted a study on eighty-five staff members of a hospital, asking a total of two hundred and nineteen questions about stress and job satisfaction. Only three percent to seventeen percent of the staff often experienced stress. Instead a majority stated that they often experienced security and stimulation. Staff members stated that they were often very proud of their jobs, feeling that their skills and experience were needed. Also,
members who received praise from their supervisors were less prone to look for other jobs. Those who were often allowed to take initiative, regarded their jobs as non-monotonous and stimulating to their personal development. Despite the demanding nature of their jobs, subjects gave high ratings for job satisfaction. They had an exceptionally low turnover rate. Explanation for this may be a careful selection of personnel and an organization which both stimulates the staff's own initiatives and provides support when necessary.

In a nutshell, the studies cited provide sufficient evidence to the effect that need satisfaction i.e. work motivation affects organizational commitment positively and thereby lowers alienation. It is important, therefore, for the organization to satisfy the various needs of the employees so as to make them committed to the organization. The present study attempts to investigate the relationship among the indices of job alienation and need satisfaction in five need areas viz. Self Actualization, Self Esteem, Autonomy, Security and Social needs in middle level, male managers.
JOB ALIENATION AND JOB SATISFACTION
JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction has been the primary focus of interest to both practitioners and researchers in the area of organizational psychology. Job satisfaction is a specific subset of attitudes held by organization members. It is the attitude one has towards his or her job. It is one's affective response to the job.

Over the years considerable time and effort has been devoted to discovering the dimensions of job satisfaction. Although there are many specific and diverse job dimensions which have been shown to relate to job satisfaction at one time or another, there is a set of dimensions common to most jobs, that is sufficient to describe most of the predictable variance in job satisfaction. A common core of job dimensions is a good index of job satisfaction.

Locke (1976) presented a summary of the dimensions of jobs that consistently had been found to contribute significantly to employees' job satisfaction. These dimensions are relatively specific attitude objects for which the organizational members have some position on a like-dislike continuum. These dimensions include the work itself, pay, promotions, recognition, working conditions, benefits like pension etc., values, skills and supervisory style etc.
THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Over the years different theories of job satisfaction have been formulated. These include mainly, the following:

1. Comparison Process Theory Of Job Satisfaction

This is the most widely accepted view of job satisfaction which assumes that the degree of affect experienced results from some comparison between the individual's standards and the individual's perception of the extent to which the standards have been met. The amount of satisfaction that results is a function of the size of discrepancy between the standard and what is believed to be received from the job. Vroom (1964) labelled this view as a Subtractive Theory of Job satisfaction.

2. Equity Theory Of Job Satisfaction

This theory also contains a social element in which the individual compares his or her own inputs and outcomes to those of others. It predicts that too much of a good thing is dissatisfying. That is, receiving more than is equitable will produce less satisfaction. This theory was proposed by Adams (1965).

3. Two Factor Theory Of Job Satisfaction

Herzberg (1966) proposed that job satisfaction stemmed from an entirely different set of causes than job dissatisfaction. The major inferences drawn from Herzberg’s (1966) investigation related to the distinction between
Motivator and Hygiene factors. The events that are generally associated with high job attitudes are linked directly or indirectly with the job activities i.e. these factors are related to the job content and are intrinsic to the job. Because positive expressions of these factors are associated with high job situations, they have been called Motivators. The events predominantly associated with low job attitude situations are those extrinsic to the work itself and are associated with the job context rather than the job activities. These have been called Hygiene factors or context factors. According to this theory, self realisation can be achieved only through the fulfilment of factors intrinsic to the work itself i.e. Motivator factors.

4. Instrumentality Theory Of Job Satisfaction

Another view of job satisfaction is that individuals calculate the degree which the job is satisfying by considering the extent to which the job leads to valued outcomes. The roots of this process labelled Instrumentality theory for its emphasis on the extent to which the job is instrumental in producing job satisfaction, go back to Tolman (1932). This theory has been modified by Porter and Lawler (1968) and Campbell et al. (1970).

5. Social Influence Theory Of Job Satisfaction

Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) suggested that people decide how satisfied they are with their jobs by observing others on similar jobs and making inferences about others' satisfaction. Weis and Shaw (1979) also suggest that
an individual simply infers a level of his or her own satisfaction from observing others.

The belief that satisfied employees are more productive than dissatisfied employees has been a basic tenet among managers for years. While much evidence questions this assumed causal relationship, it can be argued that advanced societies should be concerned not only with the quantity of life, that is, concerns such as higher productivity and material acquisitions but also its quality. Those researchers with strong humanistic values argue that satisfaction is a legitimate responsibility of an organisation. Not only is satisfaction related to absenteeism and turnover, but they argue, that organizations have a responsibility to provide employees with jobs that are challenging and intrinsically rewarding.

**JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB ALIENATION**

There is a strong evidence that job attitudes underlie the spectrum of withdrawal behaviours. Early reviews on employee behaviour clearly established that lower the job satisfaction, greater the alienation of the employee. Overall job satisfaction showed consistent negative relations with turnover (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955; Vroom, 1964; Hulin, 1968; Porter and Steers, 1973; Newman, 1974; Miller, 1981) and to a lesser extent, absence (Giese and Ruter, 1949, Newman, 1974, Nicholson et al. 1977). Insignificant
relations between job satisfaction and turnover have been reported by Ilgen and Hollenback (1977) and Miller (1981).

On the other hand, job dissatisfaction may lead to poorer employee health. Rosse and Hulin (1985) considered the variable of worker health and its effect on job satisfaction. Although a number of prior researchers have linked health outcomes with job attitudes, an important addition here was the study of health outcomes in combination with adaptive behaviours. While the worker's health was negatively associated with job dissatisfaction, it appears that this relation may be broken by the use of adaptive responses. It is when employees are both unhappy and fail to adapt that decline in health appears. This finding may represent an important addition to previous research on the moderating effects of personality (Kobasa, 1979), behavioural styles (Friedman and Rosenman, 1974) and social support (French, 1974) on work stress-employee health relations.

The implications of the adaptation process are particularly pertinent today. High levels of unemployment offer few acceptable alternatives for workers performing dissatisfying work. Martin and Schermerhorn (1983) have discussed the importance of perceived inability to withdraw on health and other consequences. Their model and the current results concur in suggesting that when behavioural withdrawal is blocked, alternative mechanisms or health disorders will result. The cost to both workers and employees of stress-illness.
are now widely recognized and the high costs of other dysfunctional responses are only beginning to become apparent.

Other potential responses to unsatisfying work conditions are acts of aggression or retaliation. The psychological literature (e.g. Dollard et al., 1939; Miller, 1941) provides some support for the suggestion of Spector (1978) that much organizational 'aggression' (e.g. vicious gossip, refusal to cooperate, theft, sabotage, overt violence) is the result of frustration of workers' desires. Although limited, there is evidence that dissatisfied employees are more likely to engage in sabotage and restriction of output (Roy, 1952; Gouldner, 1954; Bensman and Gerver, 1963; Dalton, 1970), theft (Mollinger and Clark, 1970; Sheridan, 1979) and other forms of "counter", productive behaviours (Magnione and Quinn, 1975; Mollinger and Clark, 1979).

Decotiis and Summers (1987) tested an attitudinal model of organizational commitment using three hundred and sixty-seven managerial employees with an average age of twenty eight and a half years. Organizational perceived structure, process, climate and job satisfaction were predictive of commitment; Job satisfaction and organizational commitment were equally predictive of voluntary turnover.

Harpaz (1988) examined work centrality and non-financial employment among five hundred and fifty-two male Israeli subjects from different socio-economic, occupational and educational backgrounds. When asked, if they would still continue to work, after they had won enough money, through a
lottery to live comfortably for the rest of their lives, eighty nine percent said they would work. A similar finding was reported by Mannheim and Rein (1981). A larger number of older men answered in the affirmative. A step-wise discriminant analysis showed that ethnic origin, occupational satisfaction place of residence and educational level, significantly influenced the decision i.e. whether or not they will continue to work in the same organization.

Krausz et al. (1989) conducted a study on one hundred and seven supervisory and one hundred and fifty-five non-supervisory subjects to study the causal attributions for turnover. Results showed that (a) employees leave because they are dissatisfied with their work (b) Employees leave because of external causes such as family matters. The attitudes and organizational commitment were also measured and contrary to expectation causal attributions of both supervisory and non-supervisory subjects were related to job attitudes. The less satisfied subjects were more likely to attribute turnover to dissatisfaction of the leaver.

Sekaran (1989) investigated causal connections among job characteristics, sense of competence, job involvement and job satisfaction, using two hundred and sixty-seven bank employees. Work ethic had significant paths both to job involvement and sense of competence. Both, increasing confidence and job competence and skill variety had direct paths to job satisfaction. Stress had a direct negative path to job satisfaction in addition to its negative influence on sense of competence. Results indicated that making
work more interesting, reducing stress and facilitating success experiences would progressively increase employees' sense of competence which would result in increased job satisfaction.

Lucas et al. (1990) assessed the role of job performance in the job satisfaction-turnover relationship for two hundred and thirteen managers. Findings show that high performers, who tend to have greater ease of movement are more likely to depart when job dissatisfaction is high. When job satisfaction was separated into intrinsic and extrinsic components, average performing managers were found to be the most "turnover sensitive". Top performers exhibited a significant negative relationship between pay satisfaction and turnover.

Mueller and Price (1990) analyzed data from one hundred and thirty-five recently hired registered nurses to assess the effects of various explanatory variables on turnover during one year of employment. The integrated model portrayed the work conditions and employee characteristics as primarily affecting turnover, by impacting on the intervening variables of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intention to stay.

Aryee et al. (1991) found that organizational commitment and job satisfaction were the main predictors of turnover intentions. Their study was conducted on a sample of two hundred and forty-five, thirty to forty year old professional accountants. Results showed that job satisfaction, realization of
professional expectations and professional commitment contributed to professional organizational commitment.

McNeilly and Goldsmith (1991) used data from sixty-seven male and seventy-one female salespersons to explore whether gender and job performance moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave a job. Data showed a tendency for men and women to leave their current sales position because of dissatisfaction with different aspects of the job. Men expressed greater satisfaction than women with pay and opportunities for promotion and less satisfaction with their sales managers. For women, the lower their satisfaction with fellow workers, the greater their intention to leave. For low performers, the less satisfied they were with the job itself, the greater their desire to leave. Dissatisfaction with the company policy led to greater tendency to leave among low performers.

Neale (1991) conducted a study on one hundred and four emergency medical technicians (EMTs) to better understand the dynamics underlying their high turnover rates. Results showed that the sample had high stress, strain and burnout scores. Research indicated that these scores were related to drug overdose and exposure. Job dissatisfaction was related to attitudes that the job adversely affects one's family; that the emergency medical technicians' quarters were uncomfortable, and that administrators were not knowledgeable about job demands and skills of emergency medical technicians. Areas of discontent included low salary and inadequate equipment.
Deren et al. (1992) conducted structured interviews with currently active twenty outreach workers. Results showed that stress was most frequently mentioned as a primary source of dissatisfaction and also as a reason for leaving. The outreach workers suggested job improvements which included improvements in the terms of employment (e.g. salary, benefits), more education and training opportunity and more support groups.

Gaertner and Nollen (1992) categorised employees into four groups (leavers, stayers, locked-ins and jilteds) to study turnover intentions among four hundred and thirty-one executives. Results indicated that stayers were characterized by high job satisfaction, integration into the management team and perception that the company provided employment security. Leavers were more likely to have an opposite opinion. Jilted executives were distinguished by moderate seniority, high outside career opportunity and a somewhat low inside career opportunity.

Blegen (1993) conducted a study to describe the magnitude of the relationships between nurses' job satisfaction and the variables most frequently associated with it. A meta-analysis of data from forty-eight studies revealed that job satisfaction was most strongly associated negatively with stress and organizational commitment. Seven variables had correlations between .20 and .50: communication with supervisor, autonomy, recognition, routinization, communication with peers, fairness and locus of control. Four other variables
frequently included in these studies had low correlation (less than .20): age, tenure, education and professionalization.

Thus, recent theory and research indicates that efforts to maximise job satisfaction may in fact result in a more satisfactory job performance. There is also a consistent trend of evidence that shows that job dissatisfaction is a significant predictor of high turnover and absenteeism. Job satisfaction and its different aspects viz. satisfaction with pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision and work itself were studied in relation to Job-Alienation in the present study.
JOB ALIENATION AND JOB PERFORMANCE
JOB PERFORMANCE

Productivity is one of the most important jobs of the management of an organization. Productivity of a system largely depends upon the personality and attitudinal variables of the employees. Performance is a measure of productivity.

Performance evaluation serves a number of purposes in organizations. Management uses evaluations for general personnel decisions. Evaluations provide inputs into such important decisions as promotions, transfers and terminations. Performance evaluation can be used as a criterion against which selection and development programmes are validated. Newly hired employees who perform poorly can be identified through this process. Similarly the effectiveness of training and development programmes can be determined by assessing how well those employees who have participated, do on their performance evaluation. Evaluation also provide feedback to employees on how they are performing. Further, these evaluations can be used as a basis for reward allocations. Harter (1986) argued that to achieve motivated, responsible behaviour and increased performance, the focus should be on the maximum involvement of the individual in the process of agreeing to, and reviewing performance. He stated that performance appraisal and improvement were most effective when the individual's energies, goals and commitment were harnessed through the review process to the goals and purposes of the organization as a whole.
On the basis of their research, Singh and Singh (1990) found that performance is not as much affected by any physical or situational variables as by some personality and attitudinal variables such as, job satisfaction and alienation. Generally, job satisfaction is positively associated with performance. The negative relationship between alienation and job performance may be linked with the idea that the work setup in an organization should be structured in such a way that the individual worker's personal view of his work meets his silent needs and expectations, so that he may not feel alien in a working situation. Singh and Singh (1990) stated that, keeping this in view, managers should emphasize frequent get-together programmes, recreational activities, and various other facilities to lessen the workers' feelings of alienation and to increase performance output.

MODELS OF TURNOVER - PERFORMANCE LINKAGES

The relationship of employees' performance to turnover is a topic of growing interest, as evidenced by increased attention to performance as a variable in model building (Steers and Mowday, 1981; Rhodes and Doering, 1983; Jackofsky, 1984) and in empirical studies (Dreher, 1982; Sheridan, 1985 and Jackofsky et al. 1986). One can suggest at least three reasons for this increased interest. First, despite voluminous previous research on the correlates of turnover, the variance explained by the present models remains small (Steel and Ovalle, 1984). Therefore scholars have made few advances in
understanding the phenomenon (Mobley, 1982). Second, little is known about the cause of turnover. The strongest relationship found to date is between intent to quit and turnover (Steel and Ovalle, 1984). However, the knowledge of intentions is not readily available to managers in most organizations, and even if it were, it would be of little value in suggesting ways to deal with an employee's decision to quit.

Third, there has been increasing interest in the consequences of turnover, an area of study neglected by most in previous researches (Steers and Mowday, 1981). Traditionally, investigators have assumed that turnover is a negative phenomenon for organizations because employees are lost, but recent investigations have begun to question this assumption (Dalton and Todor, 1982; Abelson and Baysinger, 1984). The relationship between performance and turnover weighs heavily in the determination of whether the organizational consequences are generally positive or generally negative (Boudreau and Berger, 1985; Hollenbeck and Williams, 1986). An organization that loses a disproportionately high number of its good performers would have more cause for concern than one that loses predominantly poor performers. In other words "the organizational consequences of turnover are dependent on who leaves and who stays" (Mobley, 1982).

In the 1980's emphasis in the area of turnover research shifted from an earlier focus on attitudinal and biographical correlates of turnover to behavioural correlates, especially performance. At least two issues have stimulated the study of performance - turnover relationships. First, as is already
stated the recognition that organizational consequences of turnover are not necessarily dysfunctional (Abelson and Baysinger, 1984). Loss of low performing employees who are replaceable internally or from an external labour market may actually increase organizational productivity (functional turnover). Only if high performers leave are the consequences of turnover necessarily bad (dysfunctional turnover) for the organization. Thus, knowing how performance and turnover are related has important applied implications for organizational functioning.

A second stimulus has been the theoretical controversy about the probable direction of the relationship between performance and turnover. One hypothesis, following the expectancy theory, suggests that employee performance, when rewarded with valued outcomes, should enhance employee satisfaction. High satisfaction in turn, should lower the probability of turnover (McEnvoy and Cascio, 1987). High performers thus, should be more likely to remain with an organization than low performers, yielding a low performance - turnover relationship. A conflicting explanation suggests that high performers are more employable than low performers in external labour markets. Consequently, there should be a positive performance - turnover relationship (Martin et al. 1981). These two perspectives may be recognized as intellectual descendants of March and Simon's (1958), conceptualizations.

March and Simon (1958) suggested that turnover was a function of the perceived desirability and ease of movement. Theorists who take such approaches (Martin et al. 1981 and Jackofsky, 1984) see high performance as
increasing ease of movement, so they expect a positive relationship with turnover. However, the same theorists also predict that equitably rewarded high performance will lower the desirability of movement and in turn, lower turnover. Steers and Mowday (1981) predicted that high performance will lead to increased expectations of rewards, which lead to increased turnover if those expectations are not met. At the same time, their model predicts that low performance will diminish satisfaction with the intrinsic rewards of a job and hence increase turnover. Mobley (1982) captured the equivocality of present predictions well, by stating that the possible organizational consequences of turnover include both the loss of good performers and the displacement of poor performers.

Disagreements among scholars who have reviewed previous empirical studies of the relationship between turnover and performance mirror the equivocality of the models. Some have concluded that it is positive (Martin et al. 1981), some have concluded that it is negative (Keller, 1984; Sheridan, 1985), and most have concluded that it is unknown at present (Stumpf and Dawley, 1981; Dreher, 1982; Mobley, 1982). Representative of the third group of studies is Jackofsky's (1984) observation that to date, inconsistencies in these findings have not been resolved.

**Jackofsky's (1984) Model**

Jackofsky (1984) hypothesized that a curvilinear relationship could be expected between performance and total (voluntary and involuntary) turnover. In her model, both low and high performers were more likely to leave than the
middle range performers. Low performers were more likely to be terminated or encouraged to leave by threats or punishment. High performers were more likely to leave because of their high external marketability.

Jackofsky et al. (1986) tested this proposed curvilinear relationship between job performance and turnover (i.e. turnover occurring among the lowest and the highest performers) in two diverse employee groups, using one hundred and sixty male accountants (average age twenty five and a half years) and one hundred and seven owner-operator truck drivers (average age thirty eight and a half years). Results indicated that performance was related to turnover in a curvilinear fashion in both, the professional and the non-professional samples. Rosse (1987) investigated the hypothesis proposed by Jackofsky and Peters (1983) positing that ability has an indirect effect on turnover through the intervening variables of ease of movement, desirability of movement and the intention to quit and the moderator variable of task complexity. Findings revealed ability to be negatively correlated with turnover, positively correlated with desirability of movement and uncorrelated with ease of movement. Findings failed to support Jackofsky's and Peters (1983) model.

Mathieu and Baratta (1989) tested Jackofsky's (1984) model among a sample of two hundred and ninety bank tellers. Performance exhibited a significant negative correlation with turnover. Leavers were classified as (a) employee initiated, (b) company initiated, and (c) uncontrollable. The average performance of employees in the company initiated groups was significantly
lower than that of subjects in the other two groups. Employees who remained in the bank performed significantly higher than those who left.

**JOB PERFORMANCE AND JOB ALIENATION**

Many studies have tried to investigate the relationship between Job Performance and Job Alienation. Hollenbeck and Williams (1986) tested whether work attitudes widely praised as predictors of turnover frequency are also useful predictors of turnover functionality. The results of their study, using a sample of one hundred and twelve retail sales persons indicated that (a) the traditional measure of turnover frequency overstates the detrimental effects of turnover on organizational effectiveness, in that fifty three percent of the turnover was in fact functional, and (b) turnover functionality which emphasizes the performance levels of stayers and leavers, is unrelated to work attitudes.

Cope et al. (1987) examined the relationship between supervisory ratings of performance and turnover of one hundred and forty-four leavers and one hundred and forty-four stayers, across thirty-two positions in a large institution for the mentally retarded. Results showed that performance rating for those leaving the organization were significantly lower than for stayers. Differences occurred most significantly with involuntary dismissals.

Jackofsky and Slocum (1987) tested longitudinally a proposed model of job turnover that included job performance as a predictor using path analysis data from questionnaires completed by sixty three non-managerial hotel
employees (average age twenty six years). Out of the seven hypothesized paths i.e. job performance and (a) leadership, (b) expectation of finding alternatives, (c) leadership and job satisfaction, (d) expectation of finding alternatives and thinking of quitting, (e) job satisfaction and thinking of quitting, (f) thinking of quitting and intention to quit, (g) intention to quit and job turnover, six were significant in the predicted direction.

McEnvoy and Cascio (1987) sought to address these competing explanations by conducting a meta-analysis of twenty-four studies involving seven thousand, seven hundred and seventeen individuals to investigate the direction and magnitude of the correlation between turnover and employee performance. Their results showed that turnover was lower among good performers with an average uncorrected correlation between the two variables of -.22. Of particular interest were their findings regarding voluntary (employee initiated) and involuntary (organization initiated) departures from organizations. Their results suggested that voluntary, involuntary and total turnover were related negatively to job performance but involuntary turnover had the highest interpretable negative relationship and was the only form for which sensitivity analysis did not rule out the possibility of a positive relationship.

The relationship between job performance and turnover was also studied by Mossholder (1988) using a sample of three hundred and sixty-five supervisory employees. A curvilinear relationship between job performance and turnover intention was found.
Stout et al. (1988) conducted a study among one hundred and twenty-two white, male employees of a firm who were in three distinct stages of the plateauing process. Subjects who remained nonplateaued, improved their levels of performance, indicated a desire to get promoted and believed themselves to be more marketable than before. Subjects who became plateaued during the study indicated that they were less marketable and had lower promotional aspirations. Subjects who were plateaued throughout the study indicated a declining organizational commitment and a greater propensity to leave the firm, and they were less concerned with specific career issues.

To study the correlates of turnover, Koslowsky and Locke (1989) examined the relationship between turnover and profit and sales for lower level employees, in three hundred and two retail outlets of a single organization. In addition, two components of profit (salary costs and shrinkage) were examined. Results suggested that the relationship between turnover and some measure of organizational performance is complex and that conflicting effects of turnover may be marked in broad measures of performance.

Werbel and Bedian (1989) evaluated the interactional effect of age and job performance with intended turnover and determined whether age differentially affects turnover intentions of better and poorer performers, in a sample of four hundred and eighteen accountants. Results indicated that age was a significant moderator in the relationship between performance and intention to quit. Given that older, poorer performers are more likely to indicate intention to quit, organizations should reconsider programmes designed to
reduce all turnover, since this would be tantamount to spending resources on employees with lower probabilities of returning the investment through their performance contribution.

Some evidence exists to suggest that affective commitment is positively related and continuance commitment is negatively related to job performance. This hypothesis was tested by Meyer et al. (1989) by measuring the affective and continuance commitment of first level managers in a large food service company and by relating these scores to ratings of performance obtained from their supervisors. The job satisfaction of these managers was also measured and related to their job performance. Results revealed interesting correlations between the work attitudes expressed by unit managers and performance ratings made by their supervisors. The correlations between affective commitment and the three performance measures were all positive and were significant for the overall performance and promotability ratings. In contrast, the correlations between continuance commitment and the three performance measures were all significantly negative. Job satisfaction scores did not correlate significantly with any of the performance ratings. As predicted, the direction of the relations between commitment and performance varied as a function of the nature of commitment. Supervisor ratings of performance and promotability tended to increase with increased affective commitment of unit managers and to decrease with increased continuance commitment. The partial correlations between the commitment and performance measures, with age, organizational tenure and job tenure controlled, were almost identical to the
zero-order correlations. The relations between commitment and performance therefore, cannot be attributed to differences in age and tenure. Moreover, the fact that job satisfaction did not correlate significantly with performance suggests that the correlation involving affective commitment reflected relations between performance and employees' affective orientation towards the organization, rather than toward the job and work in general. The results of this study generally supported Meyer et al.'s (1989) predictions. Affective commitment of employees in a food service organization was positively related to their measured job performance, whereas continuance commitment was negatively related. The value of commitment to the organization, may therefore, depend on the nature of that commitment. When commitment reflects an identification with, and involvement in the company, as conceptualized by Porter et al. (1974), the organization may benefit both in terms of reduced turnover and superior performance. In contrast, when commitment is primarily on the basis of recognition of the costs associated with leaving, as Becker (1960) described it, the benefits of reduced turnover may be obtained at the price of relatively poor performance.

Bycio et al. (1990) conducted a meta analysis of forty-five studies to identify the theoretical and applied ramifications of the job performance-employee turnover relationship. They found that overall, leavers tended to be below average performers, but the relationship was especially weak where voluntary turnover was concerned. The average corrected correlations involving supervisory ratings and voluntary turnover was -.17 whereas the equivalent
involuntary turnover correlation was -.52. Similar findings were obtained with non-rating performance indices.

Schwab (1991) conducted a study on a sample which consisted of two hundred and one tenure track social science faculty members in a large public university in the Midwest. Turnover measures were obtained from the records of individuals who did not appear on a yearly budget after the initial year of study and had resigned. Control variables obtained from the budget, included dummy coded identifiers for the departments and tenure (1 = yes, 0 = no) and variable for salary (nine months equivalent) and years at the university. Individual's ages and total work experience were obtained from available records. Performance was measured by the number of citations reported in the Social Science Citation Index for the years 1981-85. Results showed that compared to the untenured faculty members, the tenured group also had more citations, higher salaries and lower turnover. Findings revealed that performance was positively (p < .01) related to turnover among the tenured individuals, with higher performers more likely to leave. In the untenured group performance was negatively related to turnover (p < .05). Schwab's (1991) study explicated several institutional contingencies hypothesized to influence the relationship between performance and turnover. Of particular significance, given prior research and theorizing, is the finding that a positive relationship between performance and turnover may be expected under certain conditions. Specifically, conditions conducive to a positive relationship appear to include externally visible performance coupled with external demand, that leads to the
opportunity for lateral inter-organizational mobility and truly voluntary departures from an organization.

Zenger et al. (1992) collected data from nine hundred and eighty-four engineering employees. Results confirmed their hypothesis that extremely high and moderately low performers were likely to remain in the firms offering rewards for extreme performance, while largely disregarding performance distinctions for moderate performance levels. Also moderately high and extremely low performers were likely to depart.

A review of literature thus reveals equivocal results. No clear cut relationship has emerged between job performance and job alienation. Also this relationship seems to be moderated by a number of variables. Therefore, additional research into the relationship between turnover and job performance is needed for determining the dynamics of turnover. It may also be helpful in furthering our understanding of both, the causes and correlates of job alienation and turnover. The present investigation is an endeavour in this direction, studying the relationship between job alienation and job performance both at micro and macro levels.