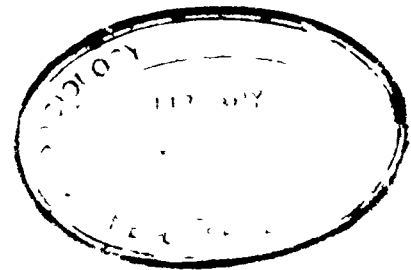


SOCIOLOGY OF COMMITMENT TO WORK: A STUDY OF THE WORKERS OF BOKARO STEEL PLANT

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SUPERVISOR

Prof. Gopal Sharan Sinha

UNIVERSITY PROFESSOR

&

HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY
PATNA COLLEGE, PATNA UNIVERSITY

SUBMITTED BY

Dramod Kumar Sinha

READER

P. G. DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY,
MARWARI COLLEGE,
BHAGALPUR UNIVERSITY

C E R T I F I C A T E

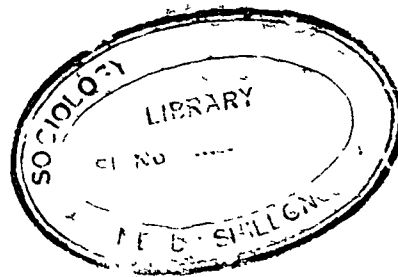
This is to certify that Sri Pramod kumar sinha, Reader, P.G.Department of Sociology, Marwari college ,Bhagalpur University, Bhagalpur,has worked satisfactorily for the requisite number of terms under my supervision and that the thesis entitled" SOCIOLOGY OF COMMITMENT TO WORK: A STUDY OF THE WORKERS OF BOKARO STEEL PLANT" embodies his own work.

It is also certified that he has worked in the Patna University in his first and the last terms .

Gopal S. Sinha
(Gopal sharan Sinha) 15.6.92
University Professor

and

Head of the Department of sociology
Patna college,Patna University
Patna.



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PART - I

CHAPTER-I

Introduction and
Conceptualization of
Commitment to work

INTRODUCTION & CONCEPTUALIZATION OF COMMITMENT TO WORK

Japanese extraordinary progress and achievement in the field of industry is generally attributed to their commitment and attitude toward their work. Low rates of industrial disputes and absenteeism, and a deep concern for production have become the hallmark of Japanese industrial system. The commitment of the workers is total, so much so that they do not even avail of the vacations they are entitled to.

Commitment when used in this context corresponds to the sense in which we are going to use it in the present study. It is important to note that this word is being used loosely in many other contexts. Thus, we have the politicians talking of committed followers, the religious leaders looking for committed believers and the political executives complaining about the absence of committed bureaucrats.

Despite its wide spread use, the concept of commitment has received rather scant and belated attention from the social scientists. Becker (1960) who made one of the pioneering studies on the subject had rightly observed that there has been "little formal analysis of the concept of commitment and little attempt to integrate it explicitly

with current Sociological theory ". And yet, the importance of commitment as a concept in the present industrial context can hardly be over emphasized.

With the advent of the industrial revolution the one problem that has been engaging the attention of the leaders of the industry is the technique of getting the workers to put their heart and soul into the jobs assigned to them so that the productivity may be increased and the quality of the products bettered in order to capture a highly competitive market. The industrial nations of the world are in a state of perpetual competition . It has been realized by all of them that in the final analysis it is the workers commitment to their jobs or to their organizations which provides the secret of industrial pre-eminence. We have already mentioned the case of Japan whose industrial progress has intrigued many management experts. The "Culturalists" seek to explain the Japanese phenomenon as manifestation of a general pattern of close alignment between persons and groups. The communist countries have tried to secure work force commitment through implanting the communist philosophy among the workers, while the Americans have been struggling with various management methods and a whole array of incentives.

In the developing countries Commitment to work is considered to be of paramount importance in order to hasten the pace of development. In a large number of

countries, which achieved independence after the second world war, the former colonial dictatorship were replaced by dictatorships of native origin as the democratic style of working was considered too slow. The method employed by these dictators to get the workers' commitment were naturally dictatorial and mostly negative in character. A few of them took recourse to fundamentalist appeal. India, however, has chosen the democratic method in politics and the same thing applies to the industrial sphere also. The work-force commitment, in the Indian context, is to be considered against this liberal democratic background. India has the third largest technological population in the world and industries understandably, it is keen to forge ahead and attain a high degree of industrial progress. This anxiety to speedup the pace of industrial advancement is visible in all the schemes launched by its political leaders. Against this background any study dealing with the commitment of workers to their jobs or to their organizations is decidedly going to be useful.

In the present study we have tried to analyse the commitment to work of the workers of Bokaro steel plant, a major public sector undertaking in India . Since India has a mixed economy the study of the workers of steel plant under the public sector can provide interesting leads to an understanding of work commitment problems in public sector undertakings of India in general. Of course, there are many

variations in detail among the various public sector undertakings but they have quite a few things in common, particularly, matters relating to emoluments work-conditions, industrial policy, etc. While concentrating upon the specific responses of the various sections of the employes of the Bokaro steel plant, the study also seeks to peep into the psyche of the workers to discover the influences of the Indian concept of work as expressed from time to time by its ancient and modern thinkers. The political leaders of India have always been emphasizing the value of work and the most prominent among them is Gandhi who developed a whole philosophy of work. This philosophy was not a creation of Gandhi, it was an expression of the traditional thinking on the subject by Indians in general through the centuries.

WORK IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE:

Throughout history men were what they did, a man's work provided him with an identity that was recognised both by others and by himself.

Men work to remain alive especially in economically underdeveloped societies (Wax, 1958).

To the ancient Greeks, work was curse and nothing more (Tilgher, 1931; Mills, 1956). They saw work as brutalizing the mind rendering man unfit for considering truth or practising virtue. Aristotle went to the extent

of saying. "All paid employment absorbs and degrades the mind". According to Homer, the Gods hated mankind and out of spite condemned men to labour. Like Greeks, Hebrews thought of work as a painful necessity but added the belief that it was a product of original sin. It was accepted as expiation through which man might atone for the sin of his ancestors and cooperate with God in the world's salvation. Similarly, the Romans considered only agriculture and business worthy of gentlemen, all other pursuits were vulgar and debasing.

Early Christians followed this tradition, but added a positive function : Work is necessary in order to share what is produced with one's needy brothers. But no intrinsic value was recognised in work. It was still only means to earn one's own livelihood.

The early writings of church and later reformation movement give an accurate glimpse of the common man's perception of work. As Church grew closer to accepting worldly standards, it granted further justice to labour and its fruits. For Luther, as for Medieval Catholicism, work was natural. It carried with it a penal but also an educational character. With the idea that the best way to serve God was to do most perfectly the work of one's profession, Luther swept away the distinction between religious piety and worldly activity ; profession became vocation and work was valued as a religious path to salvation. Calvin developed these ideas further : all men,

even the rich, must work because it is the will of God. But they must not have lust after the fruits of their labour. This is the foundation of Protestant work Ethic and abhorrence of idleness and pleasure.

Maxweber (1930) saw a definite relation between Protestant Ethics and the emergence of capitalism. According to him the religious compulsion to give one self a life of hard work provided the secret of the ruthless march to ever rising entrepreneurial heights. Hard work and austere living led to the rise of a class of persons who developed industries, prospected mines, and expanded business. Maxweber noted that it took a very short time for a protestant to rise from an humble position and catch up with the already rich and well established Catholics.

In early Hindu Society, work had no identity of its own. Society was compartmentalised on the basis of birth and one did what one was destined to do. The worker was the dependent and servant of this social structure. Work itself was considered both lowly and impure.

However, that religion is not the basic motivator and that work be gets its own rewards, is also a view and we find it even in the renaissance period. Work was seen as divorced from its religious trappings and considered as something self-fulfilling. The nineteenth Century philosophers also saw work as a purely human need and not a religious in junction. The early Utopians also had

taken a non-religious view of the role of work in man's life.

THE CONCEPT OF WORK:

Work is a highly complex phenomenon in our present stage of technological development. Work may be a task, a duty or an accomplishment. It may be mental, physical or both. It may be repetitive or creative. Further, it may be drudgery, or personally rewarding, and its results may be obvious or subtle. Its end product is often evaluated differently by different people. In other words, work takes on different shades of meaning, and most important is the intrinsic meaning that it has for the individual performer and the group with whom he identifies. Regardless of its meaning, work cannot be considered apart from the individual who performs it. His motives, experiences, and social interrelations with his family, company and community must always be considered (Blum and Naylor, 1968).

Work is a basic condition of the existence and survival of human life. It is independent of any particular form of society. It is one of the most absorbing things men can think and talk about. It fills the greater part of the waking day for most of us. For the fortunate it is the source of great satisfactions, for many others it is the cause of grief (Herzberg, et al, 1959).

Thus, work may be regarded as a fundamental law of creation. Labour is essential for the preservation of

life. If men do not work they would die of hunger and thirst, of cold and exposure, and in advanced communities, of boredom and isolation. Without work we should have neither food nor shelter, neither transport nor communication, nor any of the amenities which are now a days considered necessary for good living. Civilization would be impossible without the active cooperation and contribution of each individual. But for work and recording of man's achievements, all the knowledge, and experience gained by our ancestors would be lost, and each of us would have to start a fresh at the bottom of the ladder and chances are that few of us would survive.

"Life without work, even if it were possible, would be meaningless. If life has a purpose-as indeed it must have - it can only be achieved through labour. This purpose may be variously described as the pursuit of happiness, of knowledge or of perfection. Our heritage as human beings is the raw material with which we have to start. Each of us must take this rough stone and curve out a design for ourselves. This process of creative sculpture is nothing but work designed to unfold man's potential or hidden powers. Our daily work is, therefore, not only a means of earning a living, it is a an essential part of the process of living intended to take us nearer to our goal. Only through work life may reach its fulfillment. Hard work is necessary for the development of body, mind and character

to their full stature. But, if, in addition work happens to be congenial, it become an exquisite pleasure. Work is one of the keys to happiness as well as goodness in life. It is the supreme blessing of mankind without which life would be intolerable (Lal, R.B., 1962).

THE MEANING OF WORK:

The practice of analysing the meaning of work is very recent. There is little or no evidence of how the common man regarded his work in earlier times.

Work is a physical concept too. In Physics, work means movement of a body under the influence of a force. But, if there is no motion produced in the body, the work done is Zero. Thus, work is done only when the force applied to the body makes it to move (ie. there is a displacement of the body) (King, 1986). But, obviously we are not concerned with the purely physical aspects of work. Work is performed by machines and also by animals but, as Argyle (1972) said the concepts of work is not actually related to work performed by such agencies. We are concerned with work performed by human beings and our aim is to probe the human dimensions of work. In its human context work necessarily entails a consideration of the attitude of human being engaged in work. The ancient Greeks looked down upon work as is evident from the very origin of the word 'work'. The word work has been derived from the Greek word "Ponos"

which implies sorrow, drudgery heavy heartedness and exhaustion. Thus, the word work has very unpalatable associations.

But, this ancient Greek attitude to work is not a universal thing. The concepts of work varies from place to place and undergoes changes with the passage of time. Persons engaged in work develop their own attitudes to it depending upon the sociocultural milieu to which they belong. Their experiences in work, the social pressures under which the work is performed, the social and religious values in which they have been brought up - all have their influence in shaping their attitude and approach to work. As Inkle (1960) puts it " people have experiences, develop attitudes and form values in response to forces or pressures which their environment creates ". Thus, for the Greeks work may have been an experience akin to torture but there is another attitude to work at the other end of the spectrum. This attitude is decidedly positive and noble. Work does not produce sorrow, on the contrary, it can be a source of great joy and satisfaction. Morse and Weiss (cf Nosow Form, 1962 : 29) have summed up this approach as follows, " for a majority of men working means having a purpose, giving a sense of accomplishment and expressing themselves. They feel that not working would leave them aimless and without opportunities to contribute

working gives a feeling of being tied into larger society, of having something to do, of having a purpose of life".

Some studies conducted by industrial psychologists have revealed that the approach to work as encountered in modern times is closer to the position outlined by Morse and Weiss above. Freedmann and Havinghurst (1962) conducted a survey of five occupational groups and arrived at the following conclusions with regard to work :-

(i) Workers of lower skill and Socio-economic status are likely to see their work as having no other meaning than that of earning money.

(ii) Workers of all five associational groups attach importance to remain in some kind of work association.

(iii) Work is a routine, which makes the time pass, is recognized about equally by all five groups.

(iv) All groups discover self respect and secure respect or recognition from others by means of their work.

(v) The physicians showed a high awareness of the "service" to others - meaning in their work.

(vi) Work is important as a source of intrinsic enjoyment for all groups but there may be some shades of differences between them in this respect.

Thorus (1971) has conceptualized work either as having intrinsic value for the individual or as a means to an end. These two generalised views according to Thorus are associated with, on the one hand, the higher occupational groups, in particular the professions, and on the other hand, the lower occupational groups, in particular the manual workers.

Parker and Smith (1976) view work as 'the activity of man by which he meets the needs of himself and of his society which offers him a degree of choice in the type of work done, and which provides him with a cultural and subcultural identity.

To Marx (cf Haralambos and Heald, 1983), work means the production of goods and services and holds the key to human happiness and fulfilment. According to Marx, work is the most important, the primary human activity. As such it can provide the means either to fulfill man's potential or to distort and pervert his nature and his relationships with others. Marx believed that work provided the most important and vital means for man to fulfill his basic needs, his individuality and his humanity. By expressing his personality in the creation of a product, the worker can experience a deep satisfaction. In seeing his product used and appreciated by others, he satisfies their needs and thereby expresses his care and humanity for others. In a community in which everyone works to satisfy

both their individual needs and the needs of others, work is completely a fulfilling activity. In Marx's words, 'each of us would in his production have doubly affirmed himself and his fellowmen'. Marx, however, felt that this ideal has yet to be realized. Throughout history man's relationship to his work has been destructive both to the human spirit and to human relationships.

Work has often been related to economic gain but this is not what Parker and Smith (1976) have discovered in the study of primitive and modern societies. According to them, in both kinds of societies work was seen as something beyond economic considerations.

Structural - functionalist models of explanation are concerned with the on going and rather more enduring patterns of social relationships which constitute society. The concern is to describe and analyze the institutions and structures which form discernible patterns of social organization. Here, there is more than one emphasis: interest may focus on the social structure itself or on the functions of that structure. Structuralist explanations tend to stress the historical aspect of institutions - how they have changed over time and, in the context of a total societal model, how changes in one institution relate to changes in others. Functionalist explanations, on the other hand, usually take their starting point from existing patterns and project from these a

variety of consequences for the same institutions (Parker and Smith, 1976).

The structural-functionalist view of work is in terms of work organizations, the social purposes they serve, the ways in which they recruit, train, Control and motivate individuals, and the optimum conditions for the effective management of group and organizational behaviour.

Thus, the general meaning of work is characterized by diffuseness, universality, affectivity and ascription, while the meaning of industrial work is characterized by particularism, specificity, neutrality and achievement (Parsons, 1964). And hence, the meanings of work tend to differ, according to the social context of the individual and the work ethics undergoes a sequence of changes from time to time.

INDUSTRIAL WORK:

Work related to industrial setting has special significance and different dimensions. The concept of industrial work has gained special attention since industrial revolution. Factory system of production is also a child of the industrial revolution. According to Montoux (1928), " the factory system concentrates and multiplies the means of production so that the output is both accelerated and increased ". The emergence of factory system resulted in the formation of two main classes - the owner



and the workers. With the coming of the factory system, the nature and mode of the work changed. Small craftsmen were driven out of business and many peasants were driven off the land by enclosures ; both were offered better wages although working conditions were worst. As a result, " many preferred poverty at home to being uprooted to work in factories (Argyle, 1972)".

As described earlier industrial work is different from general work. The most important characteristic of industrial work was divorce of the worker from the product and means of production. In fact the workers in the factory does not produce, he only works. Peter Drucker (1962) made it quite clear that, " in an industrial societyit is only a very small minority of artists and professional men who can produce at all by themselves. All the other are dependent upon access to an organization to be productive. It is the organization rather than the individual which is productive in an industrial system ".

As marked in the Encyclopedia of Social Sciences (1968), " In an industrial system :-

(i) there is a visible division of labour in which most segments of the population consume products they do not produce.

(ii) the workers become consumers of many products not directly related to work itself, and



(iii) conditions of work style of living persons following agricultural pursuits can be evaluated against innovation and novelty in industrial and commercial spheres of life ".

Industrial work by its nature is contractual i.e. work is performed in the context of employee-employer relations purely for a monetary gain. The discipline of industrial worker is organization oriented. Jacques (1967) pointed out to two aspects of industrial work; (a) Prescribed and (b) discretionary.

Performance of prescribed aspects required specific training and specialization on the job. What is required is obedience and conformity to specific control such as technical control, administrative control, legislative control and controls conceived by consumers in the form of demands. In contrast, the discretionary controls require exercise of wisdom and judgment which comes from " Within ". The player of the role himself chooses, judges, feels, senses, considers and calculates, what would be the best thing to do in the circumstances, the best way of going about what he is doing (Fox, 1974). The degree of prescription and discretion differ according to the type of worker and his status in the status system of the organization.

In their study of the workers in Detroit Weiss and Kahn (1960) have attempted to analyse how the

worker himself would set out to define and describe the activity he terms industrial work. Their study is based upon a probability sample of men aged twenty one and over who were working in Detroit at that time. The final size of the sample was 371. In this study they attempt to discover how people define work and come to the conclusion that there are only four basic definitions. These are :-

- (i) Work is an activity which is necessary though not enjoyed (59%)
- (ii) an activity which is organized by others (24%)
- (iii) an activity which required exertion (19%) and
- (iv) an activity which is productive (8%).

To Aron (1967) industrial work is not so much of a new kind of work as it is a mode of living. It implies acceptance of values and norms appropriate for an industrial society.

In order to arrive at a clear and more precise meaning of work it is necessary to distinguish it from allied concepts like job, labour, effort, etc. Normally there is a tendency to use all these words interchangeably but we must guard against such loose usage.

WORK AND JOB:

The term ' job ' is regarded as a group of similar positions in an organization. Otis and Leukart (1934) have described job as (a) a position (b) a group of positions involving substantially the same duties, skills, knowledge and responsibilities, or (c) a number of positions or groups of task, which are somewhat similar in nature and workers' requirements, and which are performed by a number of workers who customarily change about from one position to another.

Morse and Weiss (1962) have distinguished " Work " from Job. One may express dissatisfaction with the job, which is a physical fact but no one would like to remain without 'work' which is a socio-psychological entity. It is in this sense that Morse and Weiss have stated that "many individuals including those who say they are satisfied with their jobs, would switch to another job if they could but few would stop working. Therefore, 'job' is the precise activity related to over all process of production while 'industrial work' is a broader category which includes job besides many other things.

WORK, LABOUR AND EMPLOYMENT:

The concepts of work and Labour (Arerdt, 1958) have to do with 'activity' rather than time. Both of these terms are often equated with employment, but while it

is true that all employment implies work of some kind, the reverse is not necessarily so. Employment is work in the narrow sense of income producing activity, but work has a wider biological and physiological meaning of purposeful and sustained action. Whereas employment may be contrasted with idleness or with work that is economically unremunerative or disinterested, work in its broadest meaning is the opposite of rest.

A more prevalent term for early 'industrial work' was labour. Adam Smith defined 'production labour' as that labour, which created marketable commodities. Unproductive labour included 'services'. Work and labour can be distinguished on this basis. It has been emphasized that nothing was work, until it entered a market. However, had a woman may labour at home, economists yet don't consider her function as 'work' since she is not paid for it through a market transaction. Historically the idea indicates that work is only that which is separate and apart from household activities (Vincent and Mayers, 1965). To make it more clear, it is stated, " Labour is said to be voluntary effort of human being to produce objects of desire. Unvoluntary or uncompensated effort cannot be called labour" (Encyc. of Soc. Sc. 1968) ' Labour ' Continues to be the technical term for human being employed by and subordinate to, some one else. Labour does not include the efforts, of entrepreneurs. According to Webster's Dictionary (1969),

"Labour refers to services performed by workers for wages as distinguished from those rendered by entrepreneurs for profit". Moore (1953) concluded that it is difficult to define labour in universal terms referring to the some class of human activities. ' Worker ' is a term more prevalent in the industrial context. Of course, it covers people engaged in other walks of life also, "Labour" is an undifferentiated term. The encyclopaedia of Social Sciences (1968) defines, " workers - as those who produce or transform goods or services for their own consumption and for that of others. Money payment for work does not always accompany its performance, although this is general in advanced economics". In the Indian context, the term "Worker" means 'any person employed, directly or through any agency, Whether for wages or not, in any manufacturing process, or in cleaning any part of the machinery or premises used for a manufacturing process, or in any other kind of work, incidental to or connected with the manufacturing process, or the subjects of manufacturing process " (Factoriees Act, 1948, Section 2 (1)).

Dubin (1976) observes that of these three terms work, Labour and Employment, the last term implies a social relationship.

WORK AND NON - WORK:

For analytical purposes it is necessary to

distinguish work from non-work. An essential aspect of evolution of work in industry was its increasing separateness from other aspects of life. In modern times there is significant difference between what a person does at work and what he does outside work. In reality human life is too complex to effect such a difference.

The fact is that there is an intimate relationship between the working career and the rest of life of the worker.

Wilensky (1960) theorized the relation of work and non-work life in terms of "Spillover leisure hypothesis" and the "contemporary leisure hypothesis".

The first hypothesis suggests that persons who have work which facilitates self actualization will seek out self actualization activities outside work, while persons whose work leads to alienation at work will be alienated outside work also. The second hypothesis implies that alienated worker uses his leisure hours to give him the rewards which he is deprived of while at work.

An alternative to work is not known in human history (Gupta, 1982). But, in modern times such possibility is pointed out by Carter (1970). According to him, for the first time in American history, non-work activities are being entertained as potentially legitimate full-time alternatives to work. Today the "Happy non-work culture", "the

male ghetto youth" and a proposal for a permanent guaranteed annual income suggest the strong priority for an alternative "non - work " like style, at least for certain segments of American population. Developing countries have no such possibility in near future.

THE GENERAL CONCEPT OF COMMITMENT:

Commitment is a term that is seen in a variety of circumstances. It is often used not only by sociologists but also by social Psychologists, anthropologists, psychiatrists and popular writers. In short, it is used the everyday language of our society, with all emotional overtones, special meanings and hidden implications.

The term 'Commitment' enjoys an increasing vogue in sociological discussion. Sociologists use it in analysis of both individual and organizational behaviour. They use it as a descriptive concept to markout forms of action characteristic of particular kinds of people or groups. They use it as an independent variable to account for certain kinds of behaviour of individuals and groups. They use it in analysis of a wide variety of phenomenon: power, religion, occupational recruitment, bureaucratic behaviour, political behaviour and so on (Becker, 1960).

Inspite of its wide spread use, there has been little formal analysis of the concept of commitment and

little attempt to integrate it explicitly with current sociological theory.

There are three main definitions of commitment listed in Webster's collegiate Dictionary (5th Ed.). The first refers to the consignment or entrusting of something to some one else especially in the sense of transfer or delivery. The second refers to the accomplishment of some act as the commitment of a crime. The third refers to pledging or binding of oneself, as in committing one self to a course of action. Keisler (1971) considers this third definition as most relevant one. Kenniston (1965) and Meyerson (1966) also held the same view about the concept of commitment.

According to the dictionary of Sociology (Theodorson and Theodorson, 1970), " Commitment refers to a feeling of obligation to follow a particular course of action or to seek a particular goal. As a result, freedom of choice and number of alternatives in social action are limited.

Hansmol (1974) has defined commitment as "focussed emotion or emotional attachment to a specific focus of identity. It is an anchoring of the emotions in a salient system of meaning, whether social, group or personal whether abstract or concrete". In this analysis of commitment Hansmol has suggested the examples of christia- nity and political party. When committed christians proclaim

Jesus to be the saviour, they identify with a person whose biography and activities are concretely described but who also represents such abstract principles as sacrificial love and moral judgement. According to Hansmol the deepest commitment can also be to a political party. The American communist party was to its members the source of such deep commitment that party lines and Marxist interpretations could shift substantially without risk of apostasy.

'Faith' is often theological synonyms for what is called commitment. It is the link of sentiment between the ordering focus and the actual identity. Christianity characteristically thinks usually in terms of personal faith, although it also talks about the 'faith' to the church or the traditions to which the religious organization is committed' (Hansmol - 1974).

Kanter (1968) defined Commitment as "the process through which individual interests become attached to carrying out of socially organized patterns of behaviour.

Becker (1960) tried to use the concept of Commitment in a sociological sense, which later emerged as a most controversial concept in sociological discussion. Many sociologists such as Ritzer and Trice (1969), Stebbins (1971), Alutto et al (1973) and Shoemaker et al (1977) tested and re-tested Becker's analysis and gave their arguments for and against it. Becker stated that "Commitment is said to emerge when there is not very frequent change of

jobs and careers like modern economic man under market conditions. To him, the crux of the problem of commitment is to continue to stay in a line of activity because costs accumulate against change of course. According to him in a sociological analysis the term 'commitment' is used to explain the fact of 'consistent line of activity'.

Glock and Stark (1971) consider commitment as therapeutic rather than pathological phenomenon. Keisler (1971), whose view on commitment (Psychology) is as empirical as Glock and Stark's view in sociology, explained commitment in terms of pledging or binding of one self to a course of action and stressed its relative resistance to change. He linked commitment to what Leon, Festinger called cognitive dissonance (the tendency to reject or deny information that challenges preconceptions) and suggested that the one varies with the other.

More recently Oommen (1978) has tried to analyse the concept of commitment in a different perspective. He has discussed this term on the basis of participation, unrest, rapidity of mobility and operations. Commitment, according to Oommen, is defined as, " participation in an activity on a relatively permanent basis; it is seen as lack of or frequency of occupational unrest (Strikes); it is defined in terms of the tendency on the part of the persons to stick to an organization or in terms of rapidity of mobility. Finally, commitment is viewed as specific to

tasks, that is, in terms of operations 'involved in' an occupation or to the organization or institution in which one works that is commitment is seen in general to the overall ethos of an occupation.

Thus commitment can be considered to be important for peaceful and productive work performance in an organization. It emerges much later in life when a person, after having rejected several alternatives, finally gets settled in a particular line of activity and becomes more or less consistent in his work performance.

THEORIES OF COMMITMENT

Becker's Side-bet theory :

Becker's (1960) theory of commitment has been the subject of much controversy, but, it was one of the earliest efforts at the conceptualization of commitment. Briefly stated, Becker's side-bet theory implies that a person becomes 'committed' by acting "in such a way as to involve other interests of his, originally extraneous to the action he is engaged, in directly in that action". In other words, the commitment is achieved by making a side-bet. According to Becker a person invests in his organization or occupation - places side bets -- by staking something he values in it. The more side bets at stake, the greater becomes the commitment to the organization or occupation. As an employee passes through various organizational and career

structures the number of such side bets or investments increases, the cumulative effect of which tends to strengthen the employees bonds (commitment) with the organization. In other words as the side bets multiply with the passage of time, the attractiveness of other organizations tends to decline. The result is that the worker finds it highly unprofitable to think of joining another organization even though it offers more emoluments or leisure or a higher status.

According to Becker commitment implies engagement of people in consistent lines of activity. Consistency of behaviour is typical of the committed individual and this is found in all spheres of activity where commitment is valued. Thus, the communist workers in Russia have implicit faith in the communist party as being the most authoritative interpreter of communist philosophy. An important characteristic of this 'consistent behaviour' is that it persists over some period of time. Even though he may engage in many kinds of activity in the course of his career, he sees them as steps towards the same goal, the concept of consistent behaviour also implies rejection by the actor of other feasible alternatives.

After reviewing the various explanations offered by sociologists to account for this consistent behaviour, Becker arrives at his theory of commitment. A person is said to have committed himself if he stakes

something of value to him which was originally not related to his present time of action. He has a stake in being consistent; conformity to the line of action originally agreed upon by him becomes the only viable alternative. The consequences of inconsistency will be so expensive that it will no longer be a feasible alternative. Becker, while developing his side bet theory gives the example of a person who makes a deliberate side bet. He takes the hypothetical example of a man intending to buy a house and is ready to pay sixteen thousand dollars for it. The seller wants twenty thousand dollars but the buyer informs him that he has made a side bet of five thousand dollars with another person and for that has vowed to pay not more than sixteen thousand dollars for the house. In other words, if the buyer agree to pay twenty thousand dollars he stands to loose a side bet. Thus, he commits himself to pay no more than he originally offered.

While the above example is hypothetical and involves a deliberate side bets, the committed worker actually has no advantage of deliberately by Chosing the side bet. He only discovers that he has made the side bets constraining his present activity. He may discover that the generalized cultural expectations provide unacceptable penalties for inconsistent or non-conformist conduct. Thus, a person who has taken up a job just two months before is not prepared to take up another job (although it offers

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better salary and status), because he does not want his reputation for stability to be affected. Another reason for unwillingness to change jobs or organizations may arise out of individual adjustment to social positions. Thus, all commitments are not made consciously and the person becomes aware that he is committed only at some point of change and seems to have made the commitment although realizing it.

While Becker's side bet theory may have lent itself to interpretations not strictly in keeping with Becker's central concepts, it can't be denied that it has focussed the attention of social scientists on the need for a formal analysis of commitment as a sociological concept.

Becker's theory was tested in 1969 by Ritzer and Trice. It was an effort to apply empirical test to the theory of side bets. Ritzer and Trice summed up Becker's theory as follows ".....the greater the number of side bets, the greater the commitment of the individual ". The study consisted of 419 male personnel managers whose occupational and organizational commitment was examined by means of a mailed questionnaire. The degree of commitment was measured by a series of questions which were intended to find out the reasons that would induce a person to leave his present organization or occupation. The highest weightage was given to those cases which showed reluctance to change even in the face of substantial temptations in respect of salary status, etc. Ritzer and Trice (1969) discovered that, " few of the

variables which should correlate with commitment do in fact correlate significantly ." For instance, it was found that neither age nor marital status nor higher salary were found to reflect any variation in the degree of the employees organizational commitment. Having failed to see any significant links between the variables with the commitment score Ritzer and Trice concluded that, " the side bet theory of commitment should be rejected."

But, this rejection of the side bet theory has been found by subsequent researchers as indicative of some short of misunderstanding of the real content of the side bet theory.

Stebbins (1971) noted that empirical investigation of Ritzer and Trice shows that they have confused one dimension of commitment for the other. Commitment, he clarifies has two dimensions which may be called value commitment and continuance commitment. Value commitment arises from the awareness of some subjectively defined awards while continuance commitment stems from the awareness of the unacceptable penalties in making a change of organization or occupation. According to Stebbins the error of Ritzer and Trice arose from the fact that they mistook Becker's theory as one dealing with value commitment. After extensively quoting from Becker, Stebbins shows that the side bet theory is basically a theory of continuance commitment as it arises from a person's reluctance to change

over from the incumbent position to the alternative position due to the higher penalties involved in the later. Ritzer and Trice, however, have rejected Stebbin's criticism on the ground that the later draws an unnecessary line of distinction between value and continuance commitments.

According to them both are two sides of the same coin: "Are not the two concepts merely labels for the same thing: rewards built up and perceived costs of living which are, almost totally, past rewards which must be relinquished?"

It would appear, however, that Becker's side bet theory is not as meaningless as Ritzer and Trice have made it out to be. Studies conducted by some other social scientists have discovered that Becker's theory, after all, makes sense. A study conducted by Alutto, Hrebiniak and Alonso (1973) finds that the side bet theory does have some relevance as a means of understanding occupational or organizational commitment. In this study of 318 school teachers and 395 hospital employed nurses, commitment to profession or organization is operationalized as the willingness to leave an existing system when offered slight increases in pay status, job freedom and friendliness of co-workers. Contrary to previous research by Ritzer and Trice, the results of this study seem to vindicate the concept of side bets as a structural phenomenon important in understanding individual's commitments to organization or

occupation.

Alutto, Herbiniak and Alonso (1973) conclude that commitment can not be understood as a purely social-psychological phenomenon and that, " individual - occupation and individual-organizational transactions and the accrual of side bets or investments are crucial to the understanding of the commitment phenomenon ".

However, it has been held by Meyer and Allen (1984) that the main drawback of the studies made by various social scientists to test the side bet theory is that the " Measure used to test Becker's side bet theory of commitment is saturated with affective commitment and ,as such does not allow the theory to tested appropriately." In sum, it has to be accepted that the side bet theory has some relevance to the understanding of phenomenon of commitment.

KANTER'S THEORY:

Kanter defined commitment as " the process through which individual interests become attached to carrying out of socially organized patterns of behaviour..." (Kanter, 1968). It is further pointed out, " a person is committed when he himself is fully invested in it, so that maintenance of his own internal being requires behaviour that supports the social order." Kanter has defined the term in the context of community living, with an emphasis on the emotional and psychological aspect. In this

sense the term is non-rational because, to be rational the actor should be free from "particularistic" and "affective" commitment to the object of his deliberation. As a result the greater the detachment (ie. more emotions are suppressed). The greater seems to be the danger that commitment to goals will be suppressed as well. Hence the term remains inadequate in it's moral and emotional connotation for use in sociological analysis.

Commitment is a total concept but in actuality discrepancies might appear when commitment is made only to a particular dimension of the social system. The commitment lag creates problems to the survival of the system or the work organization. The main problems, according to Kanter, are problems of social control, cohesiveness and continuity as described below :

- (a) Sometimes actors remain committed to the social system but continuously deviate and remain uncommitted to its control.
- (b) Sometimes actors might be very cohesive and integrated with the group, but they remain uncommitted to continue participation in the system for the availability of a better job elsewhere.
- (c) Sometimes actors might continue to stay in the system but they may not have any effective or evaluative attachment to the role (Kanter, 1968: 68).

In terms of actors' perspective, every actor cognizes, cathects and evaluates the objects of his deliberations. Each of the kind of orientation has the potential to support one particular aspect of the system :

- (i) Positive cognition can support continuation,
- (ii) Positive cathexis can support group cohesion,
- (ii) Positive evaluation can support social control (Kanter, 1968: 500).

Cathectic cohesive commitment is equal to Kelman's identification, evaluative control commitment is equal to "internalization"; and cognitive continuation commitment refers to "compliance" (Kelman, 1958) Kanter has further attempted to link them to the stages of development of morality in children, i.e. cognitive is equal to reward and punishment, cathectic is equal to emotional attachment, evaluative is equal to moral code. Different types of commitments have different consequences for the system. In actual practice commitment ranges from compliance to commitment both being the ends of the continuum. Every system is engaged in an attempt to change compliance into commitment.

OOMMEN'S THEORY:

T.K.Oommen (1978) has analysed the concept of commitment in different angles in context of " occupational role commitment of Doctors and Nurses " in his valuable

book. 'Doctors and Nurses : A study in occupational role structures'.

Commenting on the term 'Commitment', Oommen is of the view that this term has been variously perceived and described in social science. " It is defined as participation in an activity on a relatively permanent basis; it is seen as lack of or frequency of occupational unrest (Strikes); it is defined in terms of the tendency on the part of persons to stick to an organization or in terms of rapidity of mobility. It is argued by some that primordial ties facilitate commitments while others suggest that it obstructs commitment. Finally, commitment is viewed as specific to tasks, that is, in terms of operations involved in an occupation or to the organization or institution in which one works, that is, commitment is seen as general, to the overall ethos of an occupation.

" Commitment is always by somebody to something; the units involved are individuals and groups or social phenomena. We can speak of the commitment of an individual to another individual, groups or social phenomenon, of a group to another groups, individual or social phenomenon. An individual or group is committed when he/it is partially or fully involved in the object of his/its commiment; when he/it is loyal to that objects; when he/it has a sense of attachment to it and developes a feeling that he/it is enmeshed in it".

Oommen has analytically discussed three types of commitments and distinguished between them. These are,

1. INSTRUMENTAL COMMITMENT:

When commitment is oriented to 'material or' Psychic source'. This type of commitment is obtained in the continuing participation in social system roles and conscious discharging of role obligations.

2. AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT:

If commitment is to a group/institution and the involvement in it is based on ties of emotion.

3. MORAL COMMITMENT:

When commitment is to an ideology or ethics.

Oommen in his study is concerned with role commitment of professionals and is of the opinion that professional commitment is a moral commitment. The author has presumed that those trained in prestigious professions which call for high investments have higher occupational commitment.

Oommen views that unless specifically prescribed some prerequisites no one can be committed to any thing even to occupation. So far as unskilled labour are concerned they are more committed to material rewards than their occupation. Further, it would be irrational to expect the same kind of consistency in action, that is qualitatively similar commitment, from persons even when

they are in same occupations but with varying background.

The imbibing of an occupational culture and development of an occupational self are often critical variables which foster commitment. Oommen has drawn attention to few specific points. " First, given all the operative constraints relating to entry into an occupation some are likely to take the decision to choose the occupation more consciously. And, those who make such a deliberate decision to pursue a specific career are likely to be more committed to it. Thus, a consistent line of activity may be in existence of the occupational choice made is also personally more satisfying. Second, to follow a consistent line of activity would also mean that a person is willing to channelize his resources and energies to pursue his line of action. This may call for limiting of actions in other spheres and focussing of attention on the pursued goals. This may entail consequences beyond his immediate perception. Thus a person seriously committed to an occupation may have to restrictively spend his time with his family members. Third, commitment may not be conscious and this awareness may articulate only when called upon to make certain decisions. For, instance, many persons may enter specific occupations because of persuasions from significant others and think they are in it because of them. But if situations arise which prompt them to leave the occupation they are likely to discover that they are 'of it' and have

come to develop a strong sense of commitment to it".

Finally, commitment is a word that is frequently used in a loose manner and while conveying an idea, is not actually useful to the social scientists unless it is defined in objective terms. The definitions put-forth by Kanter and Oommen bring out some significant facts in the concept of commitment but one wonders if these can be useful in achieving an objective analysis as brought out by Becker. The social-psychological dimension of commitment has some emotional overtones and although its presence can't be denied yet, we can't study it objectively. Becker's side bet theory certainly seeks to see commitment in an objective light and there is little attempt to mystify the concept. It may have raised controversies, but, it remains an outstanding effort to understand the complex phenomenon of organizational or occupational commitment.

COMMITMENT TO INDUSTRIAL WORK:

The process of commitment to industrial work can be analysed at three levels in which a number of independent factors impinge upon. These three levels are societal, organizational and individual.

SOCIETAL LEVEL - It means societies differ from one another in the degree of commitment of their labour forces to industrial work. It depends upon the stage of industrial development of the society.

ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL - As a result of work technology, size, managerial policies, location etc., industrial organizations within a society differ from one another in the degree of commitment of their work force.

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL - Within a particular industrial organization, individual workers differ from one another in their levels of commitment to work. Factors such as differences in terms of family-background, rural-urban origin, occupational history, age, wages etc., contribute to individual's commitment.

It is believed that of the three levels discussed above individual level is perhaps the most important for "commitment refers basically to a state of mind of the individual" (Sharma, 1974). In any case, the factors that help or hinder commitment at the individual level will generally be relevant to the development of a committed work force within the organization, the industry and the society.

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF COMMITMENT TO INDUSTRIAL WORK :

The concept of commitment of the workers to industrial work has been analysed by many industrial sociologists. Commitment has been regarded as posing a problem especially in Indian context mainly because of the rural orientation of the industrial workers. Many scholars have felt that Indian workers are not well adapted to the ways, norms and performance expected from a true industrial worker. This is mainly because of the socialization process and internalization of norms Indian workers are subjected to. On this basis, most of the industrial sociologists have explained commitment in terms of worker's adherence to village bond and traditional outlook. According to these sociologists the problem of commitment faces the hindrance mainly because of worker's over attachment to their village ties. The village being the key source of labour supply in the Indian factories, pose a serious adjustment problem for the industrial workers in their new role as industrial worker. This is why a number of sociologists interested in the study of industrial problems have explained the concept of commitment on the adjustment background of the industrial workers. But, after sometime others felt that this explanation has proved to be a precipitation in commitment analysis. It needs to be reviewed and analysed carefully considering many other factors such as work-technology, union-involvement, wages, work-status, promotional opportun-

ities, job-satisfaction, etc. as correlates helping in the promotion of work commitment. Hence, the direction of the conceptual analysis of the commitment process changed rapidly after finding many other factors as panacea in promoting work commitment. But, still there is no unanimity in the conceptual analysis of work-commitment in industrial context.

Before going through the detailed analysis of commitment to industrial work, it is necessary to examine the various methodological, conceptual, empirical and ideological contentions of this concept.

Feldman and Moore (1960) are considered to be the pioneers in the field of conceptual analysis of work-commitment. Their explanations have been subjected to great recognitions as well as severe criticism. No theory of work-commitment is still considered complete, if it does not circumspect itself through the standards of these pioneers. Many sociologists consider their theory as first and the foremost scientific explanation in this context and hence this theory is still regarded to be very potent. In Chicago Conference (1958) their theory presented as background paper was referred to as standard analysis of work-commitment and detailed discussions were made by a number of sociologists on the suitability of this theory.

Thus, considering Feldman and Moore's explanation as the fundamental one, the various explanations

on work-commitment can be explained on the basis of three approaches ; the classical, the neo-classical and the modern. Similarly, Munshi (1977) has also classified the various views on work-commitment on the basis of the degree of committed and cautiously committed scholars. He writes, "if one were to extend the usage of the term of the theory, it might be argued that those who have internalized the norms appropriate to this new way of thought may themselves be distinguished as (1) the committed or over committed scholars and (2) the cautiously committed scholars.

The committed scholars category is best represented by Richard H.Holton and Bert F.Hoselitz. The best type of over committed scholar, is naturally led by Feldmand, Moore, Kerr and associates. The 'cautious scholar', like the partially committed worker, has a foot in both the camps. For this type, one may mention the names of Cyril S. Belshaw, Water Elkan and Lloyed, A.Fallers, Peter B.Hammond, Manning Nash and Melville J.Herskovits (1977).

i> THE CLASSICAL APPROACH OF WORK-COMMITMENT ANALYSIS :

In addition to Feldman and Moore's (1960) analysis who discussed the basic postulates of work-commitment, the analysis of other scholars can be put under this approach who view that in influencing work-commitment, 'the restraining pull of the village' has historically prevailed. These scholars have defined

commitment on the basis of the village nexus of the workers and their adjustment to new industrial work culture. They have also explained the commitment on the basis of the conflict of roles and aspirations between the two cultural levels-the new industrial culture and the traditional agricultural culture. The scholars representing this view are Moore and Feldman, Clark Kerr, Morris, Kanappan, Myers etc. The fundamental postulate of their approach is that the full commitment of an industrial labour force is both important for continuous economic development and problematical. The focus of this approach is on the effect of industrial labour force commitment on programmes of social and economic change in newly developing areas or, more specifically, on the extent to which low levels of labour force commitment impede efforts to industrialize newly developing areas.

The foregoing discussion leads us to the consideration of the crucial question involved : 'What is meant by commitment?', and 'why is commitment important?' To Feldman and Moore " Commitment involves both performance and acceptance of the behaviours appropriate to an industrial way of life " (1960). Degrees of commitment and partial substitutions are possible. Considerable emphasis is put on acceptance or internalisation. It has been further elaborated in following words, " we mean both the short seen objective performance of modern kinds of economic

activity and the long-run and deep seated acceptance of the attitudes and beliefs appropriate to a modernised economy" (Feldman & Moore, (1960)).

The concept is thus concerned with overt actions and with norms. The fully-committed worker, in other words, has internalised the norms of the new productive organization and social system.

Feldman and Moore (1960) propose keeping the scope of the discussion on work-commitment rather broad. The industrial work force is meant to include the whole range of occupations appropriate to an industrialised economy. The phrase 'appropriate to an industrialised economy. The phrase 'appropriate to an industrial way, of life refers to more than the production of goods and services; adjustment to new residential patterns, ways of assigning status, 'political orientations, social goals, etc. are critically involved'.

Even though Feldman and Moore offer their contribution as a 'conceptual apparatus', it can be searched through their background paper for more than an acceptance of Persons' "Pattern variables" at the general theoretical level. Thus, they argue "Commitment entails acceptance of the norms of affective neutrality or impersonality, ethical universalism, functional specificity and achievement orientations.... and all are likely to be novel elements in the social structure of under developed areas" (1960). It can also be seen that in their analysis, the conceptual

apparatus is developed by working out a taxonomy of social contexts (Loci), for each of which there are actions and norms that are assumed to be appropriate, under the assumptions of a 'functionally integrated industrial society'. The apparatus specifies the agencies of exposure at various points in the socialization sequence.

The Feldman and Moore formulation was strongly criticised at the Chicago Conference (1958) itself. Five contributions are particularly noteworthy in this connection. The papers presented by Milton Singer, Stanley H. Udy, Jr. Morris, David Morris, M. Tumin and William H. Knowles raise some critical questions and present crucial empirical material that make the work commitment theory more vulnerable.

Singer (1960) formulates his criticism by raising the crucial question, "What is an industrial tradition?" Indeed, Singer makes the point, "Industrial traditions are plural and distinctive because they are aspects of societies and civilisations which are plural and distinctive". This calls for a clearer understanding of the industrial societies themselves. It opens any formulation on the 'new' way of life to a critical assessment; this construct no longer remains an assumption of the self-evident truth, but point itself to be investigated.

In this context, Udy's (1960) contribution may be seen as an important intervention. Even though he

does not formulate his concern in these terms, one may say that Udy's problem is to see, "How 'new' is the productive organisation of the industrial society?" Through a comparative social analysis of a 'quota' sample of 150 productive organisations in non-industrial societies, roughly stratified by cultural areas and major technological types, Udy (1960) comes to the conclusion that typical forms of industrial production organisation are by no means absent in non-industrial production organisations. Morris (1960) observation on machine technology should be seen in this light.

Singer (1960) persists in asking, "where in the older industrialised societies are the integration and total commitment that this construct projects? An answer may be found in Tumin". "One may say that many persons in the most developed industrial societies do not accept, i.e. are not fully committed to, the industrial way of life. On the other hand, Singer's contention that rather than the values, the concrete requirements of industrialisation are important considerations in analysing the failure of the newly developing countries finds support from Knowles (1960). To a considerable degree, labour protest is against the failure to industrialise at a pace in keeping with population growth and rising aspirations, rather than a protest against the impact of industrialisation on existing cultures" (1960). The more crucial criticism that Singer

makes relates to the underlying dichotomous types necessarily involved in the Feldman Moore frame work : the idealised constructs of 'traditionalism' and 'industrialism'. These notions, to Singer, belong to the "realm of myth" and do not realistically reflect obstacles to economic development. Morris makes a similar criticism with respect to the dichotomy of rural urban life (1960).

The 'classic' statement on the Indian-factory worker, offering complementary evidence to the work commitment theory, even before the theory was born, was provided by the Report of the Royal commission on Labour in India, 1931. The Commission observed : "At present the figures of turnover in many Indian factories are remarkable It is this feature which leads so many employes to suppose that the average factory worker is an agriculturist devoting a short period of his life to industry" (1931). The point has been more recently made by one of the proponents of the work-commitment theory Ornati (1955). P.N. Prabhu's (1956) study in Bombay has often been quoted in support of the work-commitment theory. Philip M.Hanser (1957) too talks of the "lack of stability".

The best empirical work to date in support of work commitment theory, however, is the study of Charles A. Myers (1958). Myres' study deserves closer attention for he has directed his attention to the concrete labour problems in the industrialisation of India.

On the basis of a closer examination, Myers casts doubts on the "blanket statements" of Ornati. However, after taking note of such factors as "the push from the land", "the restraining pull of the village", "management policies" and "the push from the city", Myers comes to the conclusion that the majority of the Indian industrial workers hold a "partially committed" view of industrial employment. "In a sense", concludes Myers, "these are partially committed to factory jobs in that they regard them as more or less permanent jobs which can be interrupted (but not lost) by periodic visits to village" (1956).

Another important definition has been given by Kerr and his associates: "The commitment of workers to industrial employment is a more complicated process than recruitment. Hiring workers may be relatively easy, but keeping them consistently at work tends to be more difficult. A committed worker is one who stays on the job, and who has severed his major connections with the land. He is a permanent member of the industrial working force, receiving wages and being dependent for making a living on enterprise management which offer him work and direct his activities at the work place" (1960).

Here, it is emphasized that such a worker is fully urbanised and never expects to leave industrial life. His family is permanently resident in an urban area and is not unusual for the wife also to enter the labour market

(Moore and Feldman, 1960).

But, on scrutinizing the definition given by Kerr and his associates it seems that they have ignored the concrete problems of "social morphology of work" at the concrete level. They ignore the specific problem of technological change in the underdeveloped societies. In the terminology of Kerr and others, the internal "concrete logic" of the process of "industrialism" is subsumed under the conjectural abstraction of "industrialism", conceived as the "limit approached through historical industrialisation". This omission is serious in view of the importance that the 'logic' of the process has in the set of hypotheses advanced by them. Further, the problems relating to technological change have a crucial place in the process of social change in the underdeveloped societies. The omission becomes even more glaring when one considers the prominence that these problems have in contemporary European (particularly French and German) researches in their own societies.

Thus, from these definitions it is evident that the concept of commitment refers to overt actions appropriate to the industrial way of life as well as psychological preparedness on part of the workers to accept all that goes along with it. Appropriate actions and psychological acceptance may not be uniformly distributed. Thus there could be various stage of commitment. Work-force could exhibit different degrees spreading along a continuum

It appears from the above discussion that the use of the term work-commitment in the industrial context has been in a limited sense, unlike its use in wider terms. But the definitions are predominantly management biased. They fail to distinguish between commitment to industrial work and commitment to management. The definitions have by and large been over emphatic on severance of ties with village homes, exclusive dependence on industrial wages and security measures provided by it, acceptance of the norm of team work and orientation to seek satisfaction in industrial work alone, an urban taste and pattern of living. Entry of women in industrial work is also taken to be a symbol of development of work commitment in industry.

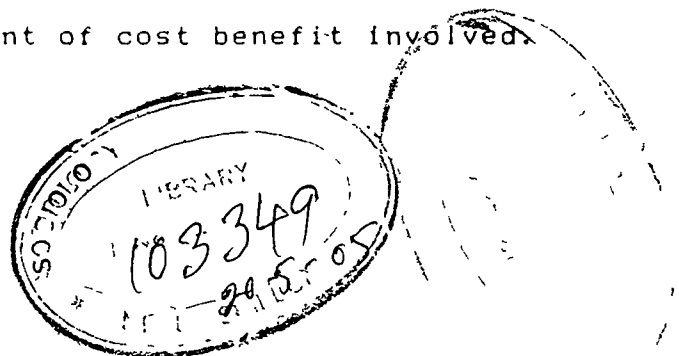
One important criticism pointed out against the classical school is that all these definitions lack social context in their explanation. Rao (1965) has criticised the thinkers of this school on several counts such as :

1. The image of the fully committed worker in contrast to the traditional "field worker" has been developed and on that basis some unreasonable demands are made upon a worker.
2. The problem of lack of commitment has been exaggerated in terms of misleading statistical indices such as turn over, absenteeism, etc.;

3. Lack of commitment has been attributed merely to worker's values and behaviour, often ignoring the part played by employers, government and general conditions of the labour market. Hence, it is difficult to understand the problem of commitment separate from its social contents.

Analysis of these definitions indicates certain elements as the core components of the concept of commitment. Indication of work commitment may be summarized as follows:

- i> Willingness and preference for wage earning work as compared with traditional rural peasant occupation.
- ii> Stable attachment with industrial employment. Not shifting periodically from industrial work to village for purposes like harvesting or other family obligations.
- iii> Uncommitted worker moves alone to the city leaving his wife and children in the village. This results into unbalanced sex-ratio in industrial centres.
- iv> Committed workers is more disciplined, requires less supervision, behaviour is more predictable, his organised activity is comparatively more realistic and is based on some assessment of cost benefit involved.



ii) THE NEO-CLASSICAL APPROACH OF WORK-COMMITMENT ANALYSIS:

From the above discussions of classical school it is very clear that concept of commitment lays entire thrust on the workers. Its demands from the worker to adapt himself to new physical surroundings of work. He must internalize the norms of new productive system and get psychologically resocialized to fit the norms of new world of work. A complete motivational transformation is a precondition for a worker to reach a stage where he can be called committed to the industrial way of life. It is considered essential for productivity and for maintenance of discipline in the factory. This one sided emphasis in the concept of commitment calling for an all sided adjustment on part of the worker completely seems to ignore other factors involved in the industrial scene.

Thus, in order to develop more scientifically based theory neo-classical school of work-commitment analysis emerged. The thinkers of this school did not only emphasised on traditional orientation of the worker but also took under consideration various other social and economic factors. The scholars of this approach can be viewed as 'cautious scholars' like the partially committed worker who has a foot in both camps. For this type of analysis one may mention the names of Cyril S. Belshaw, Walter Elkan and Lloyd A. Falhrs, Peter B. Hammond, Manning Nash and Melville J. Harskovits.

Holton (1960) adds the dimension of the consumption expenditures in the process of the work force in 'low economic countries'. Starting with the assumption, based on admittedly 'meagre' information, that imitation of consumption pattern of a more affluent culture (of western societies) will be practised most by the industrial work force. Holton concludes that the development of the manufacturing sector may be stunted because the labour force is likely to adopt a set of consumption standard somewhat inconsistent with the industrialization process.

On the other hand, Hoselitz emphasises that urbanization tends to push the society into a situation in which the market matrix and its allocative function takes on a dominating position whereas the manifold elements of monopoly and tenaciousness of the extended, family and various communalist survivals tend to keep the market from operating smoothly and from fulfilling its allocative function. He concludes, "whereas the growth of urbanism affects the development of labour markets, and hence the commitment process positively in virtually all cases, differential access to the labour market leads to non-competing groups on the supply side of labour and manifold other features of market imperfection and so may often have an adverse effect on commitment" (1960).

It is more difficult to summarise the position of the "cautious" scholars. If one were to

formulate their caution in one sentence it might be said, they all emphasise the need for greater understanding of the 'aboriginal' or 'traditional' societies. Thus Belshaw (1960) argues that 'aboriginal' societies are stationary only in special sense. He lists warfare, demographic change, power shifts between rival groups, or variations in health or hunting luck as factors operating as sources of adjustment and change in these societies. These factors are numerous and of varying influence. At an operational level, Belshaw makes the point that "specific limiting conditions in each case" must be known for successful 'adaption' of personnel policies in "newly developing areas" (1960).

To Belshaw, work commitment is a cultural phenomenon and its development is a process of cultural change. Elkan and Fallers (1960) make the same point with emphasis on, "Social situation" and "Personal aspirations". The call for better understanding of the 'process of cultural change' is also emphasised in Hammond caution to the 'dominant foreign managerial group" in charge of direction of the productive behaviours of a dependent "indigenous" work force. That a closer look at the preindustrial societies may make some assumption of the theory tenuous is illustrated by the empirical material presents by Nash (1960). He fully substantiates the need for a 'closer' look.

If one were to formulate the approach of these cautious scholars (neo-classical approach) in brief, it might be said, they all assume a basic line and emphasise the need to look at the 'cultural phenomenon', 'traditional sanctions', cultural difference, and the like, of the 'pre-contact' period. Herskovits (1960) neatly summarises this position by pointing out that "it must be clear that study of the commitment of work force demands a full knowledge of the traditional sanctions at work in a given society as of the technological, economic and institutional factors that are introduced into the society. It would seem that something of a reorientation, more fully taking into account the theory of cultural dynamics is called for. The methodological importance in research of this kind of seeing that changes in the social structures are exhaustively analysed, and that the generalisations to be drawn from repetitive manifestations of institutional change in different situations are studied to the fullest, is self-evident (1960).

Similarly in the analysis of 'work-commitment' new dimensions of ideas and studies were added. Here emphasis was attached on work-technology, introduction of mechanised industry and requirements and consequences of adjustment to the new environment of the city and also the impact of the new network of social relationships in the factory.

To Sharma (1974) traditional Indian culture appears to present no serious obstacles to the workers in either accepting factory employment or in becoming committed to industrial work. Actually "the commitment of workers seems to be influenced not by their traditional background but by work technology within the factory".

Hoselitz (1953) has noted a three fold impact exercised on a non-industrial labour forced by the introduction of mechanised industry. Of these, he considers the requirements of adjustment to the new environment of the city and to the new net work of social relationships of factory as most crucial and critical.

Regarding requirements and consequences of adjustment to the new environment of the city it has been contended that the proposition that permanent urban residence leads to greater commitment can't be confirmed. To prove this the study conducted by Sengupta (1975) can be sighted here. Sengupta (1975) found that the level of commitment of the rural workers was the same as that of the urban workers. But, it was found that workers from village were more regular than the urban dwellers. While analysing the concept of commitment with respect to the impact of the new net work of social relationships in the factory, three scholars, Rice (1953) Lambert (1963) and Sheth (1968) can be sighted in this context.

For Rice's analysis neither the notion of the 'Levels of commitment' nor such attributes of workers outside the factory as family clan, caste, tribe, rural urban origin etc. are primarily relevant.

On the basis of his study Lambert (1963) argues with respect to the work commitment theory that "such a monolithic concept must crumble into many separate fragments once specific factories are studied in specific cultural settings". Thus Lambert notes : "If we view commitment as the extension to try to remain in factory employment, more than three fourths of the workers are committed. If we take Moore and Feldman's notion of occupational commitment as over commitment, almost half the workers show this degree of commitment. The comparatively low proportion of workers who would insist on working in Poona shows how much stronger the employment commitment is than the residential commitment". Besides, there were of course varying degrees of intensity in each type of 'commitment' mentioned above (1963).

Sheth (1968) on the other hand does take into account the 'traditional' institutions in analysing the social frame work of an Indian factory. His evidence indicates that the 'ritual nexus' of the workers did not affect the rationality expected of them in their technological activities.

Finally, both Sheth and Lambert rejected the theory as useless in their investigations related to commitment !

The neo-classical approach adds new dimensions in the sense that it finds the worker's behaviour presenting more a case of "Conditioning" (a reluctant adjustment to a harsh reality) rather than of commitment (enthusiastic acceptance of pleasurable duties) to work (Sharma, 1971).

Some of the neo-classical thinkers have also discussed work commitment in the sense that it is just worker's loyalty to employer or sheer obedience to management. Just by this standard all manifestations of labour unrest are taken as evidence of lack of commitment on the part of the worker. obviously it is not necessary. so. For uncommitted worker under group pressure, does not keep from strikes and work stoppages. Moreover the approach of organization commitment is already there to explain worker's attachment to particular plant or employer. The work commitment can not be analysed on the terms of labour loyalties to employer. Thus a definition of work-commitment in terms of devotion to the organizational values that regulates the work is vulnerable. It may be criticized as management biased. The values of an organization may be exploitative. As such this formulation allows for the exploitation of worker by management in the name of

work-commitment. Likewise, a definition of work commitment with reference to work group ethic may be characterized as worker biased. As a matter of fact, work commitment is devotion to work role. It may be observed here that the conception of work role varies with management and the worker.

On the basis of fore going discussion it becomes clear that in simple terms commitment to work is the process which links a person to his role status in an organization.

iii> MODERN APPROACH TO WORK COMMITMENT ANALYSIS :

The statistical indicators used by some of the scholars fail to give a proper understanding of work commitment because the new pattern of planned growth of industries in post-independent India and the changed social perspective have automatically eliminated several problems created by a haphazard and centralized growth of industries under private Ownership in pre-independent India. For example, establishment of industries in backward predomemantly rural regions has reduced the tendency of large scale migration and labour turn over. These economic change have also resulted in Social change such as "increase in education, weakening of caste ties etc.

Departing from the previous stand point the modern theorists have discussed the commitment in terms of absenteeism, turnover, indiscipline, and seniority. In this context negative approaches have also been considered in analysing work commitment. Besides these indicators the modern analysis is based on ideal type model.

The degree of work commitment has been ascertained by few scholars such as Sharma S.L.(1971), Munshi (1977) etc. by looking into the record of absenteeism manipulated french leave, keep busy do-nothing tactics, half hearted work, quantity and quality of out put and so on.

Rejecting the classical aproach that high absenteeism and high turn over is inevitable symptoms of low commitment to industrial labour on the part of workers in developing countries, the modern theorists have instead enumerated the view that, 'high absenteeism and high commitment to indstrial work is the prevailing pattern in India'.

The pioneer of this approach is AngusHone (1968). Absenteeism has always been high among coal miners in developed countries, but no sociologist has questioned their commiment to indusrial work. Irregularity phenomenon has over been emphasized in conceptualizing commitment to work. In broader sense, absenteism can be defined as, "the failure of a worker to report to work when he is scheduled to work. The Labour Bureau does not regard authorised leave,

privileged leave and over staying authorised leave as absenteeism. Hone (1968) feels that the Indian worker is very much an economic man and by abstaining from work during some specific period that is April to June he is resembled more or less as a profit earning man than an uncommitted worker. These three months are actually related with harvesting season in India and most workers having some agricultural background leave the work place just in order to get the cake of their agriculture earnings also. This type of absenteeism, according to Hone, can't be linked with productivity. Hone, further, adds to his notion that the Indian worker is committed to industrial work and his commitment should not be questioned because absenteeism is prevalent. First, much of the apparent absenteeism is the result of the poor statistics. Second, the worker has become an economic man which is what certain sociologists always wanted.

In support of the present contention, it has also been argued that the theory of socialization of an industrial labour force and its adaptation to the 'technological norms' have often explicitly stated that the worker's set of values should become monetary.

Absenteeism in India is a consequence of the worker's new found economic rationality. It shows that the worker can value 'work' and 'leisure' in monetary terms. The result may be regrettable for Indian employers, but they are

a consequence of "the socialization of an industrial labour force".

The same view has been expressed by I.L.O. survey report and Moore (1967). The contention is that the worker's work in the wage economy should be conditioned by the complex circumstances largely favourable to him which exist there, is equally natural. It has been accepted that a worker's village attachment is normal so long adequate security of job has not been provided by the factory.

Industrial conflict has also sometimes been used as an indicator of lack of commitment. It is said a "worker's protest" has a tendency to decline with the advancement of industrialization. But, the modern analysis of work - commitment negates this view and hold that the workers who are attached and committed with the work and its values find solution of their problem only within the frame work of their factory or work system. This is why they resort to industrial conflict for the redressal of their demands which also includes most of the time improvement of working condition.

It is held that the uncommitted worker may on occasion engage in individual acts of protest through sabotage or in very fleeting forms of collective protest such as machine-smashing. Similarly Moore (1969) also writes that the uncommitted worker does not join in labour protest, except under pressure from his fellows. An

industrial system institutionalises conflicts and tensions, it does not eliminate them (1969).

Actually a committed worker protests under the frame work of the normative conditions which are required with work relation. The required work relations are supposed to be :-

1. functionally specific, that is, confined to the particular duties;
2. impersonal, that is, relating to the jobs or functions and not to the persons performing them; and
3. affectively neutral, that is, demanding neither personal identification nor loyalty (Parsons, 1952).

The notion that the workers associated with union activities are absent prone and less committed to work has also been negated in various studies. Murthy (1953) Morris (1960), Sharma (1974) all have demonstrated that the workers who were more involved in union activities had relatively better attendance record and high commitment than those who were less involved.

Besides the approach of relating commitment with absenteeism and participation of workers in industrial protests, the modern approach also considers commitment as a value laden concept. A committed worker is one who performs his role to his own satisfaction. Thus, intrinsic value is here attached along with work commitment. This intrinsic value behind work commitment includes 'performance value' and

'value of discipline' as essential components. A person is said to have the performance value when he finds satisfaction in performing his role responsibilities well. He does his best in the occupation he enters not because some one wants him to perform well, or not even for monetary incentives but out of his own volition, i.e. as a result of the values inculcated in him. A worker who has imbibed this value will discharge his duties well for its own sake and not merely in terms of the authority expects of him.

The another essential component of work commitment, discipline value, explains that a disciplined person conforms to the expectation of the job without pressure or coercion. He abides by rules and norms out of his own free will and finds satisfaction in so doing. In another words conforming to rules is not by compulsion but by choice. Thus, work commitment being the value laden concept can be summed up as "imbibing of the values of performance and discipline by workers without any external inducement and acceptance of the behaviour appropriate to industrial employment (Punekar, 1978). In another words, work-commitment represents the state of mind devoted towards work performance without attaching one self towards any material rewards.

STAGES OF WORK COMMITMENT

According to Kerr et al (1962) hiring of workers and keeping them attached consistently to work are two separate things. Former is easy but the later is very difficult. Commitment to work passes through different stages or points on the continuum of behavioural change which mark the transition of the worker from traditional society to an industrial way of life. As Kerr et al point out " A committed worker is one who stays on the job and who has severed his major connections with land. He is a permanent member of the industrial work force, receiving wages and being dependent for making a living on enterprise management which offer him work and direct his activities at the work-place" (1962). In their analysis, Kerr et al have pointed to four stages which are interrelated and which finally get a person settled in one's occupation. They are (i) Recruitment, (ii) Commitment, (iii) Advancement and (iv) Maintenance. Apart from these they have discussed the typology of the worker which for all practical purposes represent the four stages of the work-commitment. These are: the uncommitted worker, the semicommitted worker, the generally committed worker and the specifically committed worker.

The uncommitted worker has no intention of entering into industrial employment on any continuing basis.

His is a temporary sojourn for an immediate purpose, perhaps to get a needed sum of money to liquidate tax obligations, or to buy a bride, or to tide over his family during a period of famine, price decline or other emergency. Although the length of the initial sojourn may be determined by the immediate need for income from industrial employment, it does constitute a break with the rural tribal background, and it may be a first step towards further migrations to industrial work and to more permanent commitment as time goes on. Kerr et al (1962) have suggested the example of the 'target worker' in the South African gold mines in this regard. The 'target worker' in the South African gold mines in this regard. The target worker 'may accept the work in the mines for a specified period of a year or two, return to the land for a time, and then seek different industrial employment again. In the opinion of Kerr et al, in a number of the newly industrializing countries uncommitted workers constitute a major proportion of the industrial labour force. And finally it can be summed up about uncommitted worker that, " he is in industry but not yet of it ".

The semi-committed worker, according to Kerr et al, is "a man at the margin of two ways of life. He works more or less regularly in industry but maintains his connections with the land, the tribal or the village". Thus, the difference between uncommitted and semi-committed worker is not in regards to the period of time devoted to

industrial employment but actually difference lies in contemplation by semi-committed worker in spending a major part of his adult life shifting between agricultural and industrial employment, while the uncommitted worker regards industrial employment as only temporary. For example, in many cases, the wife and the family remain on the tribal or village land where she supports herself and the children. The 'industrial bachelor' as in north India and Kenya will send her small amounts of money and return home periodically. Thus, the semi committed worker gets cash and perhaps a more interesting life from his industrial employment without giving up security connected with the land or the tribe. The semi-committed workers generally show high turn over rates. They belong fully neither to the tribe nor to industrial life. The "generally committed worker" is one who has completely severed his connection with the village to become a permanent member of an urban or industrial work force. This requires an adjustment to all the institutional aspects of urban living and industrial employment. The security of the generally committed worker is geared to the availability of industrial employment for he no longer has strong ties to the rural or tribal society. He may have tried his hand at different occupations in a variety of industries. But, whatever his occupation, he must sell his labour to maintain himself and his family.

The "specifically committed worker" is one who is permanently attached not only to the industrial way of life, but to a particular employer or to a particular occupation or profession. The assumption is that an industrial man is not a product of a particular climate or ancestry but rather of persistent adaptation and conditioning. From Kerr et al's analysis, it also seems that organizational and occupational commitment to work develop at the later stage and is sociologically most important stage in the development of work-commitment. A sense of complete belongingness is inculcated into the workers mind towards factory and occupation. This definitely affects his performance in a positive way. According to Kerr et al specific commitment is a typical feature of Japanese workers but besides them it exists also in Germany, Italy, France and England. It is becoming increasingly prevalent in the United states and many other countries as a result of greater occupational specialization and the growth of seniority and pension systems without vesting provisions.

In general, according to Kerr et al (1962) "the degree of commitment is related to the stage of industrial development". As industrialization proceeds the enterprise managers become more interested in permanently committed working force. Thus, as Kerr et al put it", a characteristic feature of all advanced industrializing societies is the existence of a fully committed industrial

work-force. Workers are permanently attached not only to industrial employment, but often specifically committed to particular enterprises and occupations as well-absenteeism, except for unavoidable reasons such as illness, ceases to be a problem and turn over is reduced to the minimum. In short, committed labour is so important for economy that all advanced economies depend mainly on this.

SOCIAL DYSFUNCTIONS OF UNCOMMITTED WORK :

The social significance of committed work can better be appreciated by assessing the nuisance value of uncommitted work for the society. For the purpose of systematic exposition, the unwholesome consequences of alienated work may be classified into three broad categories. These are - personal, organizational and social (Sharma, 1971). As for the worker, labour that provides little opportunity for individual commitment in an orderly career leads to the mounting of frustration and disaffection in the worker, to the denial of the sense of his own universal being as a man, to a relatively anomic view of life and world, and even to acute problems of personality adjustment.

As for the organization, uncommitted worker throws the entire economic enterprise out of gear. It twists and perverts human relations in industry, especially between management on one side and worker on the other, building

formidable barriers among human beings. It encourages disruptive group activity in the form of strikes, agitations, demonstrations and restricted production. In a word, the situation boils down to the low level of productivity and thus defeats the very purpose of organization.

As for the society, uncommitted worker creates problems of integration and generates further troubles, viz, ethnic hostilities, communal tensions, regional movements, political confrontations, frenetic leisure and the like. These problematic social consequences of alienated worker could be explained by the "generalization hypothesis". The 'generalization hypothesis' suggests that the effects of alienation in work are carried over from the work sphere to the other spheres of social life. Thus, the sense of powerlessness before machine leads to the sense of low control in political and social spheres; the sense of normlessness at work encourages loose commitment to normative order in general ; frustration and hostility bred in work situations find release in disruptive group adventures in social life. While a study by Melvin Seeman (1967) finds little evidence to support the generalization hypothesis, the disturbing consequences of uncommitted work in the direction of producing social tensions can't be entirely ruled out. The mass indulgence of workers in the recent communal fury of Ahmedabad, Jamshedpur and Ranchi are

significant examples.

Thus, on the basis of above discussions on commitment to industrial work, it can be concluded that it consists of different dimensions. For example, a group of Scholars have explained this concept on the basis of worker's complete severance of ties from village and settling at industrial urban place of work permanently. One group of Scholars have stressed on the point that a committed worker is attached with his work and work place to that extent that he does not care for the earnings and rewards. Another group of Scholars view that work-commitment is related with performance aspect and a committed worker is neither very much involved in union related activities nor does he abstain from work.

But, all the above contentions are uni-dimensional whereas the concept of commitment of work is multi-dimensional. Contrary to the views expressed so far, it has been found in various studies that, a worker with a village nexus, with involvement in union activities and even with compulsive absenteeism may be committed to work. Sometimes, a worker with village ties and active participation in union activities are more committed to work than others. Similarly, absence from work can't be taken as an index of low commitment.

In short, a committed worker is one who

attaches great importance to work irrespective of its nature and incentives he gets for it. He is always concerned with his performance and maintains discipline. He is fully attached with his work organization and considers it as indispensable and is always concerned with high productivity and its well being.

CHAPTER-II

Indian attitude

to

work

INDIAN ATTITUDE TO WORK

It may be relevant to consider briefly the Indian attitude to work in order to arrive at a better appreciation of the work-force commitment. However, it is not an easy task to sum-up the philosophy of work of the average Indian because of the diversities in thought arising out of the bewildering variety of cultural-religious influences. In some cases the philosophy as verbally expressed may not appear to pass into the actual work attitudes. However, a quick review of the various approaches to work may be quite in order.

It is customary to relate India's material backwardness to the attitude of the average Indian towards work. In order to explain why India is not as advanced as the western countries or why it failed to resist the onslaught of colonizing powers, the lay man is apt to make the facile guess that things have been bad for India because of the slothfulness of its people. India is backward because its people do not want to work. And, this gets manifested in some popular expressions of attitude to work in couplets like the one attributed to Maluk Das -

AJGAR KARE NA CHAAKRI, PANCHI KARE NA KAAM

DAS MALUKA KAH GAYE SAB KE DAATA RAM

In other words, one need not apply one self to any arduous work because a man's material welfare will be taking care of by the almighty. A stock criticism of the Indian way of life is that it is fatalistic. Sometimes this attitude is seen as vitiating the attitude to work. It breeds indifference towards goal oriented activity. It is, however, difficult to agree that this represents the central thought of the Indian philosophy of work, although some people have tried to connect this attitude to the Hindu mythologies and even to the Hindu scriptures, but, such attempts are far too populist to merit any serious consideration. Of course, perversions have played their part and the long centuries of foreign domination have told upon the work ethos of the average Indian. The regeneration of Indian thought and philosophy which came in the wake of the nationalist movement tried to remove the over burden of common misconceptions and sought to present the basic Hindu philosophy of work.

With the growth of the national sentiment the awareness of the truth contained in the Hindu scriptures began to assert it self. It was possibly in the colonial interest of the native India imagined that his inherited philosophy was obscurantist and fatalistic - utterly unfit to equip a person to face the odds of life. Correspondingly, there was a suggestion that western philosophy was more practical and therefore, more viable. Political slavery

becomes far easier to maintain if it is accompanied by cultural and intellectual slavery. The leaders of the nationalist movement had seen the sagging spirits of the common man and sought to make him aware of his rich philosophical heritage.

The concept of work as propounded by Vivekanand or Gandhi has to be seen in the above context. What Vivekanand and Gandhi have said about work is not new to Indian thought, but, with the passage of years and the domination of India by alien cultures, it had got pushed into the background. There is also a possibility that the feudal way of life, especially in the years of its decadence encouraged a leisurly approach to life. The feudal lords were certainly not models of work loving people and the British Government was also perhaps interested in having an endolent and ease-loving native aristocracy. All these and many other factors must have perverted the entire attitude to work. A stage came when work was not accepted as an ennobling duty but as something degrading. Certain works were considered good and of high order while certain others like scavanging were considered menial or degrading. Gone were the days when no work was considered low or menial. The Vedas and the Gita had emphasized the value of doing ones assigned duty with full sincerity for this amounted to the practice of Dharma. The path of salvation was open for all, whatever his occupation or situation in life. Thus, one

reads about a pious butcher who attained Moksha or salvation because he stuck to his vocation and discharged his duties as a seller of meat with all sincerity. Needless to say, some strands of this perverted approach to work are seen in the present day work habits, but, one should not lose sight of the philosophies of work as propounded by thinkers like Vivekanand and Gandhi who were steeped in the best traditions of Indian thought.

It is inherent in nature; and the force of Prakriti, Nature, compels one to action. Since inactivity is impossible, the most desirable course is to steady one's mind, through control over the senses, and perform one's duties. Without action one can not even survive. Action is not man's creation but the supreme Being's. Welfare both personal and social without work is impossible. Man and action become synonymous and actions or their fruits cease to be the chains of man. Devoted, desireless work brings true freedom. Even lord cannot stay inactive. The great ones have a duty - the sacred obligation of universal welfare, which they fulfil by setting noble examples of action. Fundamentally, even the wisest is bound by the intrinsic law of nature to act. Death is no consideration in the discharge of one's duties and responsibilities : Svadharma is paramount. Vacillation and inactivity are really death like : they destroy. Genuine creativity is born when a man is free - secure in the knowledge that he is expressing himself truly,

that is, his true identity lies in the discharg of his duties, obligations - his particular Svadharma. Indeed, "The Karma-Yogi's work is a form of prayer. His mind is purified by it, and the clear mind received the image of gyana, true knowledge".

Thus, the essence of the message about work as explained in Gita, lies in estabilishing (i) the inevitability of work because, and even though reasons may enable one to become equable, one can not escape work and (ii) the need for engaging in work desirelessly, not for one's own but for the universal good.

Mahatma Gandhi is widely considered very important and indispensable for his social thoughts. His views on work and work commitment are of immense value for the present study. Gandhi disapproved of traditional views on work prevalent in India and spoke lucidly on various aspects of work. To him, work is a real prayer. Real praying from the heart brings the real work behind it. For in the end work it self becomes prayer (1932).

Gandhi considered work as service to God, hence, wages should not be related with work absolutely. Gandhi says, " Work must come first, and then if possible wages commensurate with the amount of work done. To work in this spirit is to serve God. But if the wages are demanded first that would be service to Saitan (1945).

Work gives self control and it is done silently. Gandhi compares it with nature which works continuously but silently. "Those who have the greatest measure of self control or are most absorbed in work, speak the least. Speech and action go in together. Look at nature, she is continuously in action never resting for a single moment, and is yet silent " (1945). "Work speaks more effectively than speech which is often deceptive (1945).

Gandhi found that work and faith are interdependent as he says that faith without work is dead so work without faith.

Gandhi justified his work ethics on the basis of gospel in the Gita. A visitor asked Gandhi, if he was not putting too much emphasis on the gospel of work as if making a kind of fetish of work. Gandhi replied, "not at all". "I have always meant what I said. There can never be too much emphasis placed on work. I am simply repeating the gospel taught by Gita where Lord Says that he did not remain ever at work sleeplessly", (1936).

Gandhi views the work as the basic source of production and to him the workers are in real possession of wealth in terms of capacity to produce goods. The workers, Gandhi said, were possessed of real wealth, for wealth really was not money but the capacity to produce goods.

Money alone could produce no goods, only labour could. He wanted the workers to realize their

strength and work for progress on the lines of truth, ahimsa and unity (1945).

According to Gandhi devotion to work is the only remedy for lustful thought. He further considers work more valuable than wealth. In this connection he says 'the remedy against attacks of lustful thoughts is to devote one-self to work. How can a person who is always absorbed in work ever get time for such thought? (1952). Gandhi further writes, "And what do you prize more wealth or work? Supposing you were to be stranded in the desert of Sahara with Cart loads of money, how would it help you? But if you can work you may not have to go hungry. How then wealth to be preferred to work? Go and see for yourselves the labour union of Ahmedabad at work and see how they are trying to establish a republic of their own" (1932).

Work and discipline, according to Gandhi, go on together. He perceived work and rules as not two independent things, just as the elephant and the Curb are not unconnected with each other. An elephant which is not properly controlled can be of no service and is actually a danger. Similarly indisciplined work is also useless.

Every work should be seen with dignity and no work should be done beyond capacity. Gandhi says, "it is wrong to think of any work as humiliating or degrading". He further opines that one should not enlarge the field of one's work beyond one's capacity. We should never seek work

and, when new work comes to us unsought, we should think about our capacity before accepting it. It should be enough if we improve what we are doing and put it on firmer foundation. If we do that, we shall be able to produce all the results we aim at.

Gandhi also elaborated as to what should be the method of work. By this analysis his views on work becomes further clear. According to Gandhi, hard work must be consistent with hard and clear thinking, Conversely, hard and clear thinking, he holds, to be impossible if a person has become physically a perfect wreck. A healthy mind in a healthy body is a correct maxim.

Gandhi says that work should be done calmly, selflessly and without hurry if its burden is not to be felt. We feel work to be a burden only when we do it under compulsion. Work done willingly and cheerfully is never felt as a burden. But those who have a demonial nature are impelled by their selfishness to take all manner of work from their body and then break down. Such persons have no peace of mind and we should never take them as examples. Gandhi says that any one who feels completely absorbed in his or her work does not feel it a burden or a strain, but to one who feels no interest in one's work even a small task seems heavy, as a day seems as long as a year to the prisoner.

Gandhi feels that work should always be done with utmost sincerity. If done sincerely, one does not feel its burden and overcomes with the worries. In the words of Gandhi", no body should undertake more than what he can cope with and should wish to do less than what he can. He who attempts to do more than what he is capable of, suffers from pride, he is attached to work and its fruit. He who does less than what he can is a thief" (1945).

Mahatma Gandhi feels that work should be done with the aim to do the good for all, and not at satisfying our own selfish desires. Indeed he who tries to serve only his selfish interests not only harms the good of others but in the end does not serve even his own good.

. If every body keeps this point of view before him and thinks about the work he is doing, and so works intelligently, he would get the best education, would find his work intersting, develop his intellect, enlarge and purify his heart, acquire efficiency in his work and make inventions and improvement which would benefit the world. As the work has become moe interesting it gives him joy; he feels no fatigue in doing it and the work becomes artistic - Whether it is cleaning of lavatories, or roads, shredding vegetables, anything connected with the dairy, writing accounts or something else. A person who learns to look at every thing from the point of view of public good finds no work low or uninteresting. He will see God in any work which

comes to his share and feel that he was serving him through it. His interest in work does not depend on the nature or type of the work. It springs from within, from his sense of devotion to duty. Any body, who wants to understand and practice Anasaktiyoga, should do all work in this spirit (1945).

Swami Vivekanand, the great Indian Philosopher, has also explained his views on work. In his analysis of work he has sighted many examples from Gita.

Vivekanand believes in proper work. He does not attach much importance to very hard work, because work done beyond capacity is of no significance. Similarly not doing of work is also not appreciated. In his words, " he who does not do any work and he who works too hard can't succeed. Proper work is necessary for any success" (complete work of Swami Vivekanand, Vol-VI, 1972).

According to Vivekanand one can get rid of nature's control through work. One should go on working but it should be cared that one is not soely attached. Work is one of few important path to reach salvation. In his own words", the goal of all religion is to get rid of nature's control over us. This can be done either by work, or worship, or psychic control, or philosophy-by one or more or all of these and be free (Vol-I, 1972). He further writes, "the idea is to be natural - no asceticism, Go on work, only mind that you are not attached" (Vol-I, 1972).

Swami Vivekanand has discussed the secret of work to make his concept of work more clear. As he points out, all work is by nature composed of good and evil. We cannot do any work which will not do some good somewhere, there can't be any work which will not cause some harm somewhere. Every work must necessarily be a mixture of good and evil; yet we are commanded to work incessantly. Good and evil will both have their results, will produce their karma. Good work will entail upon us good effect; bad work, bad. But good and bad are both bondages of the soul. The solution reached in the Gita in regard to this bondage producing nature of work is that, if we do not attach ourselves to the work, we do, it will not have any binding effect on our soul. The central idea of Gita is work incessantly, but be not attached to it. Vivekanand writes, "you should work like a master and not as a slave; work incessantly, but do not do slaves work. Do you not see how every body works? Nobody can be altogether at rest; ninety nine percent of mankind work like slaves, and the result is misery; it is all selfish work. Work through freedom; work through love. When we ourselves work for the things of the world as slaves, there can be no love in us, and our work is not free work" (Vol-1, 1972). Vivekanand sees work as a continuous process which is a part of nature's foundation. Only through work one can achieve the goal of freedom and unselfishness. He says " work is a part of nature's

foundation and goes on always. Those who believe in God understand this better because they know that God is not such an incapable being as will need our help. Although this universe will go on always, our goal is freedom, our goal is unselfishness; and according to Karma-Yoga, that goal is to be reached through work" (Vol-1, 1972).

Vivekanand also envisaged that work is worship of highest kind and one should devote one's life towards it. One should do whatever work one has been entrusted with. He says "when you are doing any work, do not think of any thing beyond. Do it as worship, as the highest worship, and devote your whole life to it for the time being" (Vol-1,1972). He further says", works are neither black nor white for the Yogis, but for ordinary men who have not attained to the highest state of perfection" (Vol-VI, 1972).

Vivekanand finds that the secret of work is Karma-Yoga i.e. intense working. One should not fly away from the wheels of the world-machine, but stand inside it and learn the secret of work. Through proper work done inside, it is also possible to come out as Vivekanand feels.

To sum up, it can be said that the basic notion prevailing in Indian society from the beginning is that no work is low and uninteresting. The view that work is always degrading and is reserved for cursed people has been advanced by a selfish group in order to exploit and remain

in power. Actually the Indian attitude towards work is doing of work with full dedication is like serving God with full honour and devotion. A person, even if he is wealthy and belongs to high caste, can't be taken in high esteem, if he is lazy and gets away from work. For the work not done properly, hampers the development and progress of society and its people. But, even if a menial worker, does his work with full dedication, he is taken in high esteem. A committed worker never undertakes any work in low profile. He enjoys his work and dislikes idleness. This, value is more or less institutionalized through socialization process among the common Indians.

Therefore, it is wrong to say that Indian Philosophy does not approve working as a happy way of life. The messages in Geeta, folk tales and folk-lore have consistently emphasised on indispensability of hard and dedicated work irrespective of its nature. So are the views of great men of India like Gandhi, Vivekanand, Aurbindo, etc. These people have tried to awaken the masses while stressing on the values of work. All of them have explained one common theme that work should not only be done with full commitment but it should be done according to one's capacity.

CHAPTER-III

Review of
Literature

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present Chapter consists of the review of some of the relevant studies done on the different aspects of work commitment. The chapter deals with the problem in historical perspective regarding the trend in theoretical progress as well as in the methodology and technique used in these studies.

The problem of committed worker was felt only after Second world war. At that time it was confined to Western Context only. In context of India, a general notion was that there is paucity of committed workers. But, this notion was soon negated by the various studies, conducted thereafter, by many Indian and foreign scholars. Although, many conflicting views were given regarding commitment of Indian Industrial Workers, yet, in general, it was established that Indian Industrial Workers are fairly committed to the work. In many respects they are like their counterparts in the rest of the World.

TRENDS OF RESEARCH:

As a matter of fact, the Sociologists concerned with industrilization in India seem to have spent considerable time and energy in demonstrating through attitude surveys that the Indian industrial worker is

reasonably committed to work and does not pose any serious threat to the norms and values of the industrial society.

Interest in Indian factories and labour relations was first developed by economists. Scholars such as Broughton (1924), Buchanan (1935) and Anstey (1957) pointed out that workers in the Urban Industrial Centres were mainly persons from low castes who were pushed out of their villages and land because of sheer poverty. These people were strangers in the new environment and hence, they could not adjust to factory work. This argument was supported by the fact that there was a high rate of absenteeism and turnover among workers. Similar observations were made by the Royal Commission on labour in India who advocated the provisions of greater welfare measures by employers and greater security and protection by the government. For nearly two decades after 1931, there was little academic follow-up of the mentioned attempts to demonstrate a lack of commitment to the factory on the part of Indian Industrial Workers. Meanwhile, important changes occurred on the industrial relations scene. In the first place, a policy favouring labour welfare and social justice was accepted by the Indian National Congress which assumed limited governmental authority in 1937 and took over from the British in 1947. A variety of labour legislation and workers' welfare measures were adopted between 1938 and 1948. Moreover, employers themselves began understanding the

need for providing agreeable working conditions and compensation to labour. However, there was a wide spread belief that the average Indian Worker was slow in adapting himself to the industrial way of life. This 'fact' was ascribed to the pre-dominantly rural-agrarian structure of Indian Society. Academic interest in this question was revived when a group of Western Scholars decided to focus on the differences between the developed industrial societies and the under-developed (or developing) societies currently undergoing the process of industrialization. These scholars postulated the 'logic of Industrialism' and argued that the essentially non-Industrial Characteristics of a society like India (e.g., relatively closed system of stratification emphasis on primary group 'loyalty, religious values, discouraging hard work and innovativeness, etc.), obstructed worker's acceptance of the discipline and rigour industrial activity, (Kerr et al, 1960, Moore, 1960).

This thesis about the lack of commitment drew the attention of the Indian and foreign scholars to the importance of studying Indian workers' commitment to industry in the context of their social and cultural life. Studies of factory workers in some industrial centres such as Bombay and Calcutta lent support to the hypothesis that the social structure in India impedes workers' commitment to industrial work. This can be seen in the studies of Prabhu (1956), Unesco (1961) and Patel (1963). At the same time, a

few Western Scholars, notably Thorner (1957), Myers (1958), Morris (1963) and Lambert (1963) examined the problem of commitment in depth and concluded that the degree of maladjustment of the workers to their job was much smaller than had been made out by the earlier studies. Morris (1967), for instance, showed that there had never been a real shortage of labour in Bombay cotton textiles industry. Morris and Thorner collected evidence leading to the conclusion that in most cases where workers were apparently uncommitted to their jobs, this was due to the policies of recruitment and tenure adopted by the employers. Since then, several researchers have dealt with the question of work commitment in various industries and regions. Leading among them are Dholakia (1966), Sheth (1967), Vaid (1967), Sharma (1968), Punekar (1978) and Mukherjee (1985) etc. Most of these studies suggest that the Indian industrial worker is fairly committed to his job and to the industrial way of life. In fact, Sheth (1967) has some evidence to argue that traditional institutions such as the joint family may facilitate rather than hinder the workers' stability in their factory job. Both Lambert (1960) & Vaid (1967) present evidence to show that in some towns and Cities, there exists an urban population with little or no participation with the agrarian way of life and no rural tradition. This population does not encounter the issue of 'commitment' as discussed by earlier observers and

researchers (Sheth & Patel, 1979).

REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES:

The history of Sociological studies on 'commitment' dates back as early as Howthron studies (). The Howthron studies were the first to demonstrate the significance of social incentives as the effective factors in developing work commitment. The Howthron studies merit the credit for spending up freash and fruitful avenues by directing attention to the fact that the society within the factory is as (or possibly more) powerful a variable that tells upon the level of work involvement as the society around the factory is.

Early Sociological studies on work-commitment were based on the hypothesis that a committed worker is a permanent mamber of industrial working force receiving wages and being dependent for making a living on enterprise management which offers him work and directs his activities at work place. He severes his major connections with land. Several studies were conducted on this basis. Important among them are the studies conducted by Myers (1958), Moore and Feldman (1960), Lambert (1963), Kerr, et al (1962), Vaid (1968), etc.

Myers (1958) in his study of Bombay textile workers, concluded that Indian industrial workers are partially committed to work. This is because they want to

have economic gains of industrial employment at one hand and remain in constant touch with their village home at the other. Thus, the Indian worker wants to keep his job in the factory but to get periodic relief from its pressures he returns to his village for rest, family visits, festivals, or to harvest season.

Kerr and his associates (1960) have also undertaken their study on commitment on the line of village nexus of the industrial worker. They have pointed out that hiring workers may be relatively easy, but keeping them consistently at work tends to be a more difficult task. An industrial worker can be treated as committed worker only if he severs his dependence on land in any way and fully depends on the earnings from his industrial job. This will enhance his attachment with the work place.

In contrast to earlier findings, Morris (1960) highlighted that the problem of commitment in developing economies is not so great because of labour surplus and lack of alternatives. On the basis of the research data collected from Bombay city cotten textile industry and the Tata iron and steel company, Morris criticized the tendency to eulogise traditional rural system. He argued that Indian village system has persisted from centuries due to lack of alternatives available. Therefore, once a worker finds a job in industry he clings to it. Historical evidence indicates that the transformation of a rural traditionally organized

population into a committed industrial labour force has not been socially difficult in India. The desperate poverty of the countryside made available a large labour supply that was eager to move into industry as opportunity appeared. Once employed in the factories, the workers on the whole rather readily adjusted to work and showed commitment to it.

Versluys, et al (1961) conducted a comparative study of work - adjustment among the migrated workers of Uttar Pradesh. These workers had settled in the industrial jobs of Calcutta and Bombay and had work-experience of ten or more years. Versluys, et al (1961) observed that technology and other work relative factors are not very strong to influence the workers' work adjustment. It is the impact of work culture prevailing around the work place which motivates the worker to get himself attached to work. This is why in this study the Scholars found that the workers who have settled in Bombay are better adjusted than the workers settled in Calcutta.

Lambert (1963) extended the studies of work commitment and added more dimensions to it. In his study, he wanted to know that how far the behaviour and interactions of the factory workers reflect their behaviour and interactions in society. His data lead him to conclude that the factory is in many respects an extension of the social structure existing around it. Lambert's work is a study of five privately owned factories in Poona. These are textile,

paper, engine, biscuit and rubber industries. These five industries constituted together, resemble three kinds of industries in Poona, representing different organization structures, Skill structures and reward systems. This study is further concerned with there different theoretical domains : One, problems in the recruitment and commitment of an industrial labour force in an agrarian society; two, factory typologies; and three, the factory as a social innovation. In his study, Lambert was concerned with a different setting and a different stage of industrialization than the ones upon which most of the contemporary Scientists such as Myres (1950), Slotkin (1960), Kerr, et al (1960), Moore and Feldman (1960), Morris (1960), etc. based their studies on commitment.

Lambert (1963) viewed that commitment should not be seen in context of the worker's tying themselves with the job only rather it should be undertaken in terms of the worker's commitment to company's goals, productivity and tractability. Lambert also tested his studies on the basis of the interpretations of commitment done by Moore and Feldman (1960). To examine the relevance of the data to commitment theory, Lambert utilized Moore and Feldman's (1960) "Stages of commitment". To them, " the committed worker severes his connection with the land and with his tribal background. He is fully urbanized and never expects to leave industrial life. His family is permanently resident

in an urban area, and it is not unusual for the wife also to enter the labour market".

To examine the first set of characteristics, indicating the workers' commitment, Lambert (1963), tried to determine if the worker has severed his connections with the land and become fully urbanized and does he ever expect to leave industrial life. In this context, he did not explore their current village ties but enquired from the workers that whether they would like to retire to village if they had accumulated enough money to live on. To this, it was found that 28.8% of the workers indicated that they would like to round out their lives in a village inspite of the very fact that a good number of the workers had an Urban background. If this finding is related with commitment continuum, it seems that a fair proportion of workers in Lamberts' study were at lower end of commitment continuum. But, besides the above findings, the other data, however, collected by the author seem to place the workers in the committed, or perhaps the over committed category. Lambert classified his data in three categories on the basis of the commitment to factory, occupation and city (Poona). These data were connected with the question about if the workers were laid off they would seek another job in a factory, in the same occupation and whether they would restrict their search to Poona. To this, it was found that over 76% workers showed commtment with factory, and 46% with the occupation but only

4.3% with the city. Thus, if commitment is viewed as the intention to try to remain in factory employment, more than three fourths of the workers are committed. If Moore and Feldman's (1960) notion of occupational commitment is taken as over commitment, almost half the workers have shown this degree of commitment but comparatively a very low number of the workers are having residential commitment. Hence, the data on workers commitment in Lamberts' study gave conflicting indications and he argued that Indian workers are spread all along the continuum of commitment.

Vaid (1968) through his kota study avoided the term commitment and used adjustment instead. He developed 22-items index to determine work adjustment and carried on his study. Besides other variables, he also included technology as important variable in determining work adjustment. On the basis of his findings, Vaid (1968) reported that workers in the more advanced technology were better adjusted. Supervisors Scored at higher levels of adjustment across the technology categories, though findings on ownership were not definitive. The author also concluded that good pay, good housing, job security, promotion, work group, working conditions, supervisors, etc. were few such factors which helped in getting the workers adjusted to industrial work. However, no significant findings were reported between work-adjustment and caste, migrant status and previous work experience.

Sheth (1968) concluded a case-study of a progressive turbine pump factory of Gujarat and nicknamed it as oriental. Following the foot steps of earlier studies, he also tried to explain work commitment on the basis of workers' contact with the village, his attachment to factory work, work-place and town. In the above background, in his study, Sheth found that most workers expressed favourable views about their work and the company as a whole eventually leading to a committed working force. According to Sheth (1968), "For these permanent residents, work in oriental did not mean a break in their social relationships. In fact, several employees in this category said they wanted to stick to the factory even if there being better and more remunerative jobs else where, because, working in oriental meant for them remaining in the midst of their families and friends". Sheth further explained that employees' physical contact with the native place depended on the ease and expense involved in travelling. Those who could not go easily fulfilled their social commitments by delegating their functions to other members of the family such as father , brother or cousin living in the village. The economic commitments of these employees were largely maintained through the postal service. Thus, if severing of ties from village home or lessening it by delegating the power of social or economic commitments to some near relative, is considered an index of commitment, then

definitely, the workers in Sheth's study are committed to industrial work. Kannappan (1970) has analysed the behavioural dimensions of commitment. According to him commitment can be analysed on the basis of worker's preference of traditional an industrial life, nature of work attachment and disciplinary factors.

Thorns (1971) examined work-commitment in context of the meaning of work as envisaged by Weiss and Kahn (1960). According to these scholars work has generally been conceived either as having intrinsic value for the individual or as to means to an end. These two generalized views are associated with, on the one hand, the higher occupational groups in particular the professions and on the other hand, the lower occupational groups in particular the manual workers. Thorns (1971) conducted his study on two sub-urban population. The varied commitments to work when examined in relation to definition indicated that work-commitment is primarily for instrumental reasons. Hence, those with high work commitment defined work as a productive activity. The alternative sphere of work within the sub-urban population which had the highest commitment, was that of private or domestic leisure activities. This finding suggests that the individual's work-commitment is dependent upon his requirement of funds to sustain a certain level of domestic comfort and facilities and that his time will be allocated between these two areas of his living

according to the level of income necessary to obtain his required domestic level.

Sharma (1974) conducts a study on a sample of 262 industrial workers of an automobile plant in Bombay. In this study, besides other things, his objective was to ascertain the worker's levels of commitment to each of the many aspects of work as well as non-work experience. The main finding of this study related with commitment to industrial work show that the automobile workers interviewed were only moderately committed to industrial work. This can be attributed to the fact that most of them were holding jobs that were routine and repetitive requiring little or no skill on the part of the worker. Many factors together contribute to the development of commitment among industrial workers, the chief among them being industrial background and work technology. When the job provides to the worker a sense of meaning and control over the work process, he is likely to feel committed to industrial work. On the other hand, jobs involving routine and repetitive operations and providing no meaning, control or discretion to the worker are likely to cause lack of commitment. Other factors that promote commitment are level of education and prior industrial experience. Factors such as wages and rural urban background have very little direct influence in shaping the level of commitment of the industrial worker. Finally, the study explains that the traditional background is not the

most critical factors in either promoting or inhibiting the development of commitment. Thus, according to this study, work technology is the prime factor in influencing the worker's commitment.

Bhatt (1975) also based his study on the hypothesis developed by Moore and Feldman (1960). Majority of workers in his study belonged to village background. Bhatt (1975) observed that workers' commitment to industrial work depends upon the reasons of leaving village and accepting assignment related to industrial work. If they are pushed out from village due to compulsive economic conditions, they may not be committed to work. But, if they are pulled by the economic opportunities in the cities, they are likely to be committed workers. Liking of city life and liking of factory jobs are two different aspects and influence work - commitment accordingly. Bhatt (1975) concluded that if preference for industrial jobs is considered an index of work commitment then the workers in his study showed high degree of preference for industrial jobs and thus are highly committed to work. He further observed that majority of the workers were having resentment for city living. Thus findings of Bhatt (1975) supports Myres' (1958) observation that workers dislike city living more than factory jobs.

Karnik (1975) has explained a profile of the Indian workers in general. He has observed that the work

which satisfies the workers' ego hold them to work. The Indian workers in general donot want to do very hard work. They are more committed to their familial and social responsibilities rather than work.

Van-Groenout (1976) in his comparative study of Khadi and other workers found that better working conditions and more advanced technology donot improve commitment. In this study he found that workers with better technology and having better health, better econmic conditions and better housing facilities complained more. Thus, it proves that Khadi workers are more committed in comparison to mill workers inspite of many limitations, while mill workers, inspite of being in better conditions, complain much indicating lesser commitment.

Srivastava, A.K. (1977) in his study of industrial work force of Chandigarh has analysed the data in relation to the concept of commitment. He developed certain propositions to explain his contention. After analysing the data he came to the conclusion that earlier assumptions made by theorists regarding commitment of Indian labour seem to be impressionistic at best. Whenever empirical evidence for these assumptions has been sought, it clearly pointed out that the Indian worker, like its counterpart in the west, is a logical being and has accepted the industrial way of life. He is not only committed to his work but in many cases he is "over committed".



According to Punekar and Hari Babu (1978) commitment is a value-laden concept. After examining this concept they have identified its components, namely, intrinsic value of performance and discipline. The correlates of commitment as explained by these scholars are (i) adjustment to industrial employment and life and (ii) the other - regarding sentiment, whose specific form in the industrial workers, context might be mistakenly identified with loyalty to the employer. A committed worker in the above sense performs his role to his own satisfaction. A worker who is not committed but has one of the correlates has the same outward behaviour, but he performs his job to the satisfaction of the employer and the motivation is economic rather than self-satisfaction. The authors tried to show why the Indian worker prefers industrial employment and continues in it. The authors concluded that intrinsic commitment is necessary for industrial development, or more generally for any aspect of national development, but in the Indian situation, it is likely to be absent. However, in its absence promotion of adjustment factors is the second best alternative.

In their studies London et al, (1978) examined the relationship between the use of five conflict resolution strategies (withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, forcing and conformity) and three measures of employee commitment (to the organization, profession and community). Data when

examined showed the varied relationship between supervisors and sub-ordinates. For example, confronting was positively related to subordinates' organizational commitment. Supervisors' professional and organizational commitments were negatively related to their use of forcing. Commitment to the community was negatively related to withdrawing for the total sample.

Srivastava, V. (1982) in her study of factory workers of Chandigarh has analysed the problem of work commitment in India and came to the conclusion that the concept of commitment as used in its traditional form has out lived its utility. It appears that elements conventionally taken as the core defining criteria of commitment have become obsolete. Analysis of data further revealed workers' preference for wage earning work as compared to peasant occupation. Majority of workers took industrial occupations as permanent employment and they expressed willingness to continue in it. Thus, it was felt that new elements are needed to be incorporated in the concept of commitment. For example, workers are developing a kind of industrial consciousness. They look forward for growth and development opportunities within industrial work. Management and government are perceived as equally important role players in worker's commitment.

With a purpose to explore the attitudinal and behavioural aspects of commitment of industrial workers in

contemporary India, O.P.Gupta (1982) conducted an empirical study on the workers of Diesel locomotive works, a public sector undertaking, situated at Varanasi. In this study he found that most of the workers belonged to first generation of rural emigrants to industry. Though emotionally attached to agriculture, pragmatically they showed a reasonably high level of commitment to industrial work. They were pulled by positive attractions of good wages, security of job, chances of mobility and a desire to use learnt skills. The workers were consistent in their orientations to industrial work. Most of them were satisfied with the status of an industrial worker and its privileges. The contrasting conditions of rural versus industrial worker's life provided them motivations to continue as industrial workers, in spite of some sort of disincentives to work. There was no evidence to support the contention that Indian industrial worker, being low-commitment-oriented to work, was an impediment to industrial growth. The only discrepancy found was with regard to the management and level of management participation.

In her study, Mukherjee (1985) tried to measure jute worker's subjective dimensions of work commitment by method used by Sharma (1974). Three questions were presented before the respondents regarding rating of factory job, preference of the types of job and regarding the types satisfying occupation. These three aspects highlighting subjective dimension of work commitment

revealed high work commitment among major segment of the sample. But despite high level of commitment, the overwhelming majority of jute workers retained close economic or social links with native village. Thus, Mukharjee in this study concluded that jute worker's work commitment coexists side by side with their allegiance to rural household and village-society. In fact, Though certain social institutions, attitudes and values characterized by rationality are essential prerequisites for industrial development, traditional social institutions do not always act as its barriers.

Study of work-commitment has also been conducted on the basis of the employees, organizational commitment. The scholars have assumed that a worker committed to organization should also be committed to work irrespective of the various limitations in the organization. Some of the important studies have been conducted in this direction by Steers (1977), Welsch and Helen (1981), Augle and James (1981), Meyer and Allen (1984), Fukani and Larson (1984), Lincoln and Kalleberg (1985), Balajee (1986), etc.

Thus, from the description of some of the previous studies it is evident that scholars have used widely different measures and criteria of commitment. Some of these are: attitude to employer and organization (Vaid, Sharma), stability of work force (Lambert, Sheth), availability of workers when needed (Morris, Thermer), value

orientation (Punekar), etc. But, many other dimensions of work-commitment are yet to be studied. Sheth and Patel (1979) for example have given their opinion about the trends of research on work-commitment. They are of the opinion that serious attempt to study commitment in relation to specific organizational or community goals such as efficiency and economic development is still required. It is true But, besides this, what is required much in the study of work-commitment is to make serious attempt to relate the concept of commitment to prevalent social attitude towards work. Actually, over notion about the importance and necessity of work is formed from the very beginning through the process of socialization. It is not rural-urban background and work incentives which form it. Thus, work commitment can broadly be explained in context of its cultural meaning because it is an ideology inherent in Indian culture which explains that do not come in. What ever is done, whether it is industrial, non-industrial or agricultural job one must do it properly with full dedication and perform it with the intention to get best result out of it.

The present study is an attempt to do empirical research in this direction.

PART - II

CHAPTER-IV

Research objectives
of the
present study

RESERCH OBJECTIVE OF THE PRESENT STUDIES

After independence, the importance of 'work-commitment' in any work-organization was seriously felt in India. A series of studies were conducted, thereafter, on this topic to explore the factors responsible for commitment to work. The present study is also an attempt in this direction.

On the basis of the previous discussion five dimensions have been chosen for further inquiry in the present study. Broadly, these dimensions of research are as follows :-

- (1) Social background of the workers and commitment to work.
- (2) Job background & organizational structure and commitment to work.
- (3) Job-Satisfaction and commitment to work.
- (4) Social alienation of the employees and their commitment to work.
- (5) Organizational commitment and work-commitment.

On the basis of the above five dimensions of inquiry, the present reasearch-work has been conducted with the following objectives :-

(1) SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF THE WORKERS AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

(1) Individual characteristics such as age, family orientation, education and rural-urban background have been taken as factors which can influence the degree of commitment to work of the factory employees. It has been planned to find out the relationship between these factors and commitment to work on the following basis :-

(a) Becker (1960), Sheth (1968), Gupta (1982), Fukani and Larsen (1984) etc. have revealed that there is relatively intimate relationship between age and degree of commitment to work. Becker (1960) has found positive relationship between the two while Ritzer and Trice (1969) have found that there is no relationship between age and work-commitment.

Here it has been assumed that workers of younger age groups are less committed than the older age groups. The rationale behind this assumption is that at the time of appointment younger people remain more committed than their older counterparts due to high morale. But, after some period of employment, commitment level goes down rapidly because of uncertainty, lack of seniority, security, and job-satisfaction.

Therefore, in this context it is an objective of the present study to find out the relationship between employees age and commitment to work.

(b) Family is the most universal and important agency of Socialization. It inculcates among its members the work-culture also. Many studies have been conducted on the basis of the structure of family, but, no significant study has been conducted on the basis of family orientation and work-commitment. In this respect, the hypothesis has been formulated that there is no difference in commitment scores of worker of traditional and modernity oriented families. And thus, the present study plans to find out the relationship between family orientation and commitment to work.

(c) Studies on work-commitment have also been conducted on the basis of educational background of the workers. In their studies Ritzer (1970) and Sharma (1974) found that education has positive relationship with the worker's commitment. Similarly Vaid (1968) explored the fact that the more educated a workers is, the better adjusted he is.

But, in the present study the hypothesis has been advanced that formal education does not influence work-commitment. It is rather influenced by cultural ethos and socialization of the individuals.

Thus, the objective of the present study is to explore the relationship between different levels of education of workers and their commitment to work.

(d) The major studies on work-commitment have been done on the basis of workers' rural-urban background. Researchers have held those workers to be committed who have severed their major village ties and have completely adapted themselves to urban-industrial life. Myers (1950), Moore and Feldman (1960), Morris (1960), Lumbert (1963), Sheth (1963), etc. are important sociologists who developed their commitment theory on this background. But, Sharma (1974) found that rural-urban background has very little influence over work-commitment.

In the present study, to discern the relationship between rural - urban background and work-commitment, it has been hypothesised that rural-urban background does not influence commitment to work. In fact Social and cultural values inculcated among the people from the childhood actually influence the work-commitment and not the place of living.

II. FACTORS RELATED TO JOB-BACKGROUND AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE & COMMITMENT TO WORK.

Factors related to the job-background and organizational structure of the employees such as income, occupational status, span of service, promotion, physical working condition are also considered as important factors determining commitment to work and hence, these factors have been considered separately to find out relationship between

them and work commitment. In this regard following hypothesis and objectives have been propounded :-

(a) Income is considered to be very important factor determining commitment to work as it is a highly accepted fact that man's total attention is centred around economic gains or loss while doing any occupation. Researches by Vaid (1968), Srivastava (1977), Ritzer (1970), Gupta (1982) have shown significant relationship between employees income and commitment to work. On the contrary, Becker (1960) & Sharma (1974) have found no significant relationship between the two. In fact, the importance of income can vary considerably from job to job. The major difficulty in assessing its relation with work-commitment is confounded with other factors such as age, occupational level and education.

In this context the hypothesis has been formulated that employees who are in higher income groups are more committed to their work than those who are in lower income group. The logic behind this assumption is that those who are economically at higher level feel lesser economic strain. This leads to better attention to work and hence their work commitment is high.

Thus, the objective of the present study is to findout relationship between work-commitment and the income of the employees.

(b) Regarding occupational status, researches by Vaid (1968), Sharma S.L. (1971), Sharma B.R. (1974), Oomen (1978), Gupta (1982) all have shown significant relationship between employees' occupational status and their commitment to work.

In this context it has been hypothesized that worker with high occupational status are more committed to their work because of much responsibility rested on them than those with low occupational status.

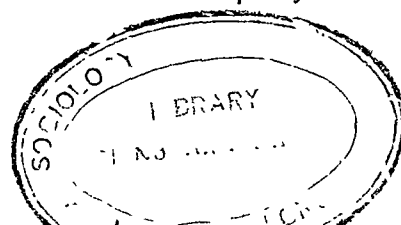
Hence, the objective of the present study is to determine the relationship between occupational status and work commitment.

(c) Span of service is an important factor determining employees' work-commitment.

It has been hypothesized that the employees who have comparatively longer tenure of service are more committed than the newly appointed workers. Job security, promotion and better facilities may be reason behind this. Yogendra Singh (1978) has reported similar finding in a study on teacher's commitment, he is of the view that senior teachers tend to be high and junior teachers tend to be low on commitment.

(d) Promotion can also be taken as a vital factor determining work-commitment.

It is expected that the employees who have



sufficient promotional avenues and are being promoted from time to time are more committed than the workers having no or very meager promotional avenues.

Thus, one important objective of the present study remains to find out relationship between promotion and work commitment.

(e) Physical working condition is considered to be very important factor determining work commitment. It includes place of work, work-environment and work technology.

According to Singh and Das (1978) place of work influences employees' commitment to work to a great extent. In steel production, the production process undergoes through several plants such as coke oven, sintering plant, blast furnace, steel melting shop, cold-rolling mill and hot-rolling mill. These plants, although interrelated and interdependent in production process, differ sharply in matters of physical working conditions in work environment, work-technology and product. Workers in some of these shops or plants are exposed either to large intensity of heat or to huge density of dust or both depending on the nature of the plant or shop. But, interestingly enough, there are also such plants and working place which are neither exposed very much to fire nor to dust. In steel production, work-technology also differs from plant to plant. In some plants there is greater degree of automation whereas in some manual labour is more required.

In some production plant such as steel melting shop, a great and higher degree of technical skill is involved than the others. It would be useful to refer Sharma (1974) and Groenon (1976) here who found significant relationship between work-technology and work-commitment.

Thus, in this circumstance due to such differing physical conditions of work, it is assumed that person working in different plants also differ on commitment level. Those who have conducive working conditions are more committed than those who lack this.

Hence, it is our objective to find out the relationship between physical working conditions and commitment to work.

III. JOB-SATISFACTION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

Job-Satisfaction is evaluative reaction of an employee towards his work and is subjectively positive attitude towards work. It is considered an important factor influencing work commitment.

It is assumed that higher job-satisfaction among employees has positively influenced the production in any plant. Similarly it can be assumed that job-satisfaction influences work commitment.

Therefore, the objective of the present study is to determine relationship between job-satisfaction and commitment to work.

IV. SOCIAL ALIENATION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

Alienation has most often been regarded as reverse to work commitment. According to Sharma S.L. (1971) alienation refers to the subjective side of the problem of work-commitment. Although Van Groenon (1976) did not find alienation among the respondents, Sharma (1971), A.K. Sinha (1981) have found a negative relationship between alienation and work-commitment.

In the present study, the social environment of the steel-employees outside the job-context has been measured in terms of powerlessness, isolation and normlessness, the totality of which has been termed as alienation from society. It may be assumed that persons who do not feel integrated with their social environment rather feel alienated, will be less committed to their job.

Thus it has been hypothesized that alienation will be negatively related to work-commitment.

In this context, the objective of the present study is to find out relationship between alienation and work-commitment.

V. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

Study on work-commitment is incomplete unless organizational commitment has also been examined. Oommen (1978) sees commitment in terms of the tendency on the part

of persons to stick to an organization. Sheth (1968) also found high organizational commitment with the factory. Lambert (1963) also found high organizational commitment among its respondents. Mayer and Allen (1984) found significant relationship between work-commitment and factory commitment. Fukani and Larson (1984) have found that service experience has no relationship with company commitment but personal characteristic such as age, company tenure and educational level are significantly related with company commitment. Ritzer and Trice (1969) have found inverse relationship with education and organizational commitment.

In this context it has been assumed that factory commitment differs upon age the level of education, income promotion, etc. Regarding its relationship with work-commitment, it has been hypothesized that it is positively related.

Thus, the objective of the present study is to explore the degree of factory commitment among various categories of employees and also to find out its relationship with commitment to work.

CHAPTER-V

Research Methodology

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The importance and significance of any scientific research lies in its method. As pointed out by Rose (1965), "Facts do not simply lie around waiting to be picked up. Facts must be carved out of the continuous web of ongoing reality, must be observed within a specified frame of reference, must be measured with precision, must be observed where they can be related to other relevant facts. All of this involves methods". Thus, the true sign of science is a certain type of approach, or method towards the field which is to be investigated.

Therefore, careful selection of an appropriate methodology occupies a very important place in planning a scientific social research. In fact, methodology of a study is a corner stone on which the edifice of scientific research is built up.

As is obvious from Chapter No-IV the present study is basically a survey-research and it contemplates to analyse the phenomenon of commitment to work in terms of the responses and reactions provided by the employees working in Bokaro Steel Plant. Since the focus of this study is to discern the dynamics of commitment to work, it was but natural to look for primary data provided by the employees (respondents). Therefore, for all practical and academic

purpose, the employees working in Bokaro Steel Plant constitute the universe of the present study. A few words, to clarify the reasons for selection of Bokaro Steel Plant for the present study, will be relevant.

The planners and the policy makers of India while drawing several five year plans for economic development of India realised that in order to accelerate the speed of economic development of India, it should concentrate more to the development of heavy industries. As such in first five year plan where they were more concerned about agriculture, in subsequent five year plans they started paying more attention to the need for having iron and steel industries. Which is prerequisite for any industrial development. even before independence India was producing steel and iron but it was largely confined to private sector. For example, Tata Iron and Steel Company (TISCO) was founded at Sakchi (Bihar) in 1907 and it started producing iron from 1911. Its initial capacity was one lakh tonnes of ingots a year. After world war-I, which created demand for more and better steel, TISCO plants was expanded to raise to the capacity of 4.5 lakhs tonnes of steel ingots a year which was doubled by the beginning of world war-II and finally it acquired the status of becoming one of the largest mills in the British empire. In terms of cost of production it was the lowest in the world. This was followed by the erection of steel industry in other parts of India

like Indian Iron and Steel company (IISCO, at Burnpur, West Bengal, Mysore Iron Steel Limited (MISL) in 1918 at Mysore, even ignoring the very principle of industrial locations.

A detailed history of the development of steel industry will clearly reveal that India steel industry developed only in private sector for more than six decades since the beginning of the present century.

Thus, there was need to bring this industry under the purview of public sector. For this reason and for overall economic development in India, Bhilai Steel plants in M.P., Rourkela steel plant in Orissa and Durgapur Steel Plants in W.B. were established. Bokaro Steel Plant was established on the initiative of the then Prime Minister, Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru with active collaboration of Russian government to fulfill this need. A detailed description of its inception will not be desirable here, but, it must be made clear that Bokaro Steel Plant, being the largest steel company of India, was great adventure undertaken by government in a public sector. This plant has therefore very wide horizon to expand and to prove the feasibility of running huge industry even in public sector organizational structure and it definitely provides a fertile and uncovered area for study like this.

Further, like other public sector steel plants i.e. Bhilai steel plant, Rourkela steel plant, Durgapur steel plant, Bokaro steel plant is also run and

controlled by steel authority of India limited (SAIL) under the terms of public sector Iron and Steel companies, restructuring and miscellaneous provisions Act, 1978, which follows a uniform recruitment policy. While recruiting the different grades of employees, there is preference for sons of the soil for unskilled workers only. All employees of other grades are recruited on the basis of the competitive examinations conducted by either SAIL or by Bokaro steel limited. All citizens of India with requisite qualifications are eligible to take this examination. This has resulted in drawing people from different corners of the country on its pay roll. The composition of the employees of Bokaro gives a cosmopolitan look.

And, thirdly the present investigator is more conversant with the land, people and the organizational structure of Bokaro steel plant which combined together facilitated the task of data collection.

And last but not the least, the phenomenon of work-culture has acquired great importance in view of India's resolve to go for rapid industrialization. Needless to say that industrialization demands a different kind of work-culture where the employees coming from agriculture rural background have to readjust themselves to a new work-culture. His final adjustment with the new social system which is the industrial system requires his successful readjustment and restructuring of work values.

Further, it is also said that Indians lack proper work-culture, they have weak commitment to work, etc. But, very few studies have been conducted to prove or disprove such hypotheses being suggested from different corners of the society from time to time.

For the above reasons, the present author decided to study the employees' commitment to work and its other related factors of the employees of Bokaro steel plant.

The word employees, 'worker' and 'labour' have been used in this study as synonyms. Although conventionally by the term employee is meant menial and clerical staff. According to Lester (1964), "employee is a general term meaning any person who works for an employer and in return receives compensation-wages, salary or other types of value". Further, in the present study the term 'worker' will be used for all categories of employees-manual, supervisory and managerial.

Feldman and Moore (1960), Sheth (1968) and Srivastava (1982) have also used this term in the same sense. Sheth (1968) writes, "the term 'worker' and 'labour' should be used in relation to the concept of commitment to cover all level of workers similarity including the management". To Feldman and Moore (1960), "the term worker includes not only the manual workers in factory operations but also the whole range of occupations appropriate to an

industrialised economy-clerical, managerial and professional".

A brief description of Bokaro Steel plant and its organization will help in the analysis of the data given by the employees of Bokaro steel plant.

LAND AND PEOPLE OF BOKARO STEEL PLANT:

Bokaro Steel City is located in a idyllic surroundings on the southern bank of the river Damodar with Ganga, one of its tributaries, meandering along the southern and eastern outskirts of the city on 10, 114 acres of land. On the north, the city is flanked by the high ranges of Parasnath Hills and on the south, just beyond the river Ganga- it is enveloped by the Satanpur Hillocks. The vast rolling topography of the city is interspersed by graded valleys and winding rivulets typical of Chotanagpur Plateau, where it is situated. In this setting within a short period of two decades a new city, with a strong multidimensional economic base, has blossomed into an urban centre of more than 3,00,000 people drawn from different parts of the country, thus making the city a MINI BHARAT. Bokaro is located on the Gomoh-Muri-Ranchi Railway line. Dhanbad, which is on Delhi-Howrah railway line, is only 50 kms. away and can be reached by road and rail easily. Ranchi and Jamshedpur are about 140 kms. away and are well connected by Road and Rail.

The Bokaro Steel plant was conceived as the country's first "Swadeshi" Steel plant to be built with maximum indigenisation going into the equipments, materials and know-how. Thus this project has been a radical shift from the earlier dependence on foreign sources for know-how and consultancy, design and equipment, supervision. Its first phase of 1.7 million tonne of steel commenced on 3rd October, 1972 with the commissioning of the first blast furnace and completed on 26th February 1978 with the commissioning of the third blast furnace. Many units of 4 million tonne stage have already been commissioned as on date. The 4 million tonne stage was expected to be completed by 1988 at the time of data collection and additional oxygen facilities. 3 x 60 M W. captive power plant units also were slated for completion in 1988.

Bokaro is designed to produce flat products like hot rolled plats, sheets and coils and cold rolled sheets, coils and galvanised sheets. It has already become a byword range, from the precision of its products. Its product range, from the most universal and basic to the most exclusive and sophisticated applications for industry-light and heavy, has won laurels. With further R & D efforts, it is preparing to launch newer and more specialised types of steel.

Bokaro has been the largest industrial project undertaken in the country and there are only a few

of this size in the world. The construction statistics of this plant are really staggering. The volume of concreting involved in construction of first phase i.e. 1.7 million tonne was more than the total concreting involved in Kosi, Nagarjuna Sagar and Bhakra dams put together and enough to lay a concrete highway of standard specifications from Calcutta to Madras, a distance of 2070 kms. The underground system inside the plant are long enough to link Bokaro with Calcutta. Likewise, the length of railway tracks within the plant perimeter would cover the same distance.

For promoting industrial activity a statutory body has been set up by the Bihar Government. In collaboration with the B.I.A.D.A. a number of small scale industries have sprung up since 1970-71. Out of 1985 S.S.I. units in Bokaro industrial Area, 47 units have been accepted as Ancillary, Materials worth Rs. 20 crores (Approx) per year are procured from BIADA Industries to meet the regular requirements of the plant.

The general plan of Bokaro Steel City covering 10,114 acres approximately provides for about 36,000 residential units. The city has full facilities for education with houses and schools dispersed in various sectors as is the following Table No.-5:1.

Table No.-5:1

Number of educational Institutions and their
management in Bokaro.

Institution	No.	Run and Managed by
1. Middle Schools	24	Bokaro Steel Plant.
2. Secondary Schools	9	Bokaro Steel Plant.
3. Plus two Schools	4	Bokaro Steel Plant.
4. General Schools	31	State Government, Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan and Social Organisations.
5. General Nursery School	30	Voluntary Organisations.
6. College	3	State Government and Voluntary Organisations.

In these educational institutions, there are 2044 teachers and 72,000 students.

The township has modern 625 bedded hospital with specialised units like Intensive Coronary Care Unit, Haemodialysis unit, Nuclear Medicine Lab. (using adio Isotopes), Intensive Burns unit, Special Care Baby unit, Phychiatry unit, Physiotherapy unit, Rehabilitation unit, etc. In addition to this hospital, there are also nine health centres located in various sectors of the township which provide health care to the community. This hospital is recognised by the Indian Medical Council for imparting training to housemen and interns and also by the Nursing Council of India for the training of student nurses. Bokaro

General Hospital has the distinction of being recognized by National Board of Examinations, New Delhi as a centre for the examination conducted by the Board.

The Bokaro Ispat Pustakalaya was set up in 1979 to cater to the reading needs of the employees of the Bokaro Steel Plant and their families. The collection of books is wide ranging and includes reading material in several languages and literature. It also has books on varied subjects. The Pustakalaya has a membership of 1953 and the number of books is around 25,000. There is a regular addition to this stock.

Apart from this, sector libraries have also been set up in community centres in Sectors II, III, VI, VIII, IX and XII.

Special mention may also be made of the magnificent City park with a total area of 143 acres. The artificial lake with boating arrangements, toy train, rose garden and the fountain garden are special attractons. Bokaro is famous for its Roses, Dahlias and Chrysanthemus and Annual Rose. Farms and Garden section is planning to provide such parks in every sector for the benefit of the residents of the respective areas. The turf of Mohan Kumar mangalam stadium has been completely renovated where every year sports events of national repute are held. Sapling of tall trees are being planted every where in the township to give a green look to the city and also for seaving the city

from air pollution.

A big orchard is developed in the township where tropical fruits will be available in due course. A lot of importance is attached to pisciculture within the Township which will apart from beautifying the City, will meet the demand of fish. Pisciculture wing also saves a large amount of money every year which was an inevitable expenditure for cleaning of water hyacinth from oxidation ponds and aquatic weeds from cooling pond No. I and II by processing the water from pisciculture.

Bihar State Co-operative Milk Fedration Limited and the Poultry Farm of the Animal Husbandry Department of the Government of Bihar have a capacity of 25,000 litres of Pasteurised and homogeneous milk in sachets daily and 1,00,000 eggs and 1,000 chickens per month to meet the needs of the city. But, supply being so meager in comparison to demands many private Khatahs (private dairies) and chicken centres have flourished in different parts of the city.

On commercial side, Bokaro Steel City has got well knit shopping centres, city shopping centre in sector IV and a big commercial complex at Chas. besides, a fleet of Guntis (a small cottage made by wood) can be seen every where in the city doing brisk business of daily consumer goods.

The city provides healthy source of entertainments and recreation. It has two clubs managed by the Steel Plant and five Cinema halls run by private parties. Many community centres are there to fulfill and provide a place to have get together programmes. The famous 'Basant Mela' is organised every year in the month of October. This fair exhibits the progress spheres with people from every nook and corner come to visit this mela and get relived from day to day tensions. The human side of Bokaro is equally bright. A number of schemes for employee's welfare are in operation which have few parallels in other industries of the country. To mitigate the hardships to a family following the untimely death of an employee, Bokaro has the Family benefit Scheme in which each employee contributes to a general fund rs. 7/- per month and a sum of Rs. 36,000/- is paid by the society to each widow/nominee of the deceased member and equal amount is paid to an employee who become permanently and totally disabled to perform his duty during his service. This is in addition to the money admissible under statutory financial benefits. Already rs. 2.65 crores have been disbursed to 700 beneficiaries.

Further, there is a voluntary group personal Accident Insurance Scheme for the supervisory personnel of the plant in which a sum of Rs. 1 lakh is paid by the Insurance Co. against nominal premium of Rs. 40.50 per member per year. Compensation is also payable for

total/partial permanent disablement. Besides every employee cover comprehensive Insurance Policy for Rs. 15,000/- irrespective of the cause of death.

Ten co-operative credit societies have been operating since 1978 for the benefit of the employees to help them in their credit needs. These are in essence thrift societies and employees have deposited Rs. 13 crores in savings with them.

Presence of Soviet Engineers with their families add colour to the social milieu of Bokaro. An active Mahila Samiti contributes considerably to fostering of close and friendly relations between the Indian and the Soviet families by organising common cultural functions, get-togethers and similar other activities which have become a part of the life-style of citizens of Bokaro Steel City.

The strength of the employees of Bokaro Steel Limited can be seen in the following Table No.-5:2.

Table No.-5:2

Man Power at Bokaro (Number)¹

	WORK		TOTAL	
	Exec.	Non Exec.	Exec.	Non Exec.
31.03.1974	799	9,492	2,083	28,073
31.03.1978	1,295	16,675	3,095	32,432
31.03.1988	2,400	31,068	4,295	47,144

1 Source: Annual Statistics various years, Bokaro Steel plant, Personnel Department, BSL.

In Table No.-5:2 it has been pointed out that the total strength of the employees working in Bokaro Steel Plant is about fortyseven thousand which is too large a universe to be covered by census method by an individual researcher within a stipulated period of time. Further use of suitable sampling technique may ensure a highly representative sample which may lead to same kind of conclusion that may desire on the basis of census study.

Sampling method in this case also will provide more intensive and indepth data. Therefore, it was decided to use sampling method in selecting individual respondents for intensive interview.

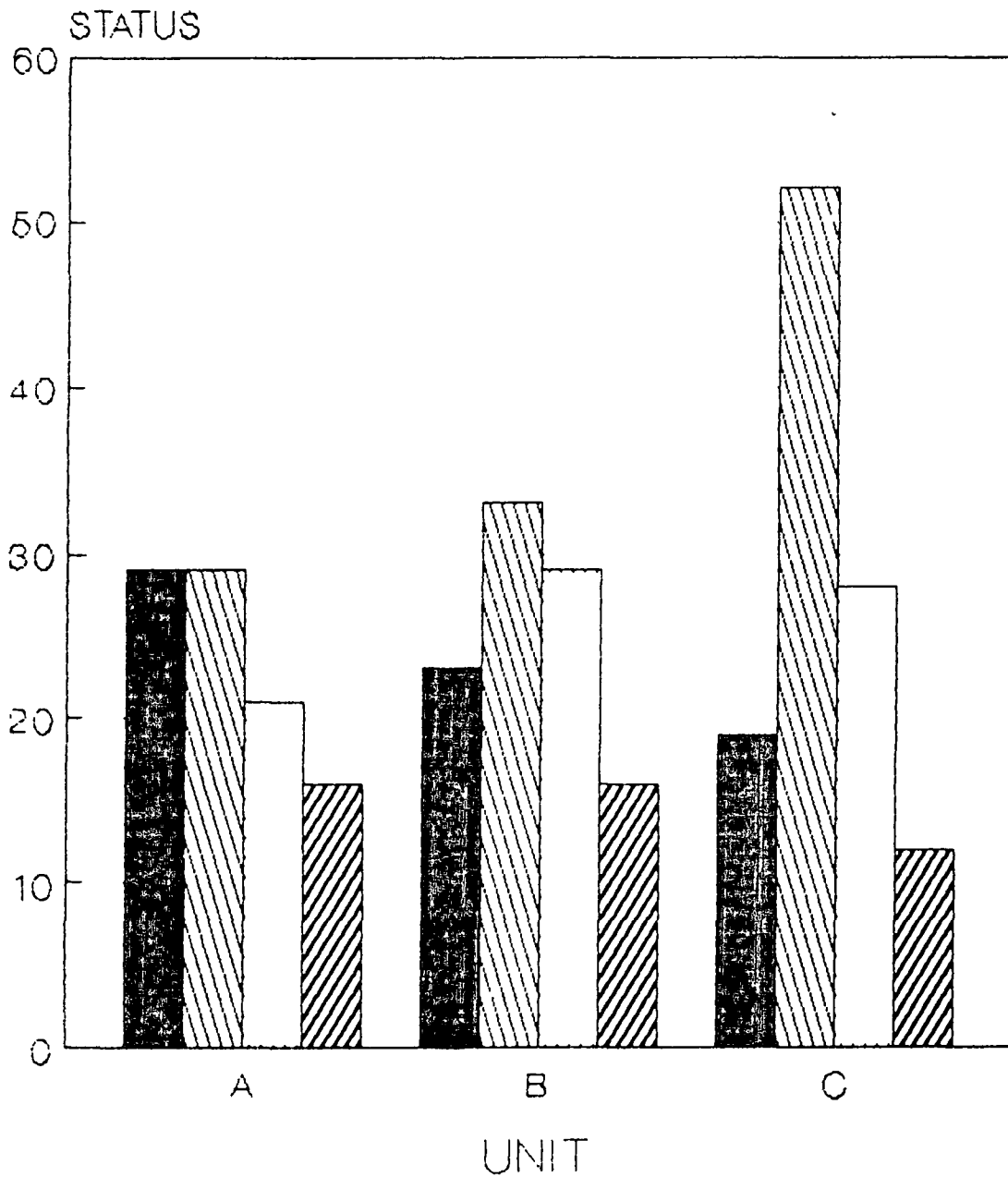
PROCEDURE OF SAMPLING:

It has already been mentened that Bokaro Steel Plant is broadly composed of seven major units mainly,

- (i) Coke-oven plant.
- (ii) Sintering plant.
- (iii) Blast furnace.
- (iv) Steel Melting Shop.
- (v) Hot rolling mill.
- (vi) Cold rolling mill.
- (vii) Foundaries and others.

These units have inequal number of employees. In respect of number of working employees the S.M.S., Blast furnace and Coke ovan are relatively bigger units.

STATUS & UNITWISE DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE



Executiv Supervis Skilled Unskilled

A-SMS & Sint , B-C.Ov & BF, C-CRM & Othr

Therefore, it was decided to select the number of respondents keeping in view the size of the units in the selection of the individual respondents. Systematic regular interval method was used without any bias. The number of respondents selected from different units are given below:

Table No.-5:3

Status and unitwise distribution of the sample					
Plant	Executives	Supervisory	Skilled	Unskilled	Total
S.M.S. & sintering	29 (40.84%)	29 (25.43%)	21 (25.92%)	16 (34.09%)	95 (30.64%)
Coke oven & B.F.	23 (32.39%)	33 (28.94%)	29 (35.80%)	16 (34.09%)	101 (32.58%)
C.R.M. & other	19 (26.76%)	52 (45.61%)	28 (34.56%)	12 (27.27%)	114 (36.77%)
Total	71 (22.90%)	114 (36.77%)	81 (26.12%)	44 (14.19%)	310

AGE COMPOSITION :

In the present sample majority of workers belong to young age group. The following Table No.-5:4 reveals the details in this regard.

DISTRIBUTION OF AGE

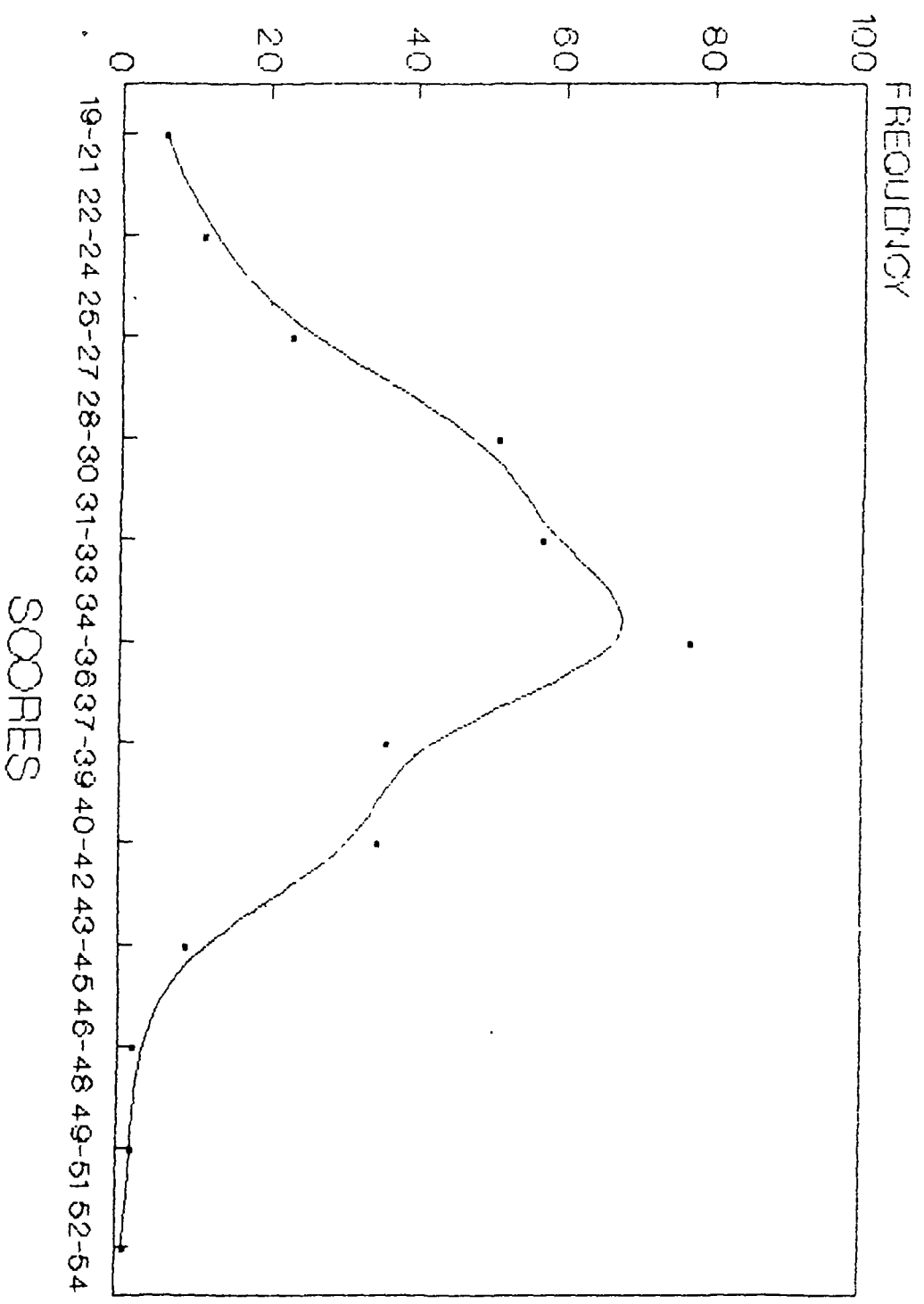


Table No.-5:4

Age distribution of respondents

Age groups (In years)	No. of workers	Percentage (%)
Young age (19-31)	113	36.45
Middle age (32-36)	110	35.48
Aged workers (37 and above)	87	28.07
TOTAL	310	100%

It is evident from the above table that a majority of workers in this industry belong to the younger age group. It appears that newly started industries even in large public sector especially those demanding technical specialization are attracting comparatively younger age-workers.

All the employees in the sample were male. As no female is employed in the works section of the plant, data were collected only from male workers.

In spite of heavy industrialisation and fast growth of urban centres, India still remains predominantly to be a rural country. Even in the Metropolies and cities the majority of the population have rural socialization background at early stage. The table no.-5:5 explains the urban rural background of the sample more clearly.

Table No.-5:5

Rural-urban background of workers		
Background	No. of Workers	Percentage (%)
Rural	200	64.51
Urban	110	35.49
TOTAL	310	100

Due to lower literacy rate in India and lack of specialised training, it is expected that the factory workers will generally constitute of uneducated or moderately educated people. This becomes more inevitable also because of the dependence of work force supply from rural area. But the analysis of the present data doesn't reveal this state. There might have been a shortage of educated workers in the past but now it appears that industries at times have workers with high education than most of the industrial units are prepared to use. The Table no.-5:6 clarifies this contention more clearly.

Table No.-5:6

The Educational level of the respondents		
Educational level	No. of Workers	Percentage (%)
Lowly educated	140	45.16
Highly educated	170	54.84
TOTAL	310	100

From the above Table No.-5:6 it becomes evident that there is no dearth of educated people in the sample. 54.84% of the respondents are highly educated while 45.16% are lowly educated. The data shows one basic fact that no respondent is illiterate in the present sample. It is generally seen that workers who are displaced and doing menial jobs are mostly illiterate (Dasgupta: 41). But the present sample negates this fact and shows that factory workers are fairly educated. In other words, factory work is able to attract workers from a fairly educated stratum of society.

When analysed on the basis of the span of service it was found that out of 310 respondents 103 (33.23%) are serving the plant since 1-6 years, 138 (44.52%) since 7-12 years and 69 (22.25%) since 13-18 years. Thus, the maximum number of respondents 44.52% have a moderate span of service.

METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION :

A bird's eye view of the objectives of the present study (see chapter-IV) reveals that the main concern by this study is to discern the commitment to work as a dependent variable. Obviously the dependent variable has certain independent variables. In this case, age, demographic factors, rural-urban differences, etc. have been treated as independent variables. Therefore, in this kind of

study it is imperative that the study be so planned that one can establish relationship between independent and dependent variables. In order to achieve this end two things must be fulfilled; first, that the method of data collection should be such which may allow the researcher to penetrate into the respondents' mind regarding his views on the given problem. And secondly, that the researcher must have appropriate tools to measure the given phenomenon quantitatively. In order to explore the underlying relationships between different aspects of the given phenomenon keeping these two major considerations in mind, it was logical to decide in favour of using structured interviewing which has been considered very appropriate method for collecting primary data in a face-to-face situation. Although interviewing is a time consuming process of data collection, it was preferred to other methods because it provides rich and reliable data. Since the data are collected in a face-to-face situation, the respondents are less likely to evade the questions and are more sincere and are generally found more co-operative and attentive in recording their reactions and views. Thus individual structured interviewing was used for data collection from the workers selected in the sample. The researcher used to approach the respondents preferably in the morning at their residences. Since the workers had to rush to the work shop most of them could not give time in the plant itself. The researcher met them in the plant and

also at their residences as per their convenience. However, majority of the respondents have given their interview in the plant. Normally the interview was conducted individually and at the time of interview none else than the researcher and the concerned respondent used to remain present. This was necessary in order to ensure free and frank conversation on the topic.

On average it took one hour time in completing the interview with one respondent. In most of the case, the interview was completed in one sitting but in some cases the interview was interrupted by occasional interruptions made by the supervisor of the worker. Some times the interviewees (workers) had to go to attend more urgent work and in such cases the investigator had to postpone the interview either for next day or for few hours on the same day. In such cases the interview used to take longer time in its completion.

The respondents used to have some kind of reservations with regard to the purpose of interviewing. Some used to have doubts regarding confidentiality of their responses and therefore hesitatingly responded to the request for interview. Such situations were tackled by the investigators by giving ample evidences that the investigator is actually a teacher-scholar associated with Patna and Bhagalpur University. He had nothing to do with the management of Bokaro Steel Plant and assured the

respondents that the data supplied by them were to be used for academic purpose alone. In order to ensure anonymity, the personal names, etc. Which were likely to divulge their identity were not asked for. The strategy used to work effectively and in most cases the respondents appeared to be honestly cooperating with the investigator in completing the interview.

As is obvious from the sample the interviewer interviewed the male respondents only.

The interview was conducted with a printed interview - schedule consisting of several scales to measure different aspects of commitment, etc. Quantitatively .

The interview schedule was broadly divided into three parts. The first part consists of nominal scale to measure the demographic and background variables of the respondents. These variables were treated as independent variables at the time of analysis.

The second part consisted of scales to measure the respondent's commitment to work, job - satisfaction, alienation and their organizational commitment. .

The third part included items and statements to explore the family culture of the respondents. Attempt was made to record the details of their absenteeism and the number of accidents they have met but one could not record satisfactory informations on these two points.

SCALES USED :

JOB-SATISFACTION SCALE :

One of the important objective of this studies to reveal the underlying relation between job-satisfaction and commitemnt to work. Sinha's (1974) job satisfaction scale was used to measure respondents job-satisfaction.

This scale has ben constructed on a similar propulation and is available in Hendi versin besides the reliability coefficient of the scale being. 905 is satisfactorily high. A.K. Sinha has used this scale in the study of job-satisfaction of the bank employes and found it to be suitable.

The original job-satisfaction scale constructed by Sinha. Consists of 30-items. But, 17-items out of thirty only have been used in the present study.

The shortening of the scale was necessiated because the use of the job-satisfaction scale in its full form in addition to other scales could have made the interview schedule lengthy and tiresome to the respondents. The present investigator, therefore, dropped such items which were very much similar to each other. Items having high power of descrimination were retained. (For details, cf. Sinha, 1984)

MEASUREMENT OF COMMITMENT TO WORK :

Probably no suitable scale in Hindi is available to measure the commitment to work.

In view of the limited time available to the present investigator it was not advisable to construct a scale to measure commitment to work. Therefore, it was decided to use a bunch of suitable items to measure commitment to work in consultation with ten sociologists working in the field of measurement. ten-items were used to measure work-commitment. All items were in Hindi for the sake of clear understanding. (See Appendix).

Of the ten, seven are positive and three are negative items. Each item has five alternative responses from highly agree to highly disagree. The items were read one by one to the respondent and he was asked to respond to the item from highly agree to highly disagree. For example, if he is highly in agreement with the statement he has to say highly agreed and so and so forth. The responses were scored from 1 to 5. The respondents total score was obtained by summing the scores on individual items. Thus the possible scores ranged from 10 to 50. Through in strict sense these 10-items don't constitute a scale, however, there is no harm in quantifying the responses relating to work-commitment.

MEASUREMENT OF SOCIAL ALIENATION:

In order to measure the social alienation of the respondents, 18-items (See Appendix) were used. These items consisted of the three dimensions of alienation i.e. powerlessness, isoaltion and normlessness. The items were in Hindi and were given in random order. Of the eighteen items, Six consisted of isoaltion items, Six powerlessness items and Six worklessness items. Responses were given in a five point continuum category ranging from highly agree to highly disagree. For positive items the scoring was done by giving 5 points to highly agree response, 4 to agree response, 3 to neutral response, 2 to disagree response and 1 to highly disagree response. For negative-items the scoring was done in reverse order. The respondents total score was obtained by summing the scores on individual items. Thus the possible scores ranged from 18 to 90. These eighteen items were originally developed by Sinha, G.S. (1982) and were used by Sinha, A.K. (1984) in his study of job-satisfaction. In his study the reported reliability of the total alienation scale was 78 when corrected.

MEASUREMENT OF COMMITMENT TO ORGANIZATION :

5-closed end items were used to measure commitment towards the organization. Five alternative responses were given to each of the respondent to select one appropriate response for each item. Of five items one was

negative and four were each item seperately postim. The
scoring was done for each items seperately.

PART - III

CHAPTER-VI

Social Background of the
workers and their
Commitment to work

SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF THE WORKERS AND THEIR COMMITMENT TO WORK

A cursory review of studies on work-commitment (See Chapte -III) reminds us that several scholars have tried to discern the underlying relationships between the personal background variables of the workers and their commitment to work. In this context two things are very clear:

- (i) different Scholars have included different variables as background variables,
- (ii) their results are not unanimous.

They better in their conclusions. For example, Sharma (1974) has found no relationship between commitment to industrial work and religion, caste, age, marital status and number of children. Obviously he has included five variables under the category of background variables whereas Gupta (1982) and others have included education and experience also in the background variables. Each of them has tried to give logic to justify his conclusions. Lack of unanimity in their findings has necessiated to re-examine as to whether there is any relationship between the workers' background variables and their commitment to work.

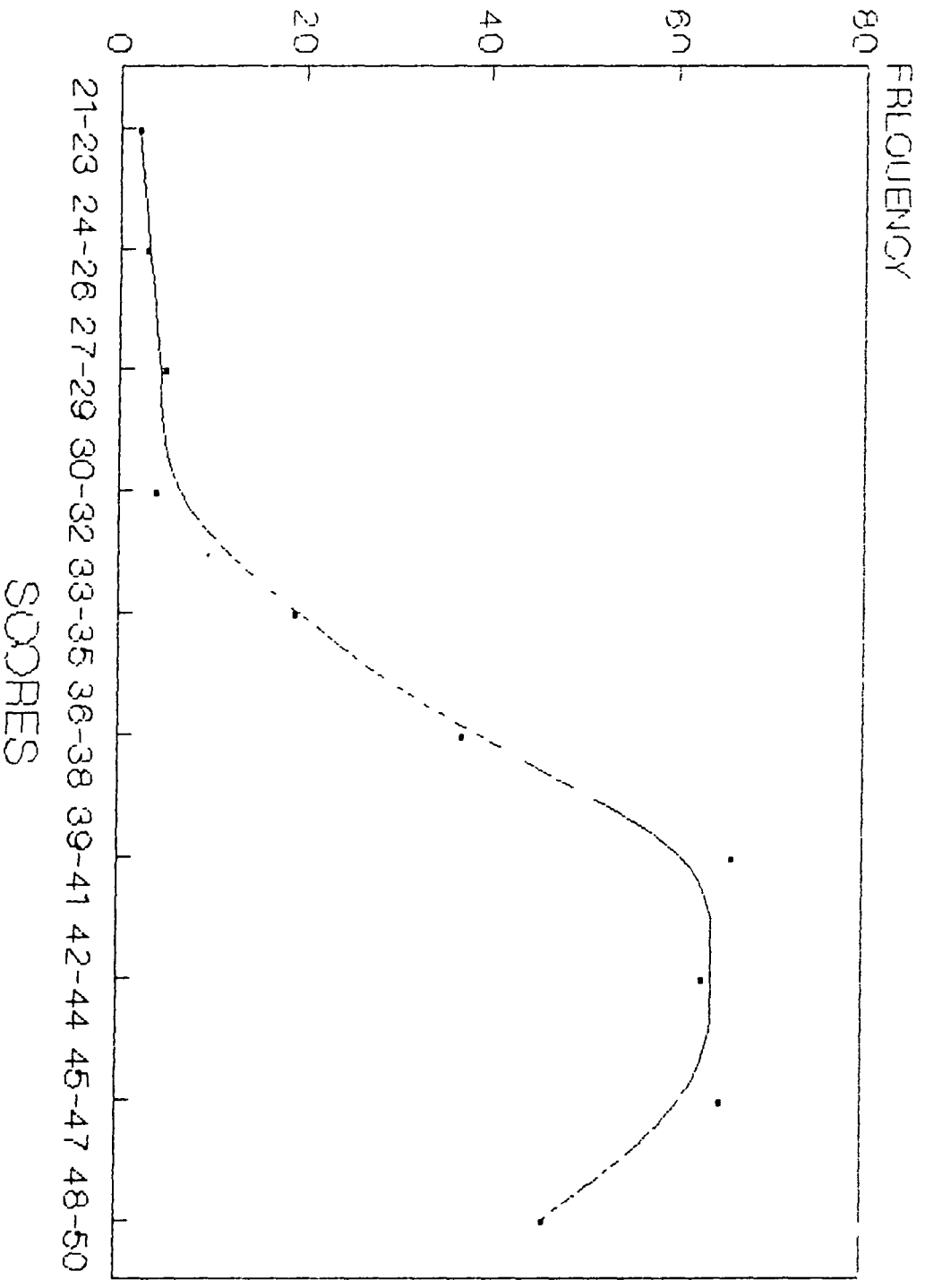
In the present study age, education, family orientation, and rural-urban background of the workers have been treated as background variables which are supposed to influence workers' commitment to work.

The underlying relationship between these variables will be discussed one by one in the following paragraph.

Although Sharma (1974) has found no significant relationship between age and commitment to industrial work and has concluded that age does not influence commitment. But, it appears that age provides important reference point which influences the perception of work. Human values undergo changes at different stages of life. These are bound to influence human experiences. Similarly, human experiences also differ from one stage to other which are found to influence his perceptions, attitude toward work and attitude toward life itself. In fact, age provides the time span where values and attitudes change. Therefore, it appears logical that age must be influencing the workers' commitment to work.

In order to explore the relationship the workers' commitment scores have been compared with their age distribution. The respondents of this study have been categorized in three; young age, middle age and aged. Workers falling below the 3rd percentile have been designated as young workers, above 33 but below 66

DISTRIBUTION OF COMMITMENT SCORE



percentiles as middle age and workers above 66 percentile as aged workers. Similarly, workers have been classified on the basis of their commitment score in three categories, highly committed, moderately committed and lowly committed. Therefore, the data have been presented in 3 x 3 contingency table and Chi-Square value was computed to establish whether the relationship between age and commitment is statistically significant or not.

Table No.-6:1

Age and commitment to work							
Work Commitment Score	Young age group	Middle age group	Aged	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at .05 level
Highly Committed	34 (39.54%)	29 (33.72%)	23 (26.74%)	86	10.35	4	Significant
Moderately Committed	47 (42.34%)	33 (29.73%)	31 (27.93%)	111			
Lowly Committed	32 (28.32%)	48 (42.48%)	33 (29.20%)	113			
Total	113	110	87	310			

From Table No.6:1 it is ceystal clear that the difference in the distribution on the basis of age and commitment to work is statistically significant. The Chi-Square value is significant at .05 level. It suggests a significant association between age and commitment to work. But, the relationship does not appear to be very strong. A minute observation ofthe table clearly suggests that the

workers comparatively at young age are more committed than when they attain middle age or old age.

Among the highly committed workers 39.54% which is the highest percentage of committed workers belong to the young age group where only 33.72 and 26.74 percent only belong to middle age group and aged groups respectively. Similarly among the moderate committed workers 42.34% which is the highest percentage belong to the young age group. Coming to the lowly committed workers, one finds that 42.48% of the workers belong to the middle age group. The suggestion being made from the table is that at the young age the worker is more committed, at the middle age there is a decline in the percentage of committed workers. And, by the end of the middle age, it stabilises. The percentage of lowly committed workers of young age group and aged group is by and large equal. It may be interpreted as if the experiences gained by the workers through the varying age moderates their commitment to work. At young age they are more enthusiastic to excel themselves but with the passage of time their enthusiasm declines due to various kinds of work experiences and ever increasing stress and strain in their personal and family life. Besides this relationship between age and commitment may be analysed in terms of nature of service condition and the incentives available to different categories of workers. Many of the young age workers are temporary or on probation. In order to

complete this period more satisfactorily they have to be more sincere and conformist to the rules and to the requirements of the factory. In the later phase of middle age and also in the old age the workers start feeling that their services are very much secured and the management can not harm them even if it so desire. Many workers of the middle and old age category reported that even if they work very sincerely they are not going to be rewarded because they have got all that they can in the factory. Reportedly there is not enough incentive for being very sincere and committed to work. A kind of a feeling of saturation starts emerging in their minds at this stage of industrial life. This probably explains the decline in the strength of commitment to work with the growing age of the workers. This finding is also supported by Sheth (1968), Fukani and Larson (1984), Gupta (1982). However, they have tried to explain this relationship between commitment and age in terms of high morale of the workers. They argue that comparatively, the young workers have high morale than the workers of old age. Our contention is that the cause of the provision for incentives to work and need for security, etc. the young workers keep their morale high. The old workers perceive work not as rewarding as perceived by the young workers. The middle aged workers are generally found to be strained due to economic and family burden at this stage of life which affects their commitment to work negatively. Besides this,

these persons are further prone to frustration due to various factors such as lack of promotional avenues, lack of motivational factors, monotony, etc. All these result in low commitment to work. In the present study also among the lowly committed workers majority belong to middle age group. Juxtaposite, Japanese workers of middle age group are found highly committed and have been labelled as workoholic. In a nation wide survey conducted by Prime-Minister's office in Japan in March, 1989, it was found that children born just after world war-II who have reached in their middle age at present, work most committedly irrespective of any working conditions.

Sharma (1974) did not find significant relationship between commitment to industrial work and worker's social background factors. The following Table presented by him may be relevant for a comparative analysis with the present study.

The relationship between commitment to industrial work and Social background factors.

	χ^2	P	d. f.
(a) Religion	0.336	<.90	2
(b) Caste	0.381	<.90	2
(c) Age	4.125	<.20	2
(d) Marital Status	1.472	<.50	2
(e) No. Of Children	4.188	<.20	2

FAMILY ORIENTATION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

Family is one of the most powerful agencies of socialization which influences its members attitude, beliefs and values significantly. It inculcates work culture among the members which ultimately determines member's level of commitment to work. It therefore has been considered an independent variable affecting the worker's level of commitment to work. Maxweberian sociologists have tried to explain the low economic growth of Indian people. They opine that basically the Indian societies and social institutions are commitment to work and need-achievement among the workers. Family at the grass root level is the chief agent to inculcate the elements of work culture which may promote the emergence of strong commitment to work. The logical end of this line of argument will be that the tradition oriented family will not be strongly reinforcing the elements of commitment of work than the families having modern orientations. The following two questions were asked to identify family orientation:

1. Whether in your family old traditions and customs are given more preference?
2. Is any discrimination made in imparting education rearing and sociolizing sons and daughters in your family?

Respondents responding in affirmative were considered to

belong to tradition oriented family and those who responded in negative were considered to belong to family having modern orientation.

The Null hypothesis developed to discern the relationship between family orientation and commitment score is that there is no difference in commitment scores of workers of tradition and modernity oriented families. To test this hypothesis a 3 x 2 contingency table has been prepared. The data have been presented in Table No.6:2.

Table-6:2

Relationship between commitment score and workers' family orientation

Commitment Score	Traditional Oriented Families	Modernity Oriented Families	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at .05 level
High Commitment	54 (28.13%)	32 (27.12%)	86	1.801	2	Insignificant
Moderate Commitment	73 (38.02%)	38 (32.20%)	111			
Low Commitment	65 (33.85%)	48 (40.68%)	113			
Total	192	118	310			

There is slight defference in distribution of the workers in different categories. 28.13% of the tradition oriented families (T.O.F) and 27.12% Modernity oriented families (M.O.F.) are highly committed workers. Difference between two categories of workers appears to be meagre.

Similar is the case if one compares the scores of moderate & low categories of workers. The Chi-Square value obtained is insignificant at .05 level of significance which means that there is no association between family orientation and the commitment scores of the workers. Thus the Null hypothesis is retained.

It suggests that the Indian traditions and modernity have equally strong elements which influence commitment to work. Geeta emphasizes on action. The actor is responsible for action. The true 'Dharma' according to Geeta and Hindu mythology is to perform one's assigned role without caring for the result. Man is directed perform the role according to his status with utmost sincerity and honesty. Similarly, the Indian saints while explaining the elements of true religion have clarified that the true religion lies in the honest performance of roles assigned to an individual by the society. In philosophical sense no role has been rated inferior or superior. According to Hindu mythology role performance is more important than the role it self. Role performance empirically is equivalent to commitment to work. The motto work is workship is not alien to Indian tradition and belief. In the concept of modernization also due emphasis has been given to work. The studies conducted on Japanese population are relevant here. Cases of American and European societies too are relevant. In spite of heavy urbanization and industrialization the

traditional values of dedicated work are still predominant among the Japanese workers. They have become so workoholic that many workers don't want even to marry because it would affect their work-attainment. They don't perceive their company as such objective entity with which one has contractual relationship rather they consider it as their own like their family. The extension of the family idea to industry also leads the Japanese worker to refer to the person of his employer and often to his immediate superior as 'Oyaji' literally a term used by an adult son to refer to his father (Dubin, 1970). Thus, in Japan many aspects of traditional social systems have promoted worker's commitment to work. American culture represents modern culture. The dedicated and hard work is actually seen as the root cause behind the progress and prosperity of American also. People in America undertake work in high esteem and they work with full dedication. No person can be seen unnecessarily gossiping, Smoking or relaxing while at work. They are becomes obvious that traditional or modern values donot differ on work ethics and work-commitment. Both type of orientation stress on hard and dedicated work.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

Educational background of the individual makes an individual evaluate his work and its importance in the society. Vaid (1968) observed educated and skilled

workers as better adjusted. Sharma (1971) also assumed that level of education promotes commitment. Against this background, the education is considered to be an important determinant of commitment to work. Theoretically, education as a mode of socialisation refer to the systematic teaching of values and skills required for participation in an organization. However, it specifically refers to those learning experiences which occur outside the organization in which the individual will eventually participate' (Maanen, 1976). Generally the scope of educational process is broader than the role requirements of a particular organisation. Caplow (1964) states, "the educational institution prepares its students not for a particular socialising experience, but for a vast number of such experiences with similar requirements. Socialization to the so-called professional organizations relies extensively on this method. Abramson (1967) notes that professional education creates strong identifications. In fact he feels that an individual's sense of identify becomes intimately tied t his professional role. Miller and Wager (1971) reported that "a professional's role orientation (i.e., local cosmopolitan mixture, indifferent) was dependent upon the length and type of education he received prior to joining". Education in all societies is linked with work situation where an individual is to participate finally. During the period when the child is most pliable, and extending through early adulthood for

those capable of learning high-level skills, society devotes considerable resources to the socialization of its young citizens for lifetime of productive work through educational institution. In all societies formal education is tied directly to the preparation of the youngster for a productive role in the society. At the most basic level of education, desirable behaviour for a worker is reinforced discipline, regular attendance, obedience to authority, responsiveness to a defined role in relation to rules and valuing of self in terms of what is accomplished or produced. The modern need for higher skills means that a premium is put upon education in the labour market. More education and training become necessary in order to avoid a surplus of underdeveloped people and a shortage of highly developed people. "The need for an educated work force with high level skills has increased the demand for multiprofessional employees. These are people trained in two or more professions or intellectual disciplines, such as engineering and management and law or accounting. Since these people are competent in more than one discipline, they are able to perform some of the integrative work required by modern work system". (Davis, 1985).

Thus, the importance of education among the industrial workers lies in the fact that different jobs require different human abilities. For example, some demand mental alertness, concentration, visual acuity, others,

physical strength, most acquired skill or special knowledge. Not all workers will have the abilities required to perform a particular job but only a qualified worker can do it.

Thus while education induces mobility, it also helps in developing commitment by way of help in making adjustment with the work environment easily. Modern skilled work demands a certain level of education without which complex machine operations are difficult to perform. Further, in modern times education is the most important variable in occupational selection. The level of education determines the exposure of the worker to a wider social existence and his adjustment to the demands of the work.

Even against this background, it has been assumed in the present study that formal education does not affect workers' work-commitment. Socialization process and cultural ethos inculcate work-values and work culture among the workers. If a person has learnt to perceive work as a task to be performed dedicatedly, sincerely and in a best possible way, he will be a committed worker and will enjoy doing hard work irrespective of his educational attainment. Hence, a highly educated worker may be found least committed to work while a person with lower educational background may be found highly committed.

Thus, it has been hypothesized that cultural ethos and values inculcated during socialization influence work-commitment rather than formal education.

Therefore, the data were divided into two categories of lowly educated and highly educated among the workers of the sample. Then to test this hypothesis and to find out the relationship between educational background and work-commitment, the data were plotted into 3x2 contingency table. Thereafter Chi-Square value was computed to find out the relationship between the two. As is evident in the following Table NO. 6:3 Chi - Square value suggests significant relationship between educational background and work-commitment in the present study. This finding is supported by the studies of Ritzer (1970), Shrama (1974) and Vaid (1968). But, Gupta (1982) did not find significant relationship between educational background and commitment to work.

Table No.-6:3

Educational background and commitment to work

Commitment Score	Low Education	High Education	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at .05 level
High Commitment	46 (53.48%)	40 (46.52%)	86	10.801	2	Significant
Moderate Commitment	57 (51.35%)	54 (48.65%)	111			
Low Commitment	37 (32.74%)	76 (67.26%)	113			
Total	140	170	310			

This can further be observed from the above table no.6:3 that although there exists significant relationship between educational background and work-commitment, the distribution of the data suggests that with the increase in the level of education commitment decreases. As is evident in the table, among the highly committed workers majority 53.48% are having lower educational background where as the representation of the workers of higher educational background is less only 46.52%. Among the moderately committed workers also majority 51.35% belong to low educational background and a lesser percentage 48.65% are from highly educated group. At lower level of commitment as high as 67.26% of the highly educated workers show low commitment to work but in comparison to them only 32.74% workers with low education are placed among the lowly committed workers.

Thus high level of education is not associated with high commitment rather it is associated with low commitment. But, low education is associated with high commitment and not with low commitment. To compare with the findings of Sharma (1974) his observation in this context can be sighted. As he observes, "high and low commitment are not two sides of the same coin. If education is taken as index of commitment it was found that workers with low education showed low commitment but highly educated workers did not show high commitment". Hence, while Sharma found low

commitment at both higher and lower level of education, in the present study low commitment is at higher level of education and not at lower level of education. Workers with lower educational background are comparatively more committed. Behind this finding the reason can be attributed to the fact that highly educated workers have high expectations from their job. They evaluate their job in terms of their educational attainment and in that process get frustrated. This results in their lower level of work-commitment. But, workers with low education donot aspire much. They are generally concerned with good pay and some other facilities. They are aware that they have got what they deserve. This reason may show to be logical but the most important fact which can be derived from the present finding is that level of education does not influence commitment to work. Hence, the hypothesis that formal education does not influence work-commitment is supported by this finding.

To conclude, the findings of the present study show significant relationship between educational background and commitment to work. But, high education is not found to be associated with high commitment rather low education is associated with high commitment.

RURAL-URBAN BACKGROUND AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

Analysis of work-commitment on the basis of rural-urban background is of basic importance for the scholars of Industrial Sociology because birth place, early socialization, community of origin are important factors for an individual. They shape his value pattern and determine his reactions towards various issues. Right from Moore and Feldman (1960) till now, most of the scholars have emphasised the need for the analysis of work commitment on the basis of worker's rural-urban orientation, In this context one view (classical school of work commitment) was regarded for many years as the chief explanation regarding commitment to industrial work. This approach suggested that workers belonging to villages in India are not committed to work. Moore and Feldman (1960), Myers (1960), Lambert (1963) and Sheth (1963) all have explained that committed workers have adopted industrial urban way of life, completely severed his connection with his native village and travel background. He is fully urbanized and never expects to leave his industrial life. It is pointed out that during last three decades the opportunity to employment in urban areas have pulled a large number of people from the rural areas. However, when a person comes from a rural area with rural values, belief-pattern, etc., he may face a new set of values and norms in the new urban setting where he has to work. This may not be congruent with his earlier values.

This creates strain and conflict resulting in discontentment among the employees. And, this discontentment may result in low commitment to work.

Myers' (1960) contention in this regard is that workers with village background are less committed than the workers with city background. He argues that, "these Indian workers (with village background) want to have their cake and eat it too, they are partially committed to factory jobs in that they regard them as more or less permanent jobs which can be interrupted (but not lost) by periodic visits to the village".

But, a good number of industrial sociologists have contradicted the above opinion and have viewed that pressure on land has forced the villagers to seek work in the expanding industrial cities permanently, which has helped in developing committed industrial labour force in India. Morris (1960), for example, reported that Indian workers should have no problem of work-commitment chiefly due to their village background. He wrote, "historical evidence indicates that the transformation of a rural traditionally organised population into a committed industrial labour force has not been socially difficult in India. The desperate poverty of the country side made available a larger labour supply that was eager to move into industry as opportunity appeared. Once employed in the factories, the workers on the whole rather readily adjusted to the disciplinary

requirements of mechanised industry". Gupta (1982) in his study of public sector undertaking at Varanasi found that village workers consider industrial work equal to others, hence, the question of low commitment among village workers does not arise. Similarly Reynold and Gregory (1973) in their studies about Puerto Rican workers have observed that, "One can say that the rural population has adapted to the industrial order so readily because it had no prior commitment to any other order". Sharma (1974) found that rural-urban background has very little influence over work-commitment.

In the present study the hypothesis has been advanced that commitment to work is the product of the socialization pattern and transmission of cultural values among the group members. In such circumstance living background of an individual does not influence work commitment. In most part of Indian culture the values of dedicated and honest working have been propagated through folklores, folktales, dramas and through many informal ways. In our culture even a butcher's work was taken in high esteem if done with a view of social service. All these examples are related with informal ways of the transmission of values and represent values of rural set up. In urban societies formal ways generally influence value orientations. Thus, in no way rural workers can be expected to be lesser committed to work than urban workers. In

contrast rural workers may come out as more committed than urban workers due to inculcation of high work values from the very beginning at the early stage of socialisation when they are made to perceive devotion and commitment to work i high esteem.

In the above context, the objective of the present study is to find out the relationship between rural-urban background of the employees and their commitment to work.

For this purpose, the respondents were asked to mention their community of early socialization in the place where he comes from village Sub-urban or a town. For the categorization of the data on the basis of the place of early socialization, the workers belonging to Sub-urban were also categorized as urban.

Hence, they were divided into two groups. One belonging to rural area and another belonging to urban area. Then the data were placed in a 3 x 2 contingency table and a Chi-Square test was conducted to find out the statistical significance of the relationship between rural-urban background and commitment to work. The Chi-Square value obtained showed insignificant relationship between rural-urban orientation of the workers and their commitment to work. Hence, it has been established in the present study that there is no relationship between rural urban living and employees' commitment to work. This finding is supported by

Gupta (1982) who also did not find significant relationship between rural-urban background and work commitment. But Sharma (1974) found significant relationship between the two.

The prevalent notion that rural workers are not committed workers is further nullified if the distribution of the data is examined as shown in the following Table No.6:4.

Table No.6:4

Rural-urban orientation and commitment to work						
	Urban	Rural	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance
Highly Committed	28 (25.45%)	58 (29%)	86	2.919	2	at 0.05 level Insignificant
Moderately Committed	35 (31.82%)	76 (38%)	111			
Lowly Committed	47 (42.73%)	66 (33%)	113			
Total	110	200	310			

From data in the above Table it can be observed that urban orientation is associated with low work commitment while rural orientation is associated with moderate work commitment. This finding contradicts the findings of Moore and Feldman (1960), Myers (1960), Lambert (1963), Srivastava (1981) who observed that urban orientation is associated with high work commitment and rural with low work commitment. In the present study the

Table No.-6:4 suggests that majority of urban workers 42.73% are lowly committed, 31.82% are highly committed. But, among the rural oriented workers majority 38% are moderately committed, 33% are lowly committed and 29% are highly committed. This finding suggests that if rural orientation is not associated with high commitment it is not associated with low commitment as well.

Therefore, the findings of the present study supports our hypothesis that cultural transmission of values influences work-commitment and not the lace of early socialization. It again proves to be wrong that urban background is congenial for commitment to work and rural orientation is a hindrance in this respect. Had it been the influence of urban orientation on determination of level of commitment to work, the workers of the rural area should have been at low level of commitment in the present study. But opposite to this rural workers are comparatively more committed both at higher level and moderate level of commitment than urban workers.

Thus, on the basis of the above discussion in this Chapter it can be concluded that among the four background variables age, family orientation, education and rural-urban background, two-age and education have significant relationship and the other two-family orientation and rural urban background have insignificant relationship with commitment to work in the present study.

Young age workers are more committed than middle age and aged workers. Workers having family orientation dominated by tradition are more committed than workers having family orientation dominated by modern values. It has been found formal education does not influence work-commitment and rural orientation is not hindrance in the way of higher commitment. This is so because workers with low educational background are more committed than the workers with high educational background and those having rural orientation are more committed than the workers having urban orientation.

CHAPTER-VII

Organizational and the
Background variables and
Commitment to work

ORGANIZATIONAL & JOB BACK-
GROUND VARIABLES & COMMITMENT
TO WORK

The economic rewards are important to employees and income relationships carry immense social value. Management has not always recognized their social importance to workers. In the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, employees were supposed to want primarily money; therefore, money produced direct motivation-the more money, the more motivation. Roethlisberger and his followers () successfully buried this idea by showing that economic rewards are operated through the attitudes of workers on the social system to produce an indirect incentive. Economic rewards are carriers of social value.

Thus, money is important to employees for number of reasons. For example, it is valuable as a medium of exchange because of the goods and services that it will purchase and for allocation of economic resources. However, money also is a social medium of exchange. It is important as status symbol for those who have it and can thus save it, spend it conspicuously, give it generally. Money does have status value, when it is being received and when it is being spent. It represents to employees what their employer thinks

of them. It is also an indication of one employee's relative status compared with that of other employees. It has about as many values as it has possessors. (Wernement, et al, 1972).

Thus, income of a worker is considered to be very important factor determining his commitment to work. A worker evaluates his job and his abilities in terms of the income he receives from it. In the present social context too a job is evaluated in terms of the economic rewards one gets from it. Although, in terms of real committed worker, intrinsic values matter and it gives rise to commitment which is genuine. As Punekar (1977) puts it", the workers who has intrinsic values of commitment does his best under any conditions because he feels a personal satisfaction by doing his best irrespective of the existing conditions. Still, studies have shown that workers value rewards more than anything else. It is especially felt about workers in industry that they consider industrial jobs remuneratively more attractive than non industrial jobs.

The industrial mode of production originated in England about more than two half centuries ago and proved so immensely successful that it has since spread all over the world absorbing, transforming or destroying all other types of Society in the process. Industrialism is based on the application of scientific knowledge to the technology of production, enabling new energy sources to be harnessed and

permitting machines to do the work that was previously done by people or animals. It is highly efficient subsistence-Strategy for it allows a relatively chiefly because it produces so much wealth. This is why people expect much income from their industrial job. Thus it becomes important to analyse the commitment to work in terms of the workers' income from the job (Rolustson, 1977).

Factors like economic fluctuations and economic cycle are indicated as important elements of commitment to work (Srivastava, 1982). Economic considerations are so important that it lead to unstable work commitment. One may change his job for several reasons. In her sample, Srivastava (1982) found that "shift from one job to another is not to go back to the village to work on job to another is not to go back to the village to work on farm. It is not for any nostalgia for village life. Movement is not from industry to non-industry either. On the contrary, it is from one industrial job to another in search for better opportunities. Economic gains account for as much as 60% of the shifts". This evidence seems to reject the earlier reports that workers respond feebly to European countries (Report of the Indian factory labour commission, 1908). Economic factor appeared to be strongest motivation in job mobility. Further, the view that mere continuance in factory job symbolises commitment to work has been negated vigorously on the economic grounds also. As Punekar (1977) puts it, "We

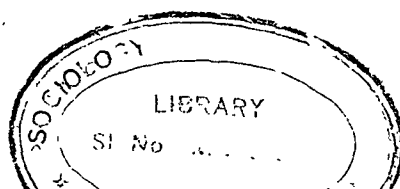
do not have empirical data on the value structure of the Indian work force to show whether the Indian worker is committed to industrial employment or not in the intrinsic sense. However, economic measurement to some extent makes a worker committed or uncommitted to the work".

Pressure and frustration due to wide unemployment together with poverty and wide gap between the rich and the poor emphasise in worker's mind towards economic gain from the job which ultimately increase commitment to work.

Hence, considering income to be very important factor determining commitment to work, the objective of the present study is to findout relationship between employees' income and commitment to work.

In this context the hypothesis was formulated that the employees who are in higher income groups are more committed to work than those who are in lower income groups.

In the present study by income is meant the pay workers are getting for participating in the work system. "pay accrues to positions and includes such terms as income, salary, wages, earnings within the cntext of the industry for worker. As such, it has three main aspects. First, pay is often considered interms of its amount, and then, whether or not it is equitable compensation for conditions of assignment or task allocation. Second, pay can be judged according to the formula and methods used to



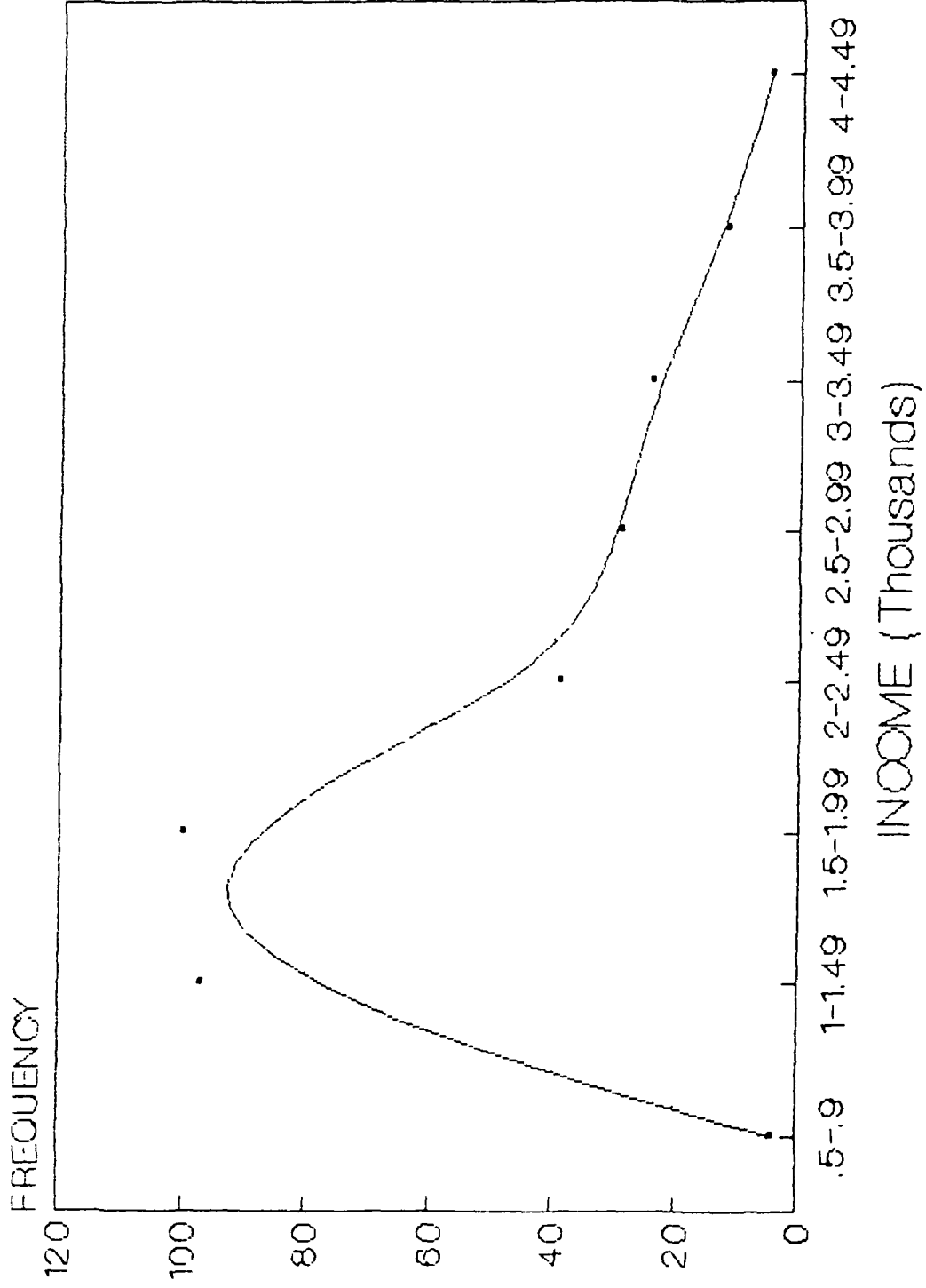
compute the amount and to give it to the individual, ie. share of profit, bonus, frequency of raises or increments. Third, pay can be considered as an instrument, ie. enough to live on to enjoy economic advantages and to make financial adjustments" (Herzberg et al: 1957).

In order to test the hypothesis the data have been obtained in terms of the employees' overall income from the work itself. In order to analyse relationship between income and commitment to work the data of income have been grouped into several class intervals, which is shown in Table No.-7:1. The frequency polygon has also been plotted in a graph.

Table No.-7:1

Income Distribution. (In rupees per month)	
Income range	No. of respondents
4000-4499	5
3500-3999	12
3000-3499	24
2500-2999	29
2000-2400	39
1500-1999	100
1000-1499	97
0500-0999	4
N = 310	

DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME



Then to divide the distribution into three categories of low income group, middle income group and high income group, the 33 p and 66 p of income score has been computed. On the basis of the findings of 33 and 66 percentile the employees earning upto Rs. 1499 permonth have been categorised in low income group; from 1500 to 2999 in middle income group and Rs. 3000 and more in high income group.

Then a 3 x 3 contingency table was plotted to test the significance of income and commitment to work among three categories of income groups along with workers of high commitment score, moderate commitment score one low commitment score. The details are plotted in the following Table No.7:2.

Table No.-7:2

Income and Commitment to work

Level of work	Low Income group	Middle Income group	High Income group	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance
High work commitment	32 (31.68%)	49 (29.16%)	5 (12.19%)	86	9.88		Significant
Moderate work commitment	38 (37.63%)	60 (35.72%)	13 (31.71%)	111			
Low work commitment	31 (30.69%)	59 (35.12%)	23 (56.10%)	113		4	
Total	101	168	41	310			

The above mentioned table no. 7:2 indicates that there is significant relationship between income and commitment to work.

Further for the convenience of interpretation the percentage for different income groups has been calculated. As is evident low income group is associated with moderate level of commitment as majority (37.63%) among them are represented in this category. The degree of high commitment (31.68%) and low commitment (30.69%) is almost similar among the workers of this group. Thus, it becomes clear that if low income is not associated with high commitment, it is not associated with the low commitment either. The Percentage of highly committed workers among middle income group is the least (29.16%). In this income group, the moderately and lowly committed workers are almost equally represented i.e. 35.72% and 35.12% respectively.

The high income group is by and large associated with low work-commitment as 56.10% workers in this group are having low work-commitment. The moderately committed workers are comparatively low 31.71% in respect of the workers of other income groups. Among the high income group 12.19% workers are highly committed to work. If this level of high committed is compared with other income groups, it becomes clear that this income group is less committed than other groups. Therefore, it can be derived that high income does not induce more commitment and it

can't be taken as an index of high commitment. Thus, following the above explanations, it can be said about the findings of present study that no income group is highly committed. Majority among low-income group is moderately committed while majority among high income group is lowly committed. Thus, our hypothesis that high income is associated with high work-commitment is not retained.

In nutshell, our finding shows that although there is significant relationship between income and commitment to work, it is wrong to hypothesize that employees who are in higher income groups are more committed to their work than those who are in lower income groups. Besides this, the present study suggests that in comparison to two extremes of high and low income groups, the middle income group workers are more committed.

The present finding is supported by Vaid (1968), Srivastava (1977), Ritzer (1974), Gupta (1982) and Lincoln & Kellberg (1985) as all have found significant relationship between income and commitment to work. On the contrary, Becker (1960) and Sharma (1974) found no relationship between the two.

If the findings of other scholars are analysed in this context, it can be seen that Ganguli (1954) found in his study of an enquiry into the incentives for workers in an engineering factory that income is important consideration one expects from his job. To quote him "four

most important things that the workers want are sufficient and adequate income, a sense of security, an opportunity for promotion and advancement".

Srivastava (1979) took wage incentive as index of commitment and hypothesised that "the uncommitted worker does not respond to wage incentives". But contrary to his assumption, he found that a very high percentage of respondents 73 out of 173 (42.20%) considered pay (income) very important factor determining commitment. The two important indices of commitment were found related with income for example, a good number of respondents, revealed that they changed their jobs to earn more money and secondly that monetary incentives were important incentive for job satisfaction 141/173 in order to attain commitment. And, Srivastava finally concluded that juxtapsite his proposition" blue collar workers do seem to and are likely to respond to monetary incentives.

Obviously, the hypothesis of the present investigation has not been found true, but the studies of Vaid, Suri and Joshi, Biesanz and Biesanz, Lincoln and Kalleberg support our hypothesis. Vaid (1968) found that 'good pay ranks first in the workers expectations. Similarly Suri and Joshi (1984) found that salary incentives and performance bonus played an important role in creating positive attitude in commitment of workers. This view is further supported by Biesanz and Biesanz (1969), according

to whom, "the cohesion of a group rests ultimately on the willingness of its members to remain within it and contribute to it. The more members feel they have some thing important in common with others (a sense of belonging) and the more satisfied they are with the rewards of participation as compared to the costs of living the more highly committed they will be". Similarly, Lincoln & Kallberg (1985) in their studies of Japanese and U.S. workers expected that earnings (income), an extrinsic inducement would bear little relation to commitment. But in both samples they found the opposite. They concluded that income registered small positive increaments in the commitment of Japanese and Americans alike".

To sum up, various studies show that income and work commitment are significantly related. In the present study also the same was found to be true. But contrary to our hypothesis that level of income is concomitant to level of commitment, the study revealed that high income does not influence high commitment.

OCCUPATIONAL STATUS AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

Many factors together contribute to the development of commitment among industrial workers, the chief among them is occupational status. It is generally expected that workers with higher level occupations tend to be more committed with their jobs. They usually are better

paid and have better working conditions, and their jobs make full use of their abilities, and their jobs make full use of their abilities; therefore, they have good reason to be more committed. The result is that managers and professional usually are more committed than skilled workers who tend to be more committed than semi-skilled and unskilled workers.

In this context Sharma (1974) points out that higher occupational status has more control over the work process and the workers with low occupational status generally do repetitive and routine work. Therefore he reported, "when the job provides to the worker a sense of meaning and control over the work process he is likely to feel committed to industrial work. On the other hand jobs involving routine and repetitive operations and providing no meaning, control or discretion to the worker are likely to cause lack of commitment". Dubin (1976) has also explained that various research on industrial workers have implicitly recognized that there are functional difference between workers and managers and that at these differing levels of occupations, the relation between man and job are very different indeed influencing the level of work involvement.

Theoretically, Schnider (1971) is of the view that in any industry occupational role is one of the major basis of status to occupation which individuals hold in industry and which tend to confer certain amounts of status in the community also. There is a rough correspondence

between the scale of income and occupational prestige. Similarly, those occupations with a relatively high prestige are associated with higher amounts of education. Thus in so far as status is reflected or symbolized by income and education, the occupational structure in any industrial system constitutes a hierarchically arranged status system. As Schneider (1977) puts it, "in general managers and some technicians occupy high status positions. Most technicians occupy high status positions. Most technicians, white collar workers, foreman, and atleast some skilled workers occupy middle status positions. The mass of semi-skilled and unskilled workers occupy rather low status positions in the community. Thus to some degree managers on the one hand and the workers on the other hand tend to accord with their positions on the status scale". This status position may influence the commitment of the different categories of workers.

Following the above theoretical background, the workers of the Bokaro Steel plant are also placed in hierarchically arranged status system. In the present study the respondents have been divided into four categories of unskilled, skilled supervisory and managerial workers according to occupational status.

It has been assumed that workers having supervisory and executive (managerial) status in the job are more committed than unskilled or skilled (blue collar jobs)

workers, With this hypothesis, the objective of the present study is to find out whether any significant relationship exists between occupational status and work commitment or not. For this purpose, the data were tabulated on the basis of occupational status into the three categories of commitment level. To find out the statistical significance between occupational status and work commitment Chi-Square test was applied. The Chi-Square value shows significant relationship between occupational and status and work-commitment. The following table no.7:8 explains the data clearly.

Table No.7:3

Occupational status and Commitment to work

Work-Commitment Score	Unskilled	Skilled	Supervisory	Managerial	Total	X ²	d.f.	Level of Significance
High work-commitment	15 (34.09%)	28 (29.16%)	29 (12.19%)	14 (19.72%)	86	14.945	6	Significant at .05 level of significance.
Moderate work-commitment	19 (43.18%)	31 (38.28%)	41 (35.97%)	20 (28.16%)	111			
Low work-commitment	10 (22.73%)	22 (27.16%)	44 (38.59%)	37 (52.12%)	113			
Total	44	81	114	71	310			

The present finding regarding the relationship between occupational status and work commitment is supported by the studies of Ritzer (1974) who also found significant relationship between occupational status and

work commitment. Similarly Vaid (1968) also reported that job status of the employee is one of the most important institutional determinants of their adjustment to work. But contrary to our finding Gupta (1982) reported statistically insignificant relationship between the two.

Although the relationship between occupational status and work -commitment has been found significant, the distribution of the data does not support the hypothesis of the present study. Contrary to our hypothesis the data suggests that with the increase in the occupational level commitment to work declines with the decreases in the occupational status commitment increases. As shown in Table No.-7:3 unskilled and skilled workers are more committed than supervisory and managerial workers and this is evident at every level of commitment whether high, moderate and low. Among the managers, majority 52.12% are lowly committed, 28.16% moderately committed and least among them 19.72% are highly committed. The same is true for supervisory workers also as majority among them 38.59% are lowly committed, then 35.97% are moderately committed and only 25.44% are highly committed. But, among the unskilled and skilled workers majority are moderately committed 43.18% & 38.28% respectively, then are the workers with high work commitment 34.09% & 34.56% respectively. Among these workers the least are lowly committed 22.73% and 27.16% respectively. Thus, the data explains that high occupational

status is associated with low commitment and not with high commitment, while low occupational status is associated with high commitment.

If the present finding is compared with that of others it becomes evident that Sharma (1971) has reported that executives in public sector undertaking face acute work commitment problems. Likewise, Morris (1961) found that blue collar workers are strongly committed.

Vaid (1968) indicated that higher job status contributed to greater adjustment to work. But, Sharma (1974) supports the findings of the present study in regards to high status job but contradicted it in regards to low status jobs. As reported by him "workers with low status jobs were found to have low commitment but workers with high status jobs did not show high commitment either.

Finally to conclude it has been found that present study there is significant relationship between occupational status and commitment to work also that higher job status is not conducive to higher level of work-commitment.

SPAN OF SERVICE AND ITS RELATION WITH COMMITMENT TO WORK:

A worker's Span of service is directly related with his experience to work life. it is generally assumed that age is directly related with length of service.

A young worker is generally considered less experienced and the old one as more experienced, but it may not be true in all cases. years of experience in a line of activity discourage a change in career. Long service entitles the worker to many advantage, risk of loosing the job inhibits change in his behaviour. Therefore, it can be expected that highly experienced will also be highly committed workers. Hence, it can be said, 'the longer is the worker's tenure, the deeper is his attachment to work'.

It is an accepted fact that with the passage of time in work place, one gets experience and expertise gradually. After some time the worker is related with the plant and his work psychologically to such an extent that he considers himself as a part and parcel of the plant and work situation. he understands the importance of his contribution to the work place. This sense of feeling which generally develops in the experienced workers leads him to do the work more dedicatedly. He considers the loss of his plant as his personal loss and the gains of the plant as his personal gains. This attachement and dedication leads in high commitment to work.

As Karsh (1976) puts it "length of service can be an index of his achievement and the skill he acquires is not transferable to any other work place or to any other company. Length of service also determines the timing of promotion".

I.L.O. in its report (1983) has distinguished between experienced worker and inexperienced worker in order to explain the importance of experience. According to the report, 'It has been observed that among the attributes which differentiate the experienced worker from the inexperienced are the following.

The experienced worker -
achieves smooth and consistent movements;
acquires rhythm;
responds more rapidly to signals;
anticipates difficulties and is more ready to overcome them;
carries out the task without giving the appearance of conscious attention, and is therefore more relaxed".

Thus it can be said that commitment is not a priori but develops after a durable association with a particular occupation. Without experience commitment is difficult to develop because there is no substitute for experience as far as knowledge of work and its other aspects are concerned. After an initial period of trial and error one finally settles in a job. Seniority to some extent becomes an indicator of work-commitment. Lambert (1963) also viewed that seniority distribution could be directly translated into indices of commitment. Hence, Span of service is an important factor determining work commitment.

It has been hypothesized that the employees who have comparatively longer tenure of service are more committed than the newly appointed workers. Job security, promotion and better facilities may be reasons behind this. With this hypothesis, the objective of the present study is to explore the relationship between Span of service and commitment to work.

Since Bokaro Steel Plant under study is not very old, there is lesser number of workers in the factory having very long experience like other steel plants such as TISCO or ROURKELA, etc. Workers selected in the sample had maximum of 18 years of service.

To analyse the data at first, the data regarding span of service were grouped into several class intervals as shown in the following table no.7:4.

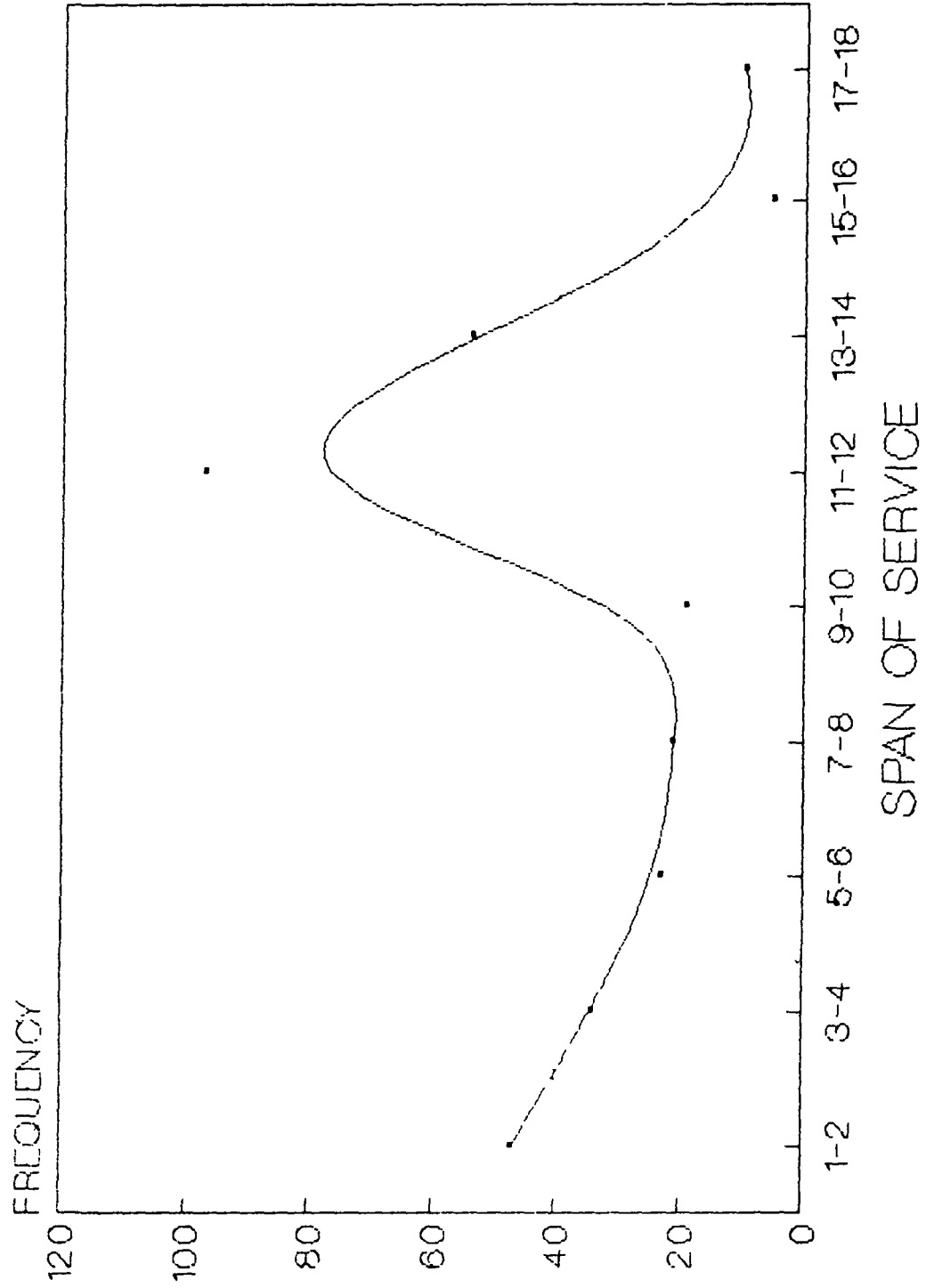
Table No. 7:4

Span of service (in years) scores

17 - 18	10
15 - 16	5
13 - 14	54
11 - 12	97
9 - 10	19
7 - 8	21
5 - 6	23
3 - 4	34
1 - 2	47
N = 310	

After that the scores regarding span of service were categorised into three categories of workers

DISTRIBUTION OF SPAN OF SERVICE



with short span of service (1 to 6 years), moderate span of service (7-12 years) and long span of service (13-18 years) by obtaining 33 P. and 66 P. of the data. Thereafter, a 3x3 contingency table was prepared to place the respondents of the three categories according to their commitment score into highly committed workers, moderately committed workers and lowly committed workers. The details have been shown in Table No.-7:4.

Table No.-7:5

Span of service and Commitment to work

Commitment Scores	Short Span	Moderate Span	Long Span	Total	χ^2	d.f.	Significance at .05 level
High Commitment	34 (33%)	36 (26.08%)	16 (23.18%)	86	6.18	4	Not Significant
Moderate Commitment	41 (39.81%)	45 (32.61%)	25 (36.24%)	111			
Low Commitment	28 (27.19%)	57 (41.31%)	28 (40.58%)	113			
Total	103	138	69	310			

The above Table No.-7:4 points out that the Chi-square value computed shows insignificant relationship between span of service and commitment to work. Hence, there is no relationship between the two. Gupta (1982) also did not find statically significant relationship between experience and work-commitment.

The table further suggests that with the increase in span of service, the commitment has decreased. This can be explained on the basis of the fact that among

the short span workers 33% are highly committed, among the moderately experienced workers the high commitment level declines to 26.08% while among the workers with long experience, it further declines to only 23.18%.

Here again, it can be observed that long span of service is associated with low work-commitment while short span of service is associated with moderate commitment but not with low commitment. This is evident from the fact that in the present study majority of the workers among both categories of moderate experience (41.31%) and long experience (40.58%) are lowly committed whereas only 27.19% among short span workers are lowly committed. So far moderate commitment is concerned, it is more among the workers with short span of service (39.80%) than the workers with moderate (32.60%) and long span (36.23%) of service.

The present finding is in consonance with our earlier findings on the basis of age. The earlier findings showed that in the present study young workers are more committed than aged workers. Here, age can be taken as directly related with work experience and likewise workers with short span of service have been found more committed than the workers of long span of service. The reason behind the high work commitment among the workers with short span of service may be the individual's attractions and charms with the organization at the time of joining it making him highly involved and committed. After few years of tenure the

initial easy going habits tends to fade which leads to lesser commitment.

The present finding is supported by the findings of Lambert (1963), Lincoln and Kalleberg (1985), Lambert (1963) did not find seniority and labour turnover as indicator of work commitment. Similarly Lincoln and Kalleberg (1985) reported that employee tenure failed to show the expected positive links to commitment and morale.

But contrary to the findings of the present study, a good number of investigations reported that with the increase in the span of service the level of commitment to work increases. For example, Gupta (1982) found that increase in the amount of experience is positively correlated with level of work-commitment. Lorence et al. (1981) also explained substantial support for the, "occupational socialization hypothesis" that 'work experience stimulates work-commitment'. Similarly Yogendra Singh (1978) in his study of teacher's commitment observed that senior teachers tend to be high and junior teachers tend to be low on commitment.

Finally, on the basis of the above findings and analysis it can be concluded that in present study relationship was not found statistically significant between span of service and commitment to work. And, contrary to the hypothesis workers with short span of service were found more committed than workers with longer span of service.

PROMOTION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK:

Promotion is the very important aspect in a Worker's job career. Opportunity for promotion constitutes an important variable in work commitemnt. To the extent a worker perceives favorable chances of promotion, he tends to be committed to the job assigned. Promotion means higher wage, higher greater prestige and greater self-satisfaction. Theoretically, there exists a possibility of continued vertical mobility in all formal organisations. But, for workers, the promotional process is really meaningful only in terms of mobility within the executive-professional heirarchy of an organisation, But increasingly, 'it has become extremely unlikely that a person will move from blue collar or low level white-collar position to the executive professional heirarchy of the organisation' (Hall, 1969). Success ideology of modern professionalism needs to culminate in mobility in the form of higher promotions. Thus, promotion prospects give chance for the enhancement of job as well as social status. Every worker after serving the organization for sometime desires to move vertically at upper ebb. By giving promotion the worker's dedicated and good works are recognised by the authorities, this feeling in worker's mind encourages dedication to work. Thus, 'the relationship between restrictions and advancement within an occupation is throughly functional' (Caplow,1954). In this context, Vroom (1978) reported that, ' the level of

performance of individual workers is related to the extent to which they believe that their chances of receiving a promotion are related to their level of performance on their job. If workers are indifferent to receiving a promotion, or if they expect their chances of receiving it are independentt of their level of performance, they will perform less effectively than if they desire a promotion and believe that their chances of receiving it are directly related to their level of performance.

Whatever the criteria of promotion, Vaid (1968) considered promotion as most expected opportunities among workers. Similarly, Punker (1978) has observed that 'promotion is the important job condition through which a worker evaluates his position in the job market' Srivastava (1982) also reported that 'in majority of cases workers take industrial occupations as a permanent employment. May be initially they enter industrial work due to lack of available choice in a labour abundant economy like ours. But once they get into a job they continue to remain in it. They develop new aspirations. It is through these aspirations they want to improve their lot. They feel growth, development and promotional opportunities should be available within the factory". As reported by Srivastava (1982) promotion in her study was one of the most wanted desire by majority of the workers.

March and Simon (1958) also had implicit assumption that promotions are desired and that workers will strive to perform effectively in their jobs if they expect that by doing so they will increase their chances of receiving a promotion.

In contrast, lack of promotional opportunities or denial of it encourage frustration and alienation among the workers. They are no more attached to the work place or job. They just carry on the work taking it as a means of sustaining their life and for maintaining their family and social responsibilities. Lack of promotional facilities may make the workers absence-prone and their morale and job satisfaction may become low. All these encourage low level of work commitment.

One of the reasons behind high commitment of Japanese workers are smooth promotional avenues. For example, in only company a regular Koin assigned to his first job is given the status of a third class workers. After more than six years of service, as rule he moves up to become a second class Koin, in ten years he become a first class Koin, and after 25 years he is eligible to be promoted to upper class Koin status. A fuku kocho (assistant chief worker) is appeared from among the second and first class Koin and Kocho (Chief Worker) from the upper-class Koin group. Thus this is why promotion is considered most important than any other factor. It is evident from the

studies of polityaka (1971) that 61% workers considered promotion more important.

In the above background, one of the important objective of the present study was to find out the relationship between promotion and commitment to work. In this context, it was expected that the employees who have sufficient promotional avenues and are being promoted from time to time are more committed than the workers having no or very meager promotional opportunities.

In order to achieve the objective, the respondents were divided into three categories. The first category consisted of 66 such workers who were not promoted at all, the second category was of those 170 workers who got upto two promotions, and third category of 74 workers who got upto four promotions. To find out the relationship of promotion with work commitment, the different categories of workers divided on the level of promotions were grouped into three classess according to their high, moderate and low scores of commitment. Then a 3 x 3 contingency table was constructed to find out statistical significance of the relationship between promotion and commitment to work through X² test as shown in the following Table No.-7:6.

Table No.-7:6

Promotion and Commitment to work

Commitment Score	No Promotion	Moderate Promotion	High Promotion	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at at .05 level
High Commitment	20 (30.31%)	49 (28.82%)	17 (22.98%)	86	1.305	4	Insignificant
Moderate Commitment	24 (36.36%)	59 (34.71%)	28 (37.84%)	111			
Low Commitment	22 (33.33%)	62 (36.47%)	29 (39.18%)	113			
Total	66	170	74	310			

The above Table No.-7:6 shows that there is no statistical significant relationship between promotion and commitment to work on the basis of the Chi-Square test.

The data in the Table further suggests that promotion is not a factor inducing high commitment to work. Contrary to this, workers with no promotion are more committed than promoted workers. As is evident from the table no.-7:6 among the highly committed workers majority 30.31% are from those workers who have got no promotion ; 28.82% workers are those who have got moderate promotion and only 22.98% are those workers who have got maximum number of promotions. Here we find that with the increase in the level of promotion the level of work-commitment has declined.

At moderate level of commitment to work workers of each category divided on the basis of promotion

almost represent identical representation as is obvious from the Table no.-7:5.

But, again at lower level of commitment majority (39.18%) are those workers who have got-maximum promotions. Then are placed (36.47%) those who have been moderately promoted and least (33.33%) are the workers who have got no promotion. Therefore, the data suggests that promotion is not associated with high commitment to work in the present study. Majority among those who have got more promotion are lowly committed but those who have got no promotion are moderately committed.

The present findings negate our hypothesis that workers with more promotions should be more committed than those with little or no promotion.

The present finding further resembles our earlier findings in regard to age, education and income where we found that higher age, higher education and higher income did not show high commitment rather they showed low commitment. Thus, it can be induced that like high education and high income high promotions also can not be taken as an index of high commitment to work.

The present findings lead us to derive the reasons behind the present result that among the workers who have got no promotion, majority must be of young age and among those who got maximum promotions majority must be aged. Those factors which were responsible in the present

study behind the high commitment of young age workers and low commitment of aged worker must be again influencing the level of commitment in the same way (See Chapter VI).

Hence, finally it can be concluded on the basis of the above findings and analysis that promotion is not conducive to work commitment. It has not even statistically significant relationship with commitment. And, the hypothesis that commitment to work increases with promotion is not true in the present study. Hence, promotion cannot be considered important factor determining work commitment. Promotion was taken as most important factor by the respondent in the study of Srivastava (1977) as 69% respondents had ambition to go up in hierarchy.

Contrary to the present finding Sharma (1974) found that promotion helps in the enhancement of work commitment. He observed, 'as the industrial workers moves up in the occupational hierarchy, his commitment to industrial work increases'.

Vroom (1978) also notes that 'our society has often been described as one in which great importance is attached to promotion and advancement'.

PHYSICAL WORKING CONDITIONS AND COMMITMENT TO WORK:

Physical working condition in a factory is considered to be an important factor influencing commitment to work.

According to Blum and Naylor (1968) unfavourable environmental conditions supposedly contribute to a slowdown of the employee's activities and production. They allegedly increase turnover, promote high absenteeism, and generally contribute to inefficiency. Therefore, there is no doubt that people generally prefer pleasant to unpleasant surroundings and that when attention is paid to creating a favourable working environment as well as to actual job performance methods, over all pleasantness prevails. Good working condition was preferred by all categories of workers in comparison to supervisor, coworkers, hours of work, etc. in the study conducted by Jurgensin (1978). Similarly Schneider (1979) has pointed out to one school of thought in industrial sociology, which feels that wages are of little importance and that what the worker wants above all are pleasant physical and social conditions at work.

Dealing with it Schneider (1979) observes that physical working condition due to various reasons may cause strains among workers. He explains that " strains have risen as a result of the discrepancy between these realities in the worker's situation, on one hand, and his desire for independence, for pleasant physical conditions at work, for an opportunity to set the pace of work, for a chance to use his own ideas on the job and for a chance to gain small distinctions, on the other. These strains, in turn, have

resulted in monotony, fatigue and the loss of a "sense of work-manship", or the loss of opportunity for individual creativity". If viewed seriously, it seems that all these may affect the worker's commitment to work.

In the present study physical working conditions, place of work, machines of production and work technology have been considered as synonymous terms.

In this respect, Blauner (1964) has given several reasons as to why work technology should affect worker's commitment :

- (i) Technology more than any other factor, determines the nature of job tasks performed by blue collar employees.
- (ii) The technological setting limits expands the amount of freedom and control that a worker exercises in his immediate work environment.
- (iii) The machine system largely decides whether the worker can become directly engrossed in the activity of work or whether detachment and monotony more commonly result.
- (iv) Since technological considerations often determine the size of an industrial plant, they markedly influence the social atmosphere and degree of cohesion among the work force. Technology also structures the existence and form of work groups in this way influencing cohesion.

(v) Technology largely determines the occupational structure and skill distribution within an enterprise which are the basic factors in advancement opportunity and normative integration.

Work technology as defined by Blauner (1964) is "the complex of physical objects and technical operations (both manual and machine) regularly employed in turning out the goods and services produced by an industry". Walker's (1962) analysis of work technology is similar to Blauner's.

Defining work environment Dubin, Hedle and Téveggia (1976) write "the environment, defined in operational terms, refers to any portion of the life-space of the person with which he interacts in behavioral terms. This may be an institution, an industry, the locale of residence, the work group, the equipment and machinery with which work is accomplished, or even parts of the worker's own body. The search for linkage between persons and their work will, therefore, center upon those aspects of the work environment, broadly conceived, in which some voluntarism exists with regard to their own working behaviours".

Thus, on the basis of the above discussions, it becomes clear that physical condition of work is a wide concept which denotes place of work, machines of production and work technology.

As already explained about the universe, in steel production, the production process undergoes through

several plants such as coke-queen, sintering plant, blast furnace, steel melting shop, cold rolling mill and hot rolling mill, etc. These plants, although, interrelated and interdependent in production process, differ sharply in matters of work environment, work technology and product. Workers in some of these plants are exposed either to large intensity of heat or to huge density of dust or both depending upon the nature of the plant. But interestingly enough, there are also such plants and working place which are neither exposed very much to fire nor to dust. In steel production, work technology also differs from plant to plant. In some plants, there is greater degree of automation, whereas in some, manual labour matters much. In some production plants, such as S.M.S. and blast furnace, a greater and higher degree of technical skill is involved than others.

In this circumstance, due to such differing conditions of physical working conditions, such as work place and work technology, it has been assumed in the present study that persons working in different plants also differ at commitment level. Hence, the worker performing their work in difficult physical condition should have lesser work commitment than workers performing duties at comfortable physical condition. With this hypothesis the objective of the present study is to find out whether any relationship between physical conditions of work and

commitment to work exists or not.

For this purpose, the data was divided into three groups according to the similarity of the nature of the plant. The first group consisted of 95 workers from steel melting plant and sintering plant (both plants with high dust); 101 workers from coke oven and blast furnace (plants with extreme smoke and heat) and 114 workers from those plants related with less hazardous physical condition such as cold rolling mill, hot rolling mill, service and foundaries. After grouping the respondents according to their place of work, a 3 x 3 contingency table was prepared to plot the data. After computing the commitment level of the workers of different plants, Chi-square test was conducted to findout the relationship between physical working conditions and work-commitment. The details can be seen in the following table no.-7:7.

Table No.-7:7

Physical working condition and commitment to work.

Commitment	S.M.S.+ Sentering plant	Coke oven + Blast furnance	C.R.N.+ HRM + service + Foundaries	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High work- commitment	37 (43.03%)	28 (32.55%)	21 (24.42%)	86	12.89	4	Significant
Moderate work-commi- tment	31 (27.93%)	39 (35.14%)	41 (36.93%)	111			
Low work- commitment	27 (23.89%)	34 (30.09%)	52 (46.02%)	113			
Total	95	101	114	310			

As is evident from the above Table No.-7:7, Chi-square value shows statistically significant relationship between physical working conditions and commitment to work. This finding is supported by the studies of Singh and Das (1978) who reported significant relationship between physical working conditions and commitment to work. Sharma (1974) and Van Groenon (1976) in their studies of work commitment in relation to work technology also reported significant relationship between work technology and work-commitment.

Further, the distribution of the data at different levels of work-commitment explains the fact that workers working in more hazardous conditions have higher degree of commitment than the workers working in less hazardous plants. Consequently, with the betterment of physical conditions of work, the level of commitment to work has consecutively declined. For example, in the present study, physical conditions of work are represented by differing environmental and working conditions of different plants. As is already explained earlier in the present Chapter, S.M.S. and sintering plants constitute most hazardous and difficult physical working condition. C.O. and B.F. plants have also hazardous and difficult physical conditions but lesser than S,M.S. and sentering plants. But, C.R.M. HRM, S & F plants have comparatively least hazardous and difficult physical working conditions. Inspite of the

this, the workers of S.M.S. and S.P. are at higher level of work commitment (43.03%) than the workers of CO and BP (32.55%) and C.R.M., H.R.M. and S & F (24.42%).

At low level of work commitment a majority 46.02% of worker's are from C.R.M. and allied plants, then 30.08% from C.O. and B.F. and only 23.89% workers are from S.M.S. and allied plants. Thus, the data both at high and low levels of commitment to work most explicitly show that hazardous and difficult physical conditions to work donot come in the way of the determination of high work commitment. The present finding rather suggests that workers working in comparatively better physical conditions of work are less committed.

The higher degree of commitment to work among the workers working in unadaptable working conditions is, inspite of the fact, that many workers regarded working in this condition as most hazardous having determinental effect on life and health. Few illustrations of the responce given by some respondents would be relevant here which would highlight the attitude of the workers about the physical working conditions.

For example, one respondent from coke oven told the investigator that their life expectancy shortens while working in this plant. He also said that it won't be a matter of surprise if a good number of his co-workers are affected by lung problems. Some workers felt that their

vitality may diminish while working in high intensity of heat near coke oven and blast furnace. Similar remarks were made by many workers of S.M.S., Sintering, coke oven and blast furnace plants. But, these notions actually seem to be superfluous because workers of these plants show higher commitment to work.

Vaid (1968) and Sharma (1974) in their studies reported that better work technology make the workers more committed.

Thus, on the basis of above discussions, it can be concluded that there is significant relationship between physical working conditions and work commitment. The study also reveals that workers in difficult and hazardous working conditions are more committed to their work than the workers working in less difficult and hazardous physical conditions. This finding supports the contention of Punekar (1978) that intrinsic values among the worker give rise to commitment. The worker who has intrinsic values of commitment does his best under any condition because he feels a personal satisfaction by doing his best irrespective of the existing condition.

CHAPTER-VIII

Job-satisfaction

and

Commitment to work

JOB SATISFACTION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

The concepts of commitment to work and job satisfaction are closely related to each other. A committed worker is generally supposed to be a worker satisfied with his job. But, a satisfied worker may not necessarily be a committed worker. The reasons for job satisfaction may be lesser work load, more holidays and leisure hours in the job, etc. Thus the lesser involvement in work here may lead to job satisfaction but commitment to work signifies involvement of the worker in the work both at performance level and psychological level. Thus, commitment to work is valued both at intrinsic and extrinsic levels. It imbues the workers to relate themselves to the system as indispensable role players in the enhancement of production, advancement of the organization and maintenance of its structure. Hence, the workers committed to job in general are satisfied with their job but not the vice-versa.

The factors of work-commitment vary according to the level of the industrial development and the general conditions of the population in the area. In underdeveloped countries, the main problem in job-commitment is not the state of job satisfaction which is difficult to actualize, but rational adjustments of the workers with the job in

spite of considerable dissatisfaction with the job.

By and large, general opinion is that industrial work is dehumanized. Most jobs are standardized or simplified. The consequence is that regardless of educational level, human beings "suffer genuine deprivations from a work existence, which reduces their personal involvement to a single set routinized movements" (Kartz, 1948). Typical views about the industrial worker are that he is thoroughly dissatisfied (Marx, 1963), (Marcuse, 1964), Chinoy (1955), Walker and Guest (1962). It has been said that besides less job satisfaction, the factory worker generally experiences more occupationally based strains, tensions and feelings of alienation. Form (1973) has remarked that researches keep on designing studies to demonstrate that industrial employees are in fact dissatisfied and they point to American Automobile worker as the classic case of dissatisfaction. Contrary to such studies, Form (1973) has observed that workers are generally found to be satisfied with their jobs. Hoppocks study (1935) also revealed a heavy tendency towards satisfaction.

Thus the analysis of the interrelationship of work commitment and job-satisfaction become very important in the present context. Before discussing the relationship between work-commitment and job satisfaction, it is necessary to discuss the concept of job-satisfaction briefly here because it has not been explained earlier.

CONCEPT Job-satisfaction is a dynamic concept and is of prime importance, in the present complex industrial society. Smith (1955) has rightly observed that "..... the best company is the company with the best satisfied workers"..

Job satisfaction is the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work. It expresses the amount of agreement between one's expectations of the job and the rewards that the job provides. Since job-satisfaction involves expectations, it is related to equity theory, the psychological contract, and motivation.

Job satisfaction may refer to either a person or a group. It may be considered as a part of life satisfaction (Rice & Hunt, 1978). The result is that satisfaction arises from a complex set of circumstances in the same way that motivation does. There are few easy paths to better job satisfaction or to better motivation. Thus, the term job satisfaction is among such concepts which lacks unanimous definition, though several studies have been done on this topic. Every one who has worked on job-satisfaction has defined and explained it in his own way and to some extent contradicting the other.

Due to lack of unanimity regarding the concept of job satisfaction, here, it is necessary to clarify the controversies regarding other terms which are used as the synonyms of job satisfaction.

Etymologically, job satisfaction is the

combination of words i.e., job and satisfaction, which means degree of satisfaction from one's job. Here, the first level of controversy is regarding the meaning of its first component word 'job' which is often regarded as synonym to occupation and position. But Shartle (1958) has tried to resolve this controversy and therefore he has defined each of them making clear the difference among them.

At first he defines 'position' as a group of industrial tasks that are performed by one person. In any organization there will be as many positions as workers. Then he defines job as a "a group of similar positions in an organizations". He further clarifies that in any establishment there may be only one person or there may be many persons engaged in the same job. And lastly, Shartle (1958) defines occupation as "a number of allied jobs", Like Shartle, Otes and Leukart (1934) have also tried to clarify the meaning of 'job' and 'position' so that they could not be used as similar terms. To them "position is a collection of tasks, duties and responsibilities regularly assigned to and performed by a single individual".

" Job is (i) a position, or (ii) a group of positions involving substantially the same duties, skills, knowledge and responsibilities, or (iii) a number of positions, of groups of tasks which are somewhat similar in nature and worker's requirements, and which are performed by a number of workers who customarily change about from one

position to another". Thus with the above explanation the meaning of the term job, occupation and position has become clear. Besides, it has also been proved that there is significant difference between these three terms.

The second level of confusion is regarding the terminology of need satisfaction and job satisfaction. The term 'need' is defined as "a condition marked by the feeling of deprivation of something, or of requiring the performance of some action" (Drever, 1964). The same scholar defines satisfaction as the "end state in feeling accompanying the attainment by an impulse of its objective". The resultant feelings of satisfaction is a function of the motive (need), strength and opportunity that environment provides for the attainment of the appropriate incentive. It means that need satisfaction and job satisfaction are different things though they look synonymous. Need-satisfaction just denotes the fulfilment of the want or the requirement while job-satisfaction broadly denotes fulfilment of such needs which affect the efficiency of the employee.

Job satisfaction refers to a person's feeling of satisfaction on the job, which acts as a motivation to work. Job from the operational point of view is not only an activity which is performed under contractual agreement and for which one receives payment, but it also refers to total relationship of an individual with the firm, not the

specific duties and responsibilities which he might have. Job satisfaction is reflected in the attitude people held towards the job. Positive attitude towards it indicates dissatisfaction with job. Job satisfaction, thus, is "a function of disparity between rewards (what are get in income and job status) and aspirations or expectations; both pay off and demands are likely to show a chronology linked to family life cycle and work history. Job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. In a narrow sense those attitudes are related are related to the job and are concerned with such specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment condition of work, advancement, opportunities etc. Job satisfaction is closely related to general level of aspiration in the society or in particular social group. It can be more accurately analysed in terms of general emotional tone of the employees.

Hoppock (1935) has defined job-satisfaction as "any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, I am satisfied with my job". Rosen and Rosen (1955) view job-satisfaction as " a consequence of the correspondence between percepts and value standards". These views in certain respects have also been supported by Morse (1955), Katzell (1964), and Vroom (1964). Some authors have stressed that satisfaction in one's job is a function of the

discrepancy between needs and outcome. Morse (1953) and Porter (1962) have viewed satisfaction as an end result of the degree to which job needs are perceived as being satisfied by the job. Likewise that extent to which the job meets individuals over all requirements is considered important contributory factor of job satisfaction by Smith (1955). He proposes that an individuals attitudes, interests, personal factors etc. are important and that the job satisfactor is a function of the perceived characteristics of the job in relation to his frame of reference.

Vroom (1962) regards initiation and decision making as important contributory factors in satisfaction with job. He asserts that jobs, which offer experience of individual judgement and initiative, provide for the use and development of aptitudes, and permit some knowledge of results of a persons performance, are more ego satisfying than those which do not have these characteristics. Locks (1969) considers satisfaction dissatisfaction and other emotional reactions as value loaded responses. In a similar way, job satisfaction has been defined as an attitude which results from a balancing and summation of many specific likings and dislikings experienced in connection with one's job. These evaluations may rest largely upon experience of one's own success or failure in the achievement of personal objectives and upon the perceived contribution of the job

and company toward these ends (Bullocks, 1952).

The definitions so far discussed have emphasised one or other aspect of job satisfaction. Evans (1969) and Wanous & Lawler (1972) have reviewed the various operational definitions of job satisfaction found in the literature. The authors who have tried to operationalize job-satisfaction, have based their equation on the measures derived from the porters' Need Deficiency Questionnaire (PNDQ). Porter, (1961), the first to give operational measure of job satisfaction has defined it as the sum of the worker's fulfilment over various job facets.

A second operational definition has been derived from the expectancy model of motivation (Vroom, 1964). The expectancy theory of job satisfaction is analogous to job valence which is defined as a cumulative multiplicative function of job instrumentality times outcome valences. In a similar way, job satisfaction has been defined by Bullock (1952) as "an attitude which results from a balancing and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experiences in connection with the job. These evaluations may rest largely upon one's own success or failure in the achievement of personal objectives and upon the contribution of the job and the Company towards these ends".

A third operational measures of job-satisfaction is defined as need deficiency which Porter

(1961) defines as the difference between the subjects response to the "How much should these be?" Question and his response to the " How much is there now?"

Evans (1969) and Locke (1969) have suggested yet another operational measure of job-satisfaction. They have emphasized that the indices of job satisfaction may be obtained when the deficiency scores are multiplied by the important score. They have argued that the satisfaction with more important facets should produce a greater range of affect than satisfaction with less important facets.

The over all job satisfaction may thus be regarded as the sum of job satisfaction across all facets of a job. In short, overall job satisfaction has been viewed as a function of the sum of job facets atisfaction.

Pestonjee (1973) has described job-satisfaction as follows. "Job satisfaction includes a feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the various segments of one's job life. These segments may be small or trivial but they create a certain feeling tone in the individual worker".

In the words of Smith, (1953) "Job-satisfaction is the emplyoee's judgement of how will his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs". Gollerman (1968) has used the term satisfaction to describe events that lead to subjective felings of relief or pleasure which can be reported by the person who experience them, but which can

not be observed directly by any one else. A satisfied man feels better than what he would feel without it but does not necessarily change his outward actions".

While describing job satisfaction, Tiffin and Mc Cormic (1952) have described that "the satisfaction which people experience in their jobs is in large part the consequence of the extent to which the various aspects of their work situations tend to be relevant to their job-related value systems". Blum and Naylor (1968) have defined job satisfaction in terms of the attitudes possessed by an employee. In their words, "Job satisfaction is the result of various attitude possessed by an employee. These attitudes are related to job and are concerned with specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, advancement opportunities, recognition of ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on job, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment by employer and other similar items".

Further Blum and Naylor (1968) have described "many additional factors which contribute ultimately to job-satisfaction to make the concept clear. These are factors such as employee's age, health, temperament, desires, and level of aspiration. Besides, his family relationship, social status, recreational outlets, activity in organizations labour, political or purely social-contribute to job satisfaction".

Again, concisely following the above discussion Blum and Naylor (1968) have defined job-satisfaction as "a general attitude which is the result of many specific attitude in three areas, namely, specific job factors, individual characteristics, and group relationship out side the job".

It is, thus, obvious that definitions of job-satisfaction have largely stressed the liking and disliking associated with one's job or pleasant or unpleasant emotions associated with it. This has also bearing on the extent to which the job is in consonance with and able to meet individual's needs and value. The operational definitions cited above lay emphasis on behavioural indices which are likely to influence the satisfaction or dissatisfaction from the job. Thus, to sum up, job satisfaction being a dynamic concept has been used differently by different scholars, yet, it can be concluded that job satisfaction is an employee's over all reactions to his job.

Job satisfaction is certainly correlated with several intrinsic and extrinsic and variables. Job satisfaction also influences other phenomena like work-commitment, productivity, morale, accident, absenteeism etc. Job-satisfaction here has been studied both as an independent and dependent variable.

In the following section, an attempt has been made to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and some of the individual and social background variables.

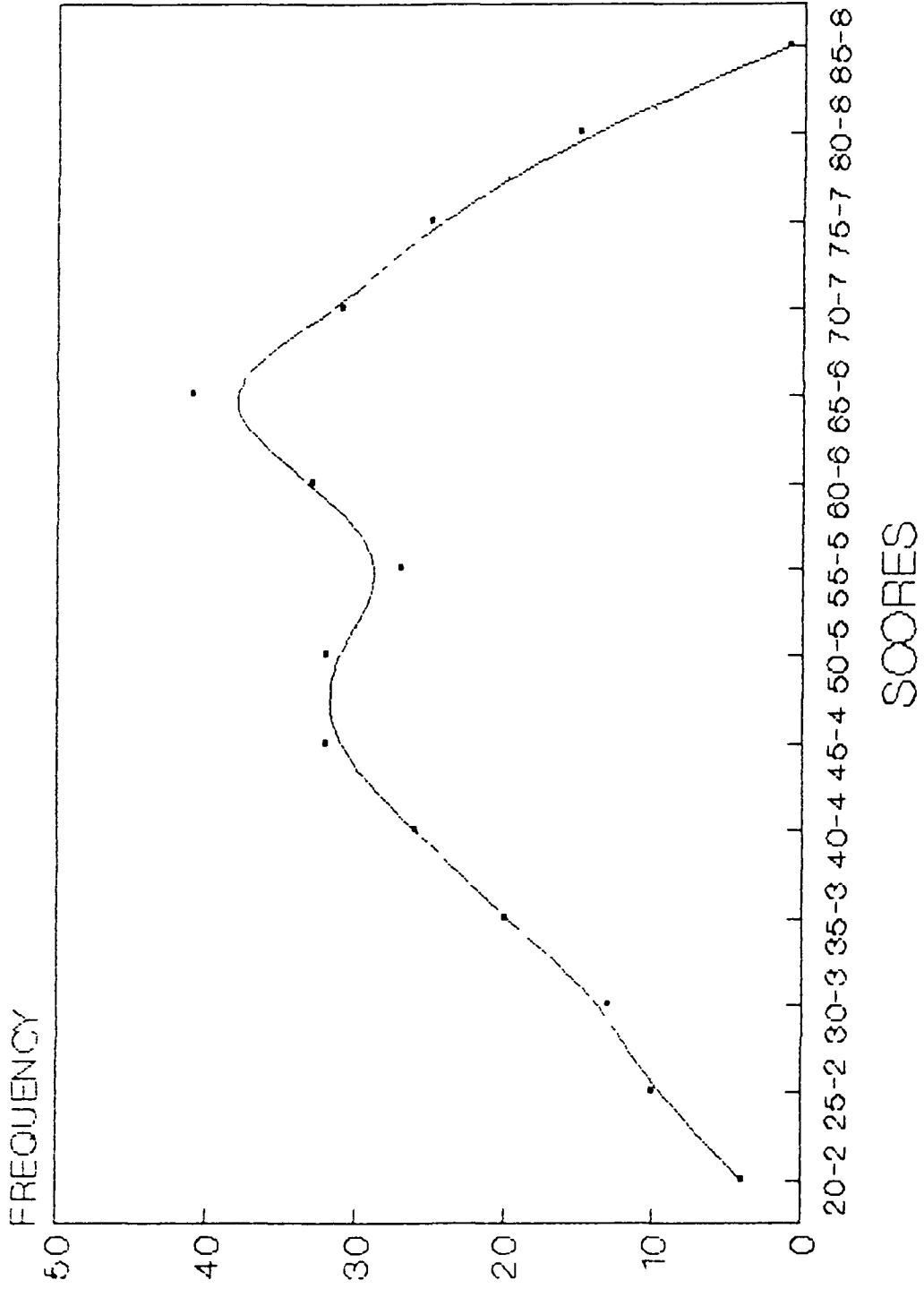
First, over all job satisfaction score as shown in the following table-8:1 suggests that in the present study majority of the workers are having low satisfaction.

Table No.-8:1.

Job-Satisfaction Score		
Job-Satisfaction Score		Total
High job-satisfaction -	66-89	101
Moderate job-satisfaction -	50-65	104
Low Job-satisfaction -	20-49	109
		N-310

The above table indicates that out of 310 respondents 105 (33.87%) are lowly satisfied, 104 (33.54%) moderately satisfied and 101 (32.56%) highly satisfied. Hence, it can well be suggested that factory workers in the present study are neither extremely satisfied nor dissatisfied with their jobs. In an attempt to identify some of the factors associated with job satisfaction, four demographic and social background variables such as age, education, rural-urban background and family orientation have been taken to findout the relationship between these and job satisfaction. Work-commitment being the main problem

DISTRIBUTION OF JOB-SATISFACTION SCORE



of study, many other factors were deliberately dropped in this context to find out their relationship with job satisfaction.

The findings showed that there is significant relationship between education, income, occupational status, organizational commitment and job-satisfaction, while age, rural-urban background promotion and alienation had insignificant relationship with job-satisfaction.

Age has been considered as important factor associated with job satisfaction. Many scholars have emphasized that a particular age group shows inclination towards higher job-satisfaction than the other age groups. Although divergent findings have so far been reported in various studies regarding age and job-satisfaction, still most of them agree with the relevance and importance of age in context of job-satisfaction such as Herzberg et.al. (1959), Sinha A.K. (1982) Sinha D. (1970) etc.

In the present study the job-satisfaction scores of three age groups i.e. of younger age group, middle age group and aged have been considered to establish relationship with age. The details can be seen in the following table no.-8.2.

Table No.-8.2

Age and Job-Satisfaction

Job-Satisfaction Score	Young age	Middle age	Aged	Total	χ^2 value	Significance at 0.05 level
High Job Satisfaction	38 (37.63%)	30 (29.70%)	33 (32.67%)	101	5.385-4	Insignificant
Moderate Job satisfaction	36 (34.61%)	36 (34.61%)	32 (30.78%)	104		
Low Job satisfaction	39 (37.14%)	44 (41.91%)	22 (20.95%)	105		
Total	113	110	87	310		

To find out the relationship between age and job satisfaction a 3 x 3 contingency table was drawn. The satisfaction score was divided into three categories of highly satisfied, moderately satisfied and lowly satisfied workers. To find out the relationship between different categories of age groups (ie young age middle age and aged) and job-satisfaction. Chi square test was computed. The Chi square value computed was 5.385. The significance test at df 4 was found insignificant at 0.05 level of significance as shown in the above table no.-8:2. Hence, it can be concluded that there is no relationship between age and job satisfaction.

Contrary to the present findings Herzberg, et.al. (1957) Brejenn and William (1968), D. Sinha (1970), Glenn et.al. (1974) etc. have found 'significant relationship between age and job satisfaction.

The finding further shows that workers of younger age are comparatively more satisfied (37.63%) than the workers of middle (29.70%) and aged (32.67%) age groups. Middle age group has indicated low job-satisfaction (41.91%) in comparison to other age groups. At this level of job-satisfaction the lowest is the number of aged workers (20.95%).

At moderate level of satisfaction both young and middle aged workers are equally placed (34.61%) while the aged workers are lesser in number (30.78%).

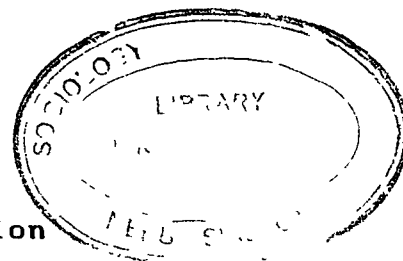
The finding of the present study that young workers are more satisfied than old workers is further supported by the studies of Mukherjee (1977) and Sinha and Sharma (). Mukherjee explains that the younger workers were more satisfied, with a drop in satisfaction around 30, and a spurt around 45. But many scholars have found that workers of higher age groups are more satisfied than young workers. This finding can be seen in the studies of D. Sinha (1970), Frank Friend Cander (1963). Glenn et.al. (1974), Herzberg et.al (1959) etc. They argue that as workers grow older, they tend to be slightly more satisfied with their jobs. There are a number of reasons, such as lowered expectations and better adjustment to their work situation because of experience with it. Younger workers, on the other hand, tend to be less satisfied because of higher expectations, less adjustment, and other causes and thus

they observed that age influences the job satisfaction of a worker.

To sum up in the present study there is no significant relationship between age and job satisfaction. The workers of young age group are more satisfied and the middle age and aged workers are less satisfied with their job.

In the present study the relationship between level of education and job satisfaction was also investigated and the following table no.-8.3 explain the results clearly.

Table No.-8.3



Education and Job-satisfaction

Level of Job-satisfaction	Low education	High education	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High Job-Satisfaction	66 (65.35%)	35 (34.65%)	101			
Moderate Job-satisfaction	42 (40.38%)	62 (59.62%)	104	27.785	2	Significant
Low Job-satisfaction	32 (30.47%)	73 (69.53%)	105			
Total	140	170	310			

As is indicated in the above table no.-8.3, Chi-Square value suggests that there is significant relationship between level of education and job satisfaction. The present data further reveals that workers

who are low educated have high job satisfaction than workers with high education. This is evident from the fact that among the workers with high job-satisfaction 65.35% are lowly educated while only 34.65 are highly educated. This indicates that with the increase in the level of education job-satisfaction has declined. Similarly at low level of job satisfaction majority 69.53% are highly educated workers and only 30.47% are lowly educated workers.

The reason behind low job-satisfaction of highly educated and high job-satisfaction of lowly educated workers may be advanced in terms of socio-cultural context. In our society the aspiration of the people is determined on the basis of their educational attainment. The aspiration of highly educated worker is generally considered to be high, while about the persons with lower educational background it is considered that they don't aspire much from their job. In fact, getting themselves employed is of main concern for them and get job-satisfaction from remaining in the job.

The persons with lower educational background generally come from lower Socio-economic strata where they are socialised to honour the job and the work. It is a regular feature especially for the labour of Bihar that they go to far flung places in Punjab, Maharashtra, etc to seek daily wage work. When it comes to their permanent settlement in a plant it is itself a great achievement: With low educational qualification, they think that the present job

is actually a reward for them. They get better social prestige due to it. They want to maintain it. This is why they seem to be more satisfied than the better educated workers. As for the low satisfaction among high educated workers, the basic reason behind this may be their higher expectation from the job. The high educated workers are engineering graduates and post-graduates. But, inspite of their being highly educated, in general practice, in the plant the suitability of a job at higher level is not judged by the high educational attainment of the worker rather basic qualification required for the job and required work experience decide suitability. This might be proving as irritating for high educated workers while comparing themselves with low educated workers. The social set up from where they come is also responsible for the low job satisfaction among them. From the school days itself the majority of students and parents from all strata persue studies in order to get admission in engeneering and medical courses. If a boy is admitted into engineering or medical colleges, the family to which he belongs become a centre of envy and respect among the community members. The boy becomes a reference point to other students. This type of socialization pattern leads in incùlcation of wrong perception in the minds of the individuals. Once he gets job after completing the course, he expects some wonders to come. But when he faces the crude reality in the job

situation he starts getting dissatisfied. Some high educated workers confessed this during the interview that " what have they gained after getting M.Tech. degree? All are equal here". Had we thought of joining the job here, we would have not wasted the time in pursuing M.Tech. Course". Hence, workers with high education are not contented with it, and they feel dissatisfied. Supporting this contention, A Zolenik (1958) has also observed that among employees doing the same kind of work, better education is associated with lower satisfaction.

Place of early socialization has its impact on workers' attitude and perception. Rural people may get difficulty in getting them adjusted to the industrial life. Some socio-economic compulsions might be prevailing upon them to stay over in the factory job. Besides, they perceive society in the way they have been made to perceive through early socialization. In contrast, urban people bear distinct qualities of aptitude and perception due to the impact of the place of early socialization. Hence, people with urban orientation may view job in other way than the rural people. Therefore, in order to know the relationship between rural-urban background and job-satisfaction, a Chi-Square test was conducted. The findings have been explained in the following table no.-8.4.

Table No.-8.4

Rural-urban background and Job-satisfaction

Level of Job-satisfaction	Urban	Rural	Total	χ^2	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High Job-Satisfaction	30 (27.27%)	71 (35.5%)	101			
Moderate Job-satisfaction	31 (28.18%)	73 (36.5%)	104	8.994	2	Significant
Low Job-satisfaction	49 (44.55%)	56 (28%)	105			
Total	110	200	310			

The above table no.-8.4 suggests that there is statistically significant relationship between rural-urban living and job-satisfaction. The data suggests that rural workers are more satisfied from their job than urban workers. Hence, the notion that urban workers are expected to be satisfied from industrial job is nullified from this finding. If the distribution of data in both the categories of urban and rural workers are compared, it can be observed that among the urban workers majority (44.55%) are lowly satisfied with their job while among rural workers the percentage of lowly satisfied is the least (28%). Again at moderate level of job-satisfaction the percentage of rural workers is larger (36.5%) than urban workers (28.18%). And, finally at high level of job-satisfaction also rural workers have more high

job-satisfaction (35.5%) than urban workers (27.27%). One of the reasons behind the high satisfaction among the rural people may be the impact of the feeling of their community members. It is a common feature that when a village person works outside his village in an urban area or factory, he is seen as distinct from the general community members. His village men recognize his economic ability and importance and thus give him higher social status. This feeling transforms a person psychologically in high esteem. This results in high satisfaction from the job.

In their studies Schuler and K. Davis (1973) view that a worker compares his job with the community way of living and he is more satisfied when two value systems get close. Schuler (1973) noted statistically significant relationship between the job satisfaction of congruent group (i.e. those who lived in the community of the same size, in which he was socialized) and incongruent group (who lived in opposite community). The congruent group revealed more satisfaction. But, the present finding shows that while living in incongruent group rural workers rate high satisfaction than urban workers.

Job - satisfaction has been interpreted in terms of a variation in income of the workers also by many scholars.

A worker's societal expectations and security can be achieved to some extent through it. If a worker has

small income he be may not be able to fulfil the necessities of life and it may be manifested from dissatisfaction. An attempt has been made out to find out relationship between income and job-satisfaction.

The data in the following table No.-8.5 explains the relationship between income and job satisfaction in the present study.

Table No.-8.5

Income and Job-satisfaction

Job-satisfaction	Lower income group	Middle income group	Higher income group	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High Job-Satisfaction	41 (40.59%)	53 (31.55%)	7 (17.07%)	101	10.969	4	Significant
Moderate Job-satisfaction	31 (30.69%)	52 (30.95%)	21 (51.22%)	104			
Low Job-satisfaction	29 (28.72%)	63 (37.5%)	13 (31.71%)	105			
Total	101	168	41	310			

The Chi-square value obtained showed significant relationship between income and job satisfaction. It means that income and job satisfaction are related with each other, and therefore, income is an important factor determining job satisfaction. Similar to our finding Stein (1961), Remitz (1960), Ducettee (1967), and Larson (1965) have found significant relationship between income and job satisfaction. The educational level

of worker gives him a feeling of what is he getting from his job in accordance with his education. This source of feelings make him judge whether is he satisfied with his job or not. It is generally assumed that the more a person is educated the more expectations he has from his job. Thus, education plays a vital role in influencing job-satisfaction. The data in the table no.-8.5 suggests that workers of lower income group are more satisfied with their job than workers of higher income groups. This is evident from the fact that among the workers of lower income groups majority 40.59% are having high job-satisfaction, while this percentage is only 31.55% among the middle income group workers and it further declines to just 17.07% among the highest income group. At moderate level of job-satisfaction the workers of low and middle income groups have almost equal representation, but, majority (51.22%) among the workers of higher income group express moderate job-satisfaction. Hence in the present study high income is associated with moderate job-satisfaction. As for low job-satisfaction is concerned least among the workers of low income group (28.72%) are placed in this category. Among the middle income group 37.56% and among the higher income group 31.71% workers are lowly satisfied with their job. Thus, at all levels the data of the present study explain the fact that low income is not barrier in the development of high job-satisfaction. Low income workers are rather more

satisfied than higher income workers. This is mainly because many persons undertake their job in high esteem irrespective of its economic gain. They worship the job because it provides them at least bread and shelter. They don't commercialise it, and hence, they remain more satisfied. The above finding on further analysis negates the common notion that workers of higher income group tend to be more satisfied than the lower income group. Contrary to this, the present finding is that high income does not bring high job satisfaction. If the present finding is compared with other studies then we see that Troxell (1954) found that income does not influence job satisfaction. Herzberg et al (1959) view that there is little doubt about pay that is too low, either relatively or absolutely, is source of dissatisfaction. Dunnette, Campbell and Hakel (1957) consider income as extrinsic job feature and potential only for producing job dissatisfaction, it does not lead to job satisfaction even if it is unusually good. Blum (1968) is of the view that if the economic range is great enough, income may become a significant factor, but that with any one occupational group or within a limited range, it is a minor factor. "But many scholars hold the view that better paid workers are more satisfied. For example Watson (1939) considered income as an important factor determining job satisfaction.

The analysis of job-satisfaction can also be

done on the basis of occupational status since it is considered to be an important factor influencing job-satisfaction. Many scholars such as Stein (1961), Sarveshwara Rao and Ganguli (1971), Mukherjee (1990), etc. have found it to be an important factor determining job-satisfaction. In the present study also it has been tried to findout the relationship between occupational status and job-satisfaction. The following table no.-8:6 explains the result.

Table No.-8.6

Occupational Status and Job-Satisfaction

Job-satisfaction Score	Unskilled	Skilled	Super- visory	Manage- rial	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High Job- Satisfaction	21 (47.73%)	35 (43.21%)	27 (23.68%)	18 (25.35%)	101	17.986	6	Significant
Moderate Job-satisfaction	11 (25%)	28 (34.57%)	38 (33.34%)	27 (38.03%)	104			
Low Job- satisfaction	12 (27.27%)	18 (22.22%)	49 (42.98%)	26 (36.62%)	105			
Total	44	81	114	71	310			

The distribution of the data in table No.-8.5 shows that workers with lower occupational status are more satisfied than the workers of higher occupational status. It can be observed that among unskilled and semi-skilled workers majority are highly satisfied from their job (47.73% & 43.21%) whereas among the supervisory and managerial workers least among them are having high job-satisfaction

(23.68% & 25.35%). This contention is further proved when the data of low job-satisfaction level is examined. At this level also the lowest number among the unskilled (27.27%) and skilled (22.22%) are lowly satisfied with their job while among the supervisory workers majority (42.48%) are lowly satisfied with their job. Among the managerial workers as much as 36.6% moderately workers among their are lowly satisfied and slightly more 38.03% are moderately satisfied.

Thus, on the basis of present findings it can be explained that although there is significant relationship between occupational status and job-satisfaction lower occupational status can not be attributed as a cause for low job-satisfaction, because, in the present study workers with low occupational level are more satisfied with their job than the workers with high occupational status. Contrary to this, Kahn (1973) and Inkles (1960) have shown that people with higher level occupational level tend to be more satisfied with their jobs. They usually are better paid and have better working conditions and their jobs make fuller use of their abilities; therefore they have good reason to be more satisfied. The result is that managers and professionals usually are more satisfied than skilled workers, who tend to be more satisfied than semi skilled and unskilled workers. K.Davis (1981) holds the view that those who work at high occupational levels are considerably more satisfied than unskilled workers.

Promotion is the key variable in influencing job-satisfaction. Many investigators studying on job-satisfaction have been given stress on it.

In the present investigation, the relationship between promotion and job-satisfaction was also investigated. The following table No.-8.7 contains the details of the findings.

Table No.-8:7

Promotion and Job-satisfaction

Job-satisfaction level	No-Promotion	Moderate Promotion	High Promotion	Total	χ^2	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High Job-Satisfaction	18 (27.27%)	60 (35.29%)	23 (31.08%)	101			
Moderate Job-satisfaction	18 (27.27%)	53 (31.18%)	33 (44.59%)	104	9.367	4	Insignificant
Low Job-satisfaction	30 (45.46%)	57 (33.53%)	18 (24.33%)	105			
Total	66	170	74	310			

The above table no.-8:7 indicates that there is no significant relationship between Promotion and job-satisfaction. Besides it, the distribution of the data in the table also suggest that promotion has affected the level of job-satisfaction. Workers who have got promotion are comparative more satisfied than those who have got no promotion. It can be observed from the data that among those workers who have got no promotion majority (45.46%) are lowly satisfied than moderately or highly satisfied

(27.27% in each category). Among those workers who have got upto two promotions have been considered as moderately promoted workers in the present study. Majority among them (35.29%) are highly satisfied with the job. This category has comparatively less percentage of lowly satisfied (33.53%) workers than those who did not get any promotion. The percentage of moderate satisfied workers is also more (31.18%) in this group in comparison to no promoted category. In case of the highly promoted workers (who got more than two promotions) it can be observed that among them lowest number of workers (24.33%) are lowly satisfied majority (44.59%) are moderately satisfied. Thus, it can be derived from the above facts that promotion affects job-satisfaction. Persons getting promotion are found to be more satisfied than workers getting no promotion.

If this finding is compared with the findings of the present study in regards to work-commitment (cf chapter VI) a very interesting finding comes out. That promotion affects the degree of job-satisfaction but not of work-commitment. A person who gets promotion is more satisfied than those getting no promotion . But, this is not true with work-commitment. A workers is committed to work irrespective of promotion he gets. This is evident from the fact that the workers getting no promotion are comparatively more committed to work than those who got promotion. Hence, work-commitment is attached to set of such social values

which motivate the worker to work devotedly by irrespective of the rewards from the job. But, job-satisfaction denotes such a state of mind of the workers which is directly related to workers' expectations from his job. Hence, promotion affects his job-satisfaction. A worker may be very sincere, devoted and hard working but simultaneously may not be satisfied with his job.

In the present investigation it has also been tried to find out the relationship between social alienation and job-satisfaction. It was assumed that alienated workers are also dissatisfied with the job. In order to find out the relationship between alienation and job-satisfaction two scales were used to measure the the attitude and the relationship between the two was established with the help of Chi-square test. The data and the result are presented in the table no.-8:8.

Table No.-8.8

Alienation and Job-satisfaction

Job-satisfaction level	Low Alienation	Moderate Alienation	High Alienation	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High Job-Satisfaction	41 (40.60%)	35 (34.65%)	25 (24.75%)	101	7.462	4	Insignificant
Moderate Job-satisfaction	39 (37.50%)	35 (33.65%)	30 (28.85%)	104			
Low Job-satisfaction	28 (26.66%)	34 (32.38%)	43 (40.96%)	105			
Total	108	104	98	310			

The Chi-square value reveals that there is insignificant relationship between social alienation and job-satisfaction. The distribution of the data in each category confirms the assumption that workers with high job-satisfaction have low alienation in comparison to others. The data explain that among the highly satisfied workers majority have low alienation. With the increase in job-satisfaction social alienation decreases and in the same way with the lowering down of job satisfaction social alienation increases. This can very well be confirmed from the present data.

Thus, the data can be explained in terms that job-satisfaction ultimately makes workers adjustments to the society more compatible. A worker who is satisfied with the job is not estranged from the society. He develops the likeness for the society in the same way as he develops likeness for his job.

Organizational commitment (factory commitment) is also related to job satisfaction. A worker's organizational commitment refers to his acceptance of goals and values of the organization where he works and his strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter et al., 1974). Thus the job satisfaction might be influenced by worker's organizational commitment. If a worker is committed with his company he should also be satisfied with his job. Here, organizational commitment leads to his job-satis-

faction at psychological level because the worker feels himself as a part of the company and this feeling makes him satisfied with the job.

The following Table No.-8:9 presents the result of the present investigation regarding organizational commitment and job-satisfaction.

Table No.-8.9

Organizational Commitment and Job-Satisfaction

Level of Job-satisfaction	Low Organizational Commitment	Moderate Organizational Commitment	High Org. Commitment	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High Job-Satisfaction	13 (12.87%)	30 (29.70%)	58 (57.43%)	101	98.162	4	Significant
Moderate Job-satisfaction	38 (36.54%)	47 (45.19%)	19 (18.27%)	104			
Low Job-satisfaction	69 (65.72%)	30 (28.57%)	6 (5.71%)	105			
Total	120	107	83	310			

To findout the relationship between organizational commitment and job-satisfaction Chi-square test was computed. The Chi-square value shows significant relationship between organizational commitment and job-satisfaction. The result reveales that workers with low job-satisfaction had low organizational commitment, while workers with high job-satisfaction had high organizational commitment. At moderate level also majority of the moderately satisfied workers are moderately committed to the

organization. This shows that job-satisfaction and factory commitment are strongly and concomitantly related with each other.

Similar to the present findings, in his study Sharma (1974) correlated company satisfaction alongwith job satisfaction and found that there is significant relationship between the two. He considered company satisfaction as an important factor to determine job-satisfaction. Similarly Marsh and Mannari (1977) also found significant relationship between job-satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In their study of 'organizational commitment and job-satisfaction' Porter et al. (1974) found that although commitment and satisfaction could be expected to be related, each construct appears to contribute unique information about the individual's relationship to the organization. On one hand, the development of organizational commitment appears to require an individual to think in fairly global terms about his or her relationship to the organization during the initial employment period. According to Porter et.al. "It could be expected that a raltively greater amount of time would be required for an employee to determine his level of commitment to the organization than would be the case with his level of job-satisfaction. This process is likely to result in a stable and enduring level of commitment. On the other hand, the degree of one's job

satisfaction appears to be largely associated with specific and tangible aspects of the work environment and may represent a more rapidly formed affective response than does commitment. One's level of job satisfaction may thus be more transitory in nature, which could account for the shifts in the mean degrees of satisfaction over time found in the present study (1974)".

JOB-SATISFACTION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK:

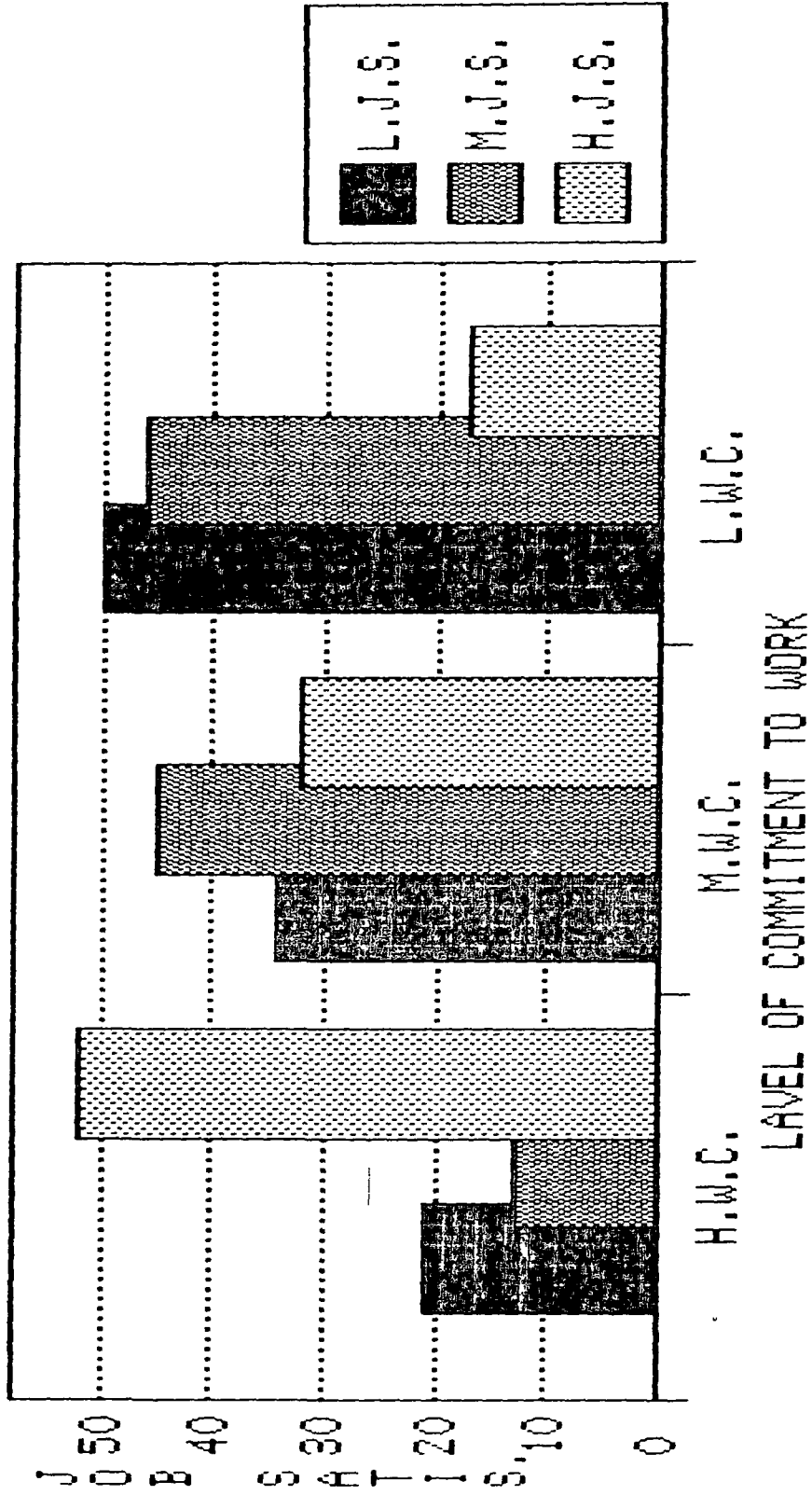
With the objective to determine the relationship between job-satisfaction and commitment to work, it was assumed that job-satisfaction is positively related with work commitment and that workers with high job-satisfaction have high work commitment. To find out the relationship between the two Chi-square test was conducted to determine the nature of relation table no.-9:10 explains the details of the findings.

Table No.-8:10

Job-satisfaction and Commitment to work

Level of Commitment to work	Low 20-49	Moderate 50-65	High 66-89	Total	χ^2	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High work-commitment	21 (20%)	13 (12.5%)	52 (51.49%)	86	49.924	4	Significant
Moderate work-commitment	34 (32.38%)	45 (43.27%)	32 (31.68%)	111			
Low work-commitment	50 (47.62%)	46 (44.23%)	17 (16.83%)	113			
Total	105	104	101	310			

JOB-SATISFACTION & COMMITMENT TO WORK



True to our assumption findings in the above table no.-9:10 show that job-satisfaction and commitment to work are statistically significantly related. It is also evident that the workers who are highly committed to work are also highly satisfied with the job. The data in the table further suggest that job-satisfaction and commitment to work are positively related in such a way that if the worker is lowly satisfied with job he is simultaneously lowly committed to it also, and if he is highly satisfied with his job, he is highly committed to it also. There fore. it can be derived from the facts of the present study that with the increase in the level of job-satisfaction the level of work-commitment also increases and vice-versa. If the data in the table is observed, it becomes evident that among the highly satisfied workers, majority 51.49% are highly committed, then 31.68% are moderately committed and least 16.83% are lowly committed. But, at moderate level of the satisfaction, majority workers are having low work-commitment 44.23% but almost same number of workers 43.27% are moderately committed too. The number of highly committed workers are lowest 12.5% among moderately satisfied workers. Among lowly satisfied workers majority 47.62% are also lowly committed, then 32.38% are moderately committed and lowest number among them 20% are highly committed to work. Thus, with the increase in the level of commitment to work the number of lowly satisfied workers

decreases. Thus, high job-satisfaction is associated with high work-commitment and low job-satisfaction is associated with low work-commitment, and hence, it can be established that job-satisfaction influences work-commitment accordingly.

Finally, our hypothesis that job-satisfaction is closely and positively associated with work-commitment is retained in the present investigation. If compared with other studies, we come to know that Srivastava (1977) while analysing work-Commitment considered job-satisfaction as an important variable also and tried to collect the data regarding factors that contribute to job-satisfaction.

According to Schwartz, et al (1977), "the relationship between job-satisfaction and commitment has been an important area for sociological research in industrialised nations, but has received research attention for developing nations recently". With this contention in mind he analysed the relationship in Taiwan, where there has been a rapid increase in number of industrial jobs. The findings similar to findings of the present study revealed that workers satisfied with job are also committed to it. Many other studies also corroborate the similar point of view. For example in their study of occupation and satisfaction of industrial clerks and their attitudes towards work, Kestar and Gerasd (1968) mentioned that "the solution of the problem of dissatisfaction should not be sought in incidental improvements, but rather in the

structural aspects of socio-economic and organizational aspects of clerk's environment". Afonja (1981) also found job-satisfaction as an influencing factor of commitment to work. Similarly, Berman and Gesold (1981) found that job-satisfaction and work commitment are correlated and viewed that job-satisfaction helps in the adjustment of life but it is possible only when there is no lack of work-commitment.

Wiener et al (1979) conceptualized work-commitment behaviours as special class of socially acceptable work behaviour and found that job-satisfaction and work commitment are correlated significantly with each other. And, finally to conclude our contention in this regard, we can say on the basis of our findings that job-satisfaction influences work-commitment of the workers. If a worker is highly satisfied with his job the chances are high that he will also be high committed to his work.

CHAPTER-IX

Alienation and Commitment to work

ALIENATION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

The word "alienation" has come into popular usage as a catch-all term for variety of psycho-sociological ills. There-fore, this term has been used in almost innumerable senses. It has clearly served as a useful sensitizing concept and certainly contributed to the presentation of many useful and challenging insights. Hence, the problems of alienation have been debated for a long time but interest in them is by no means diminishing. Just as the concept of social role is one of the major analytical tools of modern sociology, the concept of alienation is one of the major themes. As pointed out by Alladart (1976), "the concept of alienation rests very much on certain assumptions about human nature and society". The great social and political philosophers of the nineteenth century-such men as De Tocqueville, Marx, Weber, Durkheim, Simmel - were social critics as well as social observers. All of them were preoccupied with different aspects of the consequences of industrialization and urbanization in western Europe and the breakup of feudal institutions. As Nisbet argues, in his book on the sources of sociological theory (1966), the writers of the nineteenth century were deeply concerned with certain massive changes in the human condition that had been

brought about by two centuries of technical, social and political revolutions. Basically, these writers tried to

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explain five phenomena : Changes in the conditions of labour, Changes in property relations, the increasing sway of the city over the country side, the irresistible force of technological progress, and the spread of the factory system.

In observing these phenomena, all these writers were intent on the negative as well as the positive influences, and of technical and social change, although they drew quite different conclusions. One of the great negative influences is summed up in the term " alienation ". For most of these writers, the negative side of technical and social progress has been the increasing isolation of the individual from his fellow human beings. Replacing the closely knit farming village is the huge, impersonal city, an aggregate of strangers. Replacing the semipatriarchal feudal estate is the modern factory, in which the only nexus between worker and employer is monetary. Replacing a personal God and an omnipresent religion is increasing secularism and the decay of absolute moral and ethical codes. Thus, the enormous gains achieved by the triumphs of individualism were balanced by the loss of a thousand ties that contributed to personal security. The alienation of the

worker from his work, of the communicant from his religion, of the clan member from his unfolk, of members of families from each other—all these are seen as some of the more unpleasant fruits of industrial and social progress. This is why about alienation, Robert Nisbet (1953) has remarked that the notion of alienation has reached an extraordinary degree of importance. It has become nearly as prevalent as the doctrine of enlightened self-interest was two generations ago. It is more than a hypothesis, it is a perspective. Increased social differentiation the disappearance of community, the break down of regulatory norms, and the difficulty of realizing the total self in mass society are all problems that have drawn social scientists to concentrate on this concept. In the analysis of the contemporary society this concept has occupied predominant place. Various Disciplines Have contributed in the analysis of the meanings and contents of alienation. This has resulted in the plethora of contexts in which alienation is cited both by social scientists as well as lay men.

Alienation is used to denote a great variety of often quite dissimilar phenomena. Moreover, its meaning within separate disciplines are confusingly interrelated. Robert Nisbet (1953) writes, "at present time, in all the social sciences, the various synonyms of alienation have a foremost place in studies of human relations. Investigations of the "unattached", the "marginal", the "obsessive", the

"normless" and the "isolated" individual all testify to the central place occupied by the hypothesis of alienation in contemporary social science". It has also been used 'to refer to an extraordinary variety of psycho-social disorders, including loss of self, anxiety states, anomie, despair, depersonalization, rootlessness, apathy, social disorganisation, loneliness, atomization, powerlessness, meaninglessness isolation, pessimism and the loss of belief and values.

Almost all social groups are affected by alienation syndrome in varying degrees. So alienated are women, industrial workers, white-collar workers, Migrant workers, artists, suiciders, the mentally disturbed addicts, the aged, the young generation as a whole, juvenile delinquents in particular, voters, non-voters, consumers, the audiencess of mass media, sex deviants, victims of prejudice and discrimination, the prejudiced, the bureaucrats, political radicals, the physically handicapped, immigrants, exiles and vegabonds (EM. JOSEPHSON, 1962).

Thus in short, the idea of alienation is a popular vehicle for virtually every kind of analysis, from the prediction of voting behaviour to the search of society. This inclusiveness, in both its historical and its contemporary import is expressed in Erich Kahler's (1957) remark : "The history of man could very well be written as a history of the alienation of man".

Though one may go as far as Kahler has gone, there is no denying the fact that the phenomenon of alienation has a significance that can hardly miss the notice of a social and political analyst. Alienation is most conspicuous in the economic and social spheres of life, its effects, however, are no less pronounced in the domain of industrial life.

The concept of alienation has a long history in theology, philosophy and social criticism, and a much longer one in empirical research alone, the term 'alienation' has been used to refer to powerlessness, estrangement, self-estrangement, anomie, discontent, hostility, isolation, meaninglessness, frustration, and a host of other cognate and occasionally peripheral concepts. The notion of alienation has entered into modern sociology from German idealistic philosophy, especially by way of Hegel and the so-called young Hegelians. But it was Karl Marx who first made it into a powerful diagnostic tool for sociological inquiry.

For Marx, man's alienation is expressed in the fact that man's forces, products, creations—all these things that are extensions of man's personality and directly go to enrich it ... are split off from man, they acquire an independent status and power and turn back on man to dominate him as his master. Such a conceptualization is seen by Marx as a result of the historical process whereby man paradoxically

gains mastery over his physical environment only by becoming a slave to himself and to other men. This is why by 'alienation' marx meant the process through which people lose their sense of control over the social world that they have created so that they find themselves " alien " in hostile social environment. Thus, people create system of government, law, marriage feudalism, industrialism or slavery, but they then lose the sense of social authorship of these creations and instead take them for granted as though they were part of an unchanging natural order.

Marx conceptualizes alienation both at individual level (in subjective sense) and at the societal level (from an objective perspective). He distinguishes among four aspects of alienation:

- i> alienation from the object produced,
- ii> alienation from the work process it self,
- iii> alienation from himself, and
- iv> alienation from his fellowmen.

These four aspects of alienation are considered as symbolising " powerlessness ", " meaninglessness " "self-estrangement" knows that what ever be produced does not belong to him. Yhis feeling alienetes him from the object produced by him.

In this way the concept of alienation given by Marx at one hand deals with the historical, moral and sociological analysis alienated ccapitalist society and

simultaneously at the other hand, this concept presents in right perspective various other concepts such as human nature, moral and spritual independence of human beings and also the relationship between individual and society.

All the above aspects of alienation are, however seen by marx' as not separable and independent dimensions but linked in a complex chain of development. They constitute what might be called as "alienation syndrome" (Schach: 1970) Marx conceptualization of alienation has been severely criticized notably by Oiserman (1965), Fromm (1961), Bell (1959), Hoselitz (1964), Picone (1972), Kanfman (1956), Fischer (1970) and Fewr (1962) among others. This is pronted out by critics that marx's conceptualization lacks specificity, theoretical frame of reference, a valid explanation of the 'Concrete' alienation of the masses from society in the present capitalist system and clarity between the subjective and objective forms of alienation.

Since Marx, the literature on alienation has taken a voluminous proportions, and during the later half of the 1960s, it has had a renaissance in the sociological literature. Despite the numerous specific meanings attached to the concept, it seems justifiable to distinguish two major uses of the term. Authors who have tried to stay true to Marx and certainly those who explicitly have represented a Marxist position have stressed alienation as a social process and fact. Strongly empirically oriented researchers

have been inclined to emphasize the psychological aspects of alienation such as feelings of rootlessness and powerlessness. The later interpretation can be said to have been dominant in American empirical sociology.

Hence, second source of usage of the term 'alienation' is to be found in the history of ideas-the classical sociological thought. For example, Tonnies (1887) uses the term alienation in the sense of "isolation", and Durkheim in the sense of "anomie". Critics, however, have objected to the use of the term "anomie" as synonym to alienation (eg. Mizuchi, 1964, Simpson, 1968). It is pointed out that "anomie" though typifying an organizational characteristic, also reflects the subjective experience of an individual, and that conflict of values is the basis for all modern democracies.

In his study of "suicide" Durkheim develops a theory of human needs and aspirations to explain variations in suicide rates among different social groups and at different times. One of the 'types' of suicide which Durkheim posits in this theory is "anomic" suicide. Durkheim defines a breakdown of norms as a state of social anomie. This social condition becomes manifest at the individual level as uncertainty as to proper action and belief. If an individual is not able to cope with the anxiety produced by this uncertainty and insecurity, he may be driven to take his life. Thus, Durkheim uses this theory to explain the

higher rates of suicide observed in times of both modern economic depression and modern prosperity following the death of a spouse and among divorces rather than married or single people. In each of these cases, there is relatively abrupt loss of effective normative regulation. Durkheim's concept of anomie has been extended to political realm by Grazia (1948).

Actually, Durkheim has used the term anomie to refer to a condition of relative normlessness in a society or group. To him anomie is endemic in modern society and especially in the economic sector where "all the customary restraints and moral limits on man's aspirations are being undermined by the capitalist ethic of greed and gain. Merton has retained Durkheim's definition of anomie as a condition of relative normlessness in society, but has offered a different idea of its causes Merton sees anomie as the result of a breakdown in the cultural structure, occurring particularly when there is an acute disjunction of the cultural norms and goals and the society structured capabilities of members of the group to act in accord with them. According to Merton, when the cultural and the social structures are mal-integrated, i.e., the first calling for behaviour and attitudes which the second precludes, there is a tendency towards the breakdown of norms or normlessness.

Lukas (1977) for comparative purpose has given both similarity and distinctions between the two

concepts of alienation and anomie. He explains that alienation and anomie have in common the formal characteristic that they each have a multiple reference to 1. Social phenomena, (Status of society, its institutions, rules and norms); 2. individual states of mind (beliefs, desires & attitudes) and 3. a hypothesised empirical relationship between (i) and (ii); and 4. a presupposed picture of the 'natural' relationship between (i) and (ii). Thus, where as marx sees capitalism as a compulsive social system, which narrow men's thoughts, places obstacles in the way of their desires and denies the realisation of a 'world of productive impulses and faculties', Durkheim sees it as a state of moral anarchy in the economic sphere, where men's thoughts and desires are in sufficiently controlled and where the individual is not 'in harmony with his conditions'. Lukas (1977) also examines the differences between Durkheim's concept of anomie and Marx's alienation. He argues that these concepts assume basically different, and in some ways, diametrically opposed views of human nature. While Durkheim assumes that man needs social regulation and control for happiness, marx's vision according to Kukas is that the basic nature of man requires freedom from social restraint in order to achieve the 'complete development of human potentiality. Somebody, Theibar (1970) has also distinguished between alienation and anomic. According to him, alienation specified something

(some work, an object, or a group) from which a person has become estranged, while anomie is a response to generalized social discontent or a state of ill-being in the absence of articulated grievances and knowledge of the sources of disconduct.

In the meantime, alienation continues to be an intriguing and fruitful sociological concept. It is fruitful in the sense that it has sensitized many researchers to questions related to the consequences of working conditions. In industrial and in post-industrial societies.

However, the term 'alienation' finds its usage in varied senses in contemporary sociological literature. Mannheim (1935) views it in the sense of 'meaninglessness', Parsons (1951) and Merton (1949) as anomie'. Kurella (1968), Novale (1959), Tanase (1958), Sitnikov (1962) and others as an "abstract category", Kaufman (1965), Blauner (1964), Behlen (1940), Schaar (1961), Smith (1970) and others as a "human condition", Horton (1964), Gallino (1963) and others as an "ideology". Kamenka (1969) as a "term of moral advocacy". Supex (1970) and others as 'humanist category". Bell (1959) as a "tool for radical criticism", etc.

Hence, the contributions of sociologists to the meaning of alienation have been most extensive. They have tried to codify, operationalise and expand the meaning

of the term. In general the idea is that something-ties or bonds-connecting man to himself, to others, to the community and social institutions he had created is lost or severed and this leads to various 'pathologies'. This state may be understood as alienation.

If some definitions of it are examined further, we find that Parbin (1962) observed that growing social differentiation, loss of primary relations and anomic situations are ultimately responsible for the sense of alienation in common man of mass society.

Unlike Fromm, Parsons (1963) views alienation as opposite of conformity. "Alienation is a possible product of something going wrong in the process of value acquisition through identification".

Blauner (1964) believes that alienation as it exists under the urbo-industrial conditions rests on a number of subjective and objective factors. Alienation partly lies in the mind, view, and the perspective of the actor and partly in the situation. Blauner argues that even if alienation is widespread, the industrial workers are not particularly interested in questions related to the ownership of the means of production (Blauner, 1964: 16-18).

Faunce (1968) views alienation as a condition of the relationship between an individual and some social unit in which he is a participant. Specifically, it describes a condition in which the individual does not

evaluate himself in terms of the criteria used for assigning status within the social unit. Under these circumstances the individual is alienated from others and from his self.

Sociologist Melvin Seeman (1959) has attempted to draw together the many meanings the term has. According to Seeman, alienation may mean powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, or self-estrangement.

Thus, many social scientists have tried to interpret the concept of alienation in various ways. Their explanations clarify that alienating conditions and alienated state are two different dimensions. Alienating conditions denote the circumstances objectively responsible for alienation. In this sense, alienation is actually a state of mind and a multi dimensional concept.

It may be point out here that alienation being a state of mind and having different dimensions can be specific and as such no one is alienated from everything. For example, alienation may refer to feelings we hold or to dehumanizing conditions in society. In this context all kinds of people feel alienated, and this feeling has been used by social theorists to explain increased drug and alcohol abuse, mental illness, suicide, crime, communal, caste and racial turmoil, and political apathy. Again, alienation may refer to isolation from others normlessness, powerlessness, meaninglessness and self-estrangements. It

may further refer to industrial growth, from jobs and good education etc.

Hence, in nutshell, although the concept covers a wide range of human experiences most sociologists agree that alienation refers to an individual's mind.

When Sociologists study the objective conditions that give rise to alienated states, they may take one or two approaches. The global approach concentrates on large, complex hard-to-define societal conditions to explain the individuals alienation. These conditions - industrialization, urbanization, and bureaucratization - are frequently linked to increased feelings of powerlessness, normlessness, isolation and so on.

Before the Industrial Revolution of the late 1700 Western societies were very different from what they are today. The countryside was dotted with small towns and villages; the main economic institution was agriculture; and people were socialized into a rather homogeneous culture. The craftsman or artisan of the time would design his product, obtain his own raw materials, and, with the help of perhaps an apprentice or two, make his wares and sell directly to the customer. The craftsman took pride in his finished product.

With the growth of technology and industry life changed greatly. machines began to replace craftsmen in making products; new production techniques and power sources

were discovered; distant trade markets were established; and for the first time money was accumulated for investment in industries. The economic basis of society was radically altered. In addition, the development of factories meant that workers were concentrated in small geographic areas. Strangers of diverse backgrounds who were crowded together in urban areas encountered new problems. Finally the growth of industry gave rise to the administrative machinery called bureaucracy. It was necessary to follow the principles of fixed rules, established lines of rational-legal authority, and division of labour in order for efficiency to prevail. The entire work process had changed.

Given these rapid changes, many theorists of the day warned that the forces of industrialization, urbanization, and bureaucratization would have evil consequences for the individual. For example, Karl Marx, in the economic and philosophical manuscripts of 1844, maintained that capitalism with its accompanying conditions of increased division of labour and exploitation of the worker could create an alienated work force. Workers would be alienated from the product they produced, from the work process in which they participated, from themselves and their own creative potential, and from their fellow workers. Marxist theory concentrated on economic alienation, the idea that human misery results from a capitalistic economic system. But, Marx also discussed 'Political alienation' and

'religious alienation' which occur when the institutions of government and religion cooperative with the capitalistic economic institution to prevent individuals from starting a class based revolution.

Theorists after Marx continued to warn of the evils of industrilization. Emile Durkheim feared that social bonds would weaken and social disorganization occur in industrial society. Whereas individuals in preindustrial societies were tied to the community by similar attitude and a common majority, an industrial society would throw together people holding dissimilar values. As a result, individuals would be uncertain about what societal rules to follow. Consequently, they would experience anxiety, isolation, and despair. Max weber expressed concern that bureaucracies would regiment human actions. People would become controlled by and subordinate to the bureaucracy. And Georg Sonimel (1858-1918) expressed concern over the alienating effects of urban life. He maintained that the city would cause us to become strangers to one another and to ourselves.

Sociologists today accept many of the explanations put forth by earlier theorists, but some have turned to a new approach to the study of social conditions underlying alienation. The context-specific approach concentrates on the more specific conditions in a society that may produce alienation. These can be seen by

examining selected social groups. For instance, the study of a particular corporation's rules and policies may show why its employes experience feelings of powerlessness. By focusing on such smaller groups, sociologists hope to better understand the conditions that contribute to alienation-and thus be able to suggest ways of alleviating human suffering.

DIMENSIONS OF ALIENATION

The above discussion on the concept of alienation refers to the relationship of the individual to elements of his social and natural environment and to his state of mind.

Thus, a concept that is so central in sociological work, and so clearly laden with value implications, demands special clarity. On the basis of the various discussions it seems that there are five basic ways in which the concept of alienation has been used. These may be considered as five dimensions of the conceptual analysis of alienation making it multidimensional concept. These five dimensions may be considered as different types, forms or meanings of alienation.

The complete five dimensions viz; powerlessness, normlessness, meaninglessness, isolation and self-estrangement have been excellently discussed by Seeman (1959). Blauner (1964) has used four dimensions of alienation. These are-powerlessness, meaninglessness, isolation and self estrangement. Thus, Blauner has not

included normlessness as separate index of alienation. In his analysis Srole (1959) has not included self-estrangement as a dimension of alienation and has used four dimensions, Such as normlessness, powerlessness, meaningless ness and isolation. Dean (1961) has used only three dimensions- powerlessness, normlessness and isolation to explain alienation and did not include meaninglessness and self-estrangement.

The discussion on dimensions of alienation has so far clarified that powerlessness and isolation have been used commonly by all as indices of alienation. Again, except Blauner (1964) normlessness has also been accepted as a key dimension of alienation by all. Thus, this basis it can be concluded that powerlessness, isolation and normlessness are the three basic indices which explain the alienation.

The conceptual clarity of alienation can be achieved only after explaining the five dimensions of alienation and examining their logically distinguishable usages.

(i) Powerlessness: Alienation is often associated with 'powerlessness, or "the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behaviour cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcements, he seeks".

Powerlessness denotes such state of mind resulting in alienation in which the individuals or group of

persons feel beyond their reach or capacity to control the situation and produce the desired results. In any social situation, one may feel that things could be corrected if certain devices are used or the desired results could be produced with the help of certain measures. But, the devices to be used or measures to be taken remain beyond their reach and remain confined in some vested pockets. These state of affairs produce alienation caused due to powerlessness. Hence, powerlessness is that feeling which is concerned with the loss of control over the important events that affect our lives. At operational level, this is indicated by agreement with the statements like "There is not much that I can do about most of the important problems that we face today". or "This world is run by the few people in power and there is not much the little guy can do about it". In short, powerlessness can be conceived in terms of the felt inability to influence social, political, and economic events and structures significantly. This sort of feeling may lead to feeling of apathy and distrust.

This dimension of alienation depicts participants lack of confidence over his behaviour. He is simply not clear about the result of his behaviour or sometimes he finds himself unable to choose confidence among alternative explanations. He lacks insight and finds his behaviour irrelevant resulting in alienation.

Seeman (1959) while analysing this second type of alienation views that this alienation refers to the individual's sense of understanding the events in which he is engaged. In his words, "we may speak of high alienation, in the meaninglessness usage, when the individual is unclear as to what' it ought to believe-when the individuals minimal standards for clarity in decision making are not met".

Seeman further elaborates that one might operationalise this aspect of alienation by focusing upon the fact that it is characterised by a 'low expectancy that satisfactory predictions about future outcomes of behaviour can be made. This second meaning refers essentially to the sensed ability to predict behaviour outcomes. This version of alienation ie meaninglessness is logically independent of the first 'powerlessness'. For under some circumstances, expectancies for personal control of events may not coincide with the understanding of these events, as in the popular depiction of the alienation of the intellectual.

(iii) Normlessness : Alienation is also associated with normlessness. Here the individual is faced with an absence of rules and feels "that socially unapproved behaviours are required to achieve given goals". For example, one may think that, "It is hard to raise children nowadays because what is right today will be wrong tomorrow " etc.

Normlessness is generally perceived as a

state of society but many scholars have explained it as a state of mind also which can cause alienation.

This variant of alienation theme is derived from Durkheim's description of 'anomie' and refers to a condition of normlessness. In the traditional usage, anomie denotes a situation in which the social norms regulating individual conduct have broken down or are no longer effective as rules for behaviour. "The rules of the group no longer provide limits to man's impulses. The limits are unknown between the possible and the impossible, what is just and what is unjust" (Durkheim, 1950).

Merton (1949) also accepted Durkheim's contention, of 'anomie' and visualised the state of 'normlessness' in society. In his well known paper, 'social structure and anomie' Merton describes the "adaptations" (the kinds of conformity and deviance) that may occur where the disciplinary effect of collective standards has been weakened.

Thus, normlessness includes a wide variety of both social conditions and psychic states, personal disorganization, cultural breakdown, reciprocal distrust, and so on. To illustrate these, one may find the people's feelings in the following sentences if the situation of normlessness prevails : "It is difficult to distinguish between right and wrong these days". "These days honest persons suffer while dishonest are rewarded," etc.

'Normlessness' has been used to refer rejection of social norms. Lack of norms is also another situation of anomie. And normlessness also refers to those conditions in which people are unaware of any clear norms governing behaviour. In short, we may conceptualize normlessness as a state or feeling that it is impossible to achieve generally accepted goals through socially approved means. The societal norms regulating behaviour are either ambiguous, or conflicting or ineffective which lead to the state of normlessness or rejection of norms. This feeling is exemplified by agreement of a respondent to a statement like, "Everything is relative and there just are not any definite rules to live by. "Such a state of mind reflects a person's estrangement from moral order and therefore, his alienation from society.

(iv) Isolation : The fourth type of alienation refers to isolation, or the feeling of being apart or different in some way. It is referred to the detachment of the intellectual from popular cultural standards. As Nettler (1957) points out, "One who has become estranged from his society and the culture it carries" is isolated (1) Isolation, as it seems does not refer to a lack of "social adjustment" of the warmth, security, or intensity of an individual's solid contacts.

Seeman (1959) has perceived this brand of alienation in terms of reward values. In his words, "the

alienated in the isolation sense are those who, like the intellectual assign low reward value to goals or beliefs that are typically highly valued in the given society". He cites examples of the intellectual, artist, or writer who prefers to detach himself or herself from such popular cultural standards as owning expensive cars, boats, and houses; watching television soap operas; or knowing the weekly football scores.

(v) Self-estrangement :-

Although, self-estrangement and isolation can be considered as the two sides of the same coin, still scholars have discussed self-estrangement as a separate and very important dimension of alienation. " Those individuals who are unable to find self-rewarding activity suffer from this form of alienation known as self-estrangement.

The self-estranged eventually view themselves as alien beings. As sociologist C. Wright Mills () noted. " one makes an instrument of himself and is estranged from it also". He further points out that if the personality becomes the instrument of an alien purpose one becomes self alienated.

Although these five dimensions of alienation are conceptually independent, but together they comprise an inter dependent and inter-related chain causing alienation. A number of sociological variables such as socio-economic status, urbanism, education, income, social participation,

etc. have been analysed as correlates of alienation. Demographic variables such as age, sex, ethnic status, etc have also been considered in this context.

In the present study, alienation of the workers of Bokaro Steel Limited has been considered from social context and not in the sense of alienation from work. The present chapter thus contains the analysis of the relationship of various correlates and alienation, and finally the relationship between alienation and commitment to work has been examined. Thus social alienation has been discussed both as dependent and independent variable.

In the present study, the social environment of the steel-employees outside the job context has been measured in terms of powerlessness, normlessness and isolation- the totality of which has been termed as alienation from society. The scale used in this study is based on Dean's analysis and is a modified and Hindi version of his scale to measure alienation. In the present scale there are altogether eighteen items, six related to each of the three dimensions- powerlessness, normlessness and isolation. It may be assumed that persons who do not feel integrated with their social environment are alienated and hence they may be less committed to their work.

In this context it has been hypothesised that alienation is negatively related to work-commitment.

To begin with, the data on alienation have been divided into three categories of lowly alienated workers, moderately alienated workers and highly alienated workers on the basis of 33 and 66 percentile. According to the result obtained, workers with a total scale value of 23-54 on alienation variable were regarded lowly alienated. Similarly, workers scoring 55-63 were regarded as moderately alienated and with 64-82 as highly alienated. Following table no.-9.1 contains the details of level of Social alienation.

Table NO.-9:1

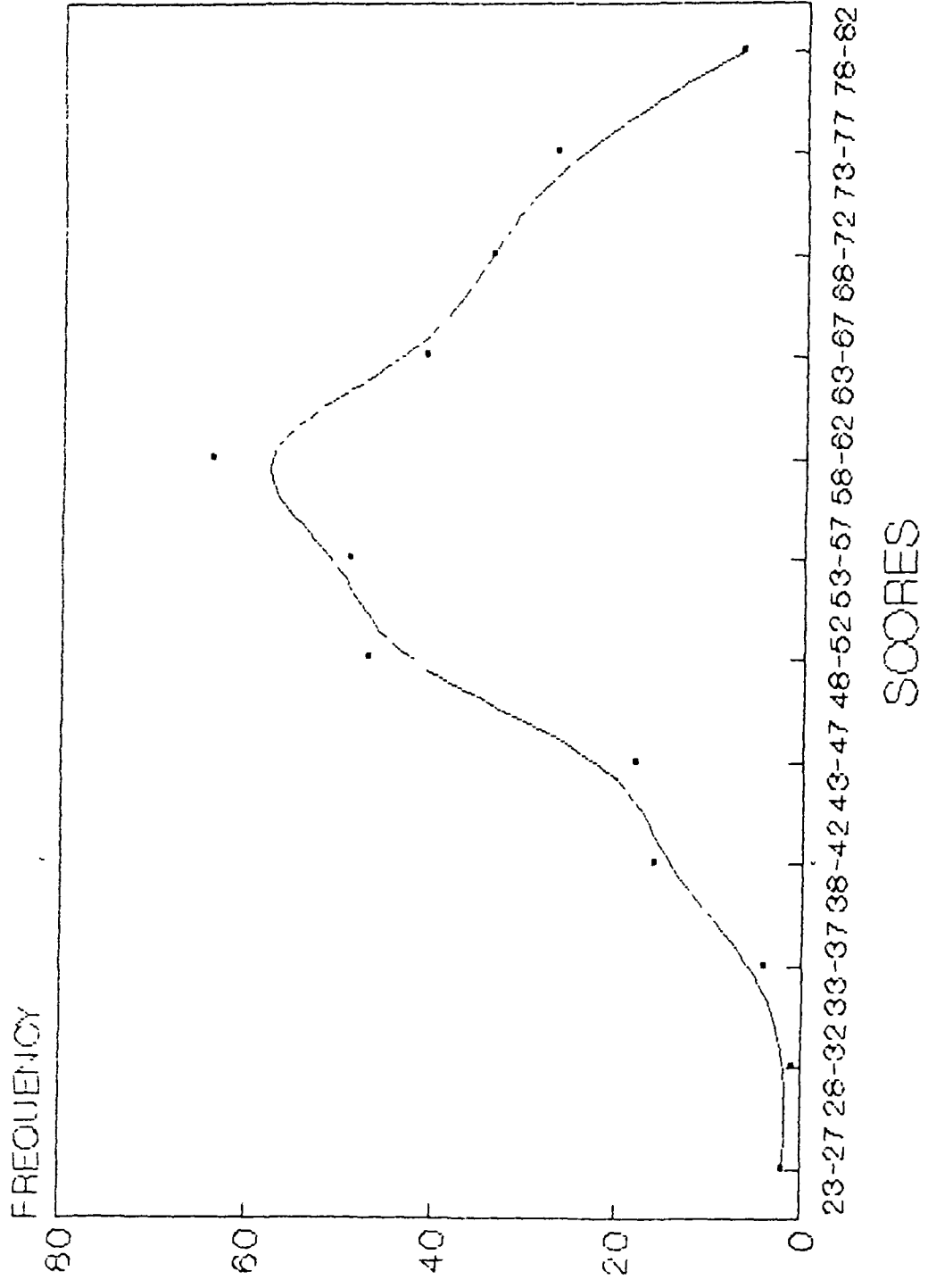
Social alienation Score

Score categories	Level of Social alienation	No. of Workers	Percentage (%)
23-54	Low	108	34.84
55-63	Moderate	104	33.55
64-82	High	98	31.67

The data indicate that workers of steel industry have lesser detachment from the society because majority of the workers have low alienation. Hence, it may be induced from this fact that when the workers of Bokaro Steel Limited are not alienated from society they may not be alienated from work also, because the impact of social life has well been established on work life.

In order to findout the relationship between different independent variables and alienation Chi-square

DISTRIBUTION OF ALIENATION SCORE



test has been computed.

At first, the data on age were cross tabulated on alienation score, because age has been indicated in various studies as important factor determining alienation. But, the Chi-square test showed that there is no significant association between age and alienation on the present study. The following table no.-9:2 explains the result very clearly.

Table No.-9:2

Age and Alienation

Alienation Score	Young age	Middle age	aged	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significant at 0.5 level
Highly Alienation	39 (39.79%)	32 (32.65%)	27 (27.56%)	98	1.372	4	Insignificant
Moderately Alienation	39 (37.5%)	37 (35.57%)	28 (26.93%)	104			
Lowly Alienation	35 (32.41%)	41 (37.96%)	32 (29.63%)	108			
Total	113	110	87	310			

The above result in the table shows that there is no significant relationship between age and alienation. It further envisages that with the advancement in age degree of alienation goes down. It suggests that among Bokaro Steel employees the young age group (below 31 years) are most alienated while aged (above 37 Years) are least alienated.

If compared with findings in regard to commitment in the present study, it seems that work commitment and social alienation are not affected by the

same variable. For example, majority of the workers of young age group (39.79%) in the present study are socially alienated but they are at the same time having high commitment to work. Again in respect of commitment, our findings suggested that with the increase in age there is consequent decrease in the level of commitment. But, in case of alienation the data shows opposite result. It suggests that with the increase in age social alienation decreases. High morale among the young age workers has been considered as a basic reason behind their high commitment. But, in regards to social alienation, it can be derived that young age workers are generally having high expectations from the society. But, society having its own limitations and normative order prevents the individuals to attain their aspiration and wishes. This induces frustration among the young workers who consider society responsible for their non-attainment or failures. This frustration ultimately leads in high social alienation among the young age workers. With the advancement in age maturity develops and people now understand their social set up and its limitations in a better way. They are now well aware with the normative pattern also. All these help in getting the workers of higher age groups more accommodated in the society. This helps in lessening of alienation among them.

If the age variable is compared with our findings in regard to work, it can be observed that age and

work-commitment are significantly related, while age and social alienation have no relationship. At one hand, the young age workers are more committed to work on the other hand, they are socially more alienated. But, both at work commitment and social alienation levels, aged workers are least committed to work as well as least alienated from society.

Thus some workers (young age workers in this study) may be found committed to their work while remaining alienated from society. The zeal and enthusiasm at young age may be helping a worker to become committed to work but high expectations from society and frustration from it may be generating social alienation among them. At the same time, as the present study reveals, some workers may remain both less committed to work and less alienated from society (the aged workers in the present study). This may be because with increase in age they might have adjusted in their social setup in a better way than young age workers resulting in less alienation among them.

If compared with the findings of other scholars, we find that like our present result Sinha (1982) also did not find significant relationship between age and alienation in his study of Bank employees. But, contrary to the present findings Sinha (1982) found that with the advancement in age degree of alienation goes up. Dean (1961) on the other hand found significant relationship between age

and alienation.

In the present study the attempt has been made to findout the relationship between educational background and alienation also. For the purpose of analysis the steel workers were divided into two categories on the basis of their educational credential. A Chi-square test was carried out to determine the relationship between educational background and social alienation. The following table no.-9:3 explains the result clearly.

Table No.-9:3

Educational background and Social alienation

Level of Alienation	Low education	High education	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significant at 0.5 level
High Alienation	48 (48.98%)	50 (51.02%)	98			
Moderate Alienation	42 (40.38%)	62 (59.62%)	104	1.699	2	Insignificant
Low Alienation	50 (46.29%)	58 (53.71%)	108			
Total	140	170	310			

As is evident from the above table no.-9:3, X² value suggests that education and social alienation are independent of each other because there is no significant relationship between the two. It can be observed from the data that with the increase in the level of education, alienation from society has increased but with the decrease in the level of education, social alienation has not decreased. Among the highly alienated majority 51.02% are

highly educated while a lesser number of them 48.98% are lowly educated. Similarly, among the moderately alienated workers also, majority 59.62% belong to high educational background while a lesser number 40.38% belong to low educational group. The fact that with the decrease in level of education alienation does not decrease is evident from the present data, if observation is made at low level of alienation. At this level majority of lowly alienated are highly educated 53.71% while a lesser percentage 46.29% are lowly educated workers. Thus high education is associated with high alienation and low education is not associated with low alienation.

The reason for high alienation among the highly educated workers can be given in terms of their failure in acknowledging the society about their capabilities. Even after high educational attainment, the workers might be feeling powerlessness and isolation leading to high alienation among them. The present finding in regard to education and alienation is not supported by the earlier studies conducted by Middleton (1963), Greer and Kube (1959), Photindis and Biggar (1962) and Aikal et al (1968) who found statistically significant and inverse relationship between education and alienation. Similarly, Sharma (1974) found that proportion of highly alienated was slightly higher among those who had little education. Thus contrary to the present finding there are significant research

evidences to show that educational level and alienation are inversely related and that more educated are less alienation persons.

Rural-urban orientation of an employee is also an important factor which influences his social alienation. It is obvious that rural employees come to urban places with different value-orientation and cultural background. Hence, to a number of sociologists urban way of life causes alienation.

To findout the relationship between rural-urban background of the workers and social alienation, the data were divided into two categories of urban and rural workers. Then, they were cross tabulated with three levels of high, moderate and low alienation. After that Chi-square test was conducted on the data. The details of the result can be seen in the following table no.-9:4.

Table No. - 9:4

Rural-Urban background and Social Alienation

Level of Alienation	Urban	Rural	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significant at .05 level
High Alienation	34 (30.91%)	64 (32%)	98			
Moderate Alienation	34 (30.91%)	70 (35%)	104	0.926	2	Insignificant
Low Alienation	42 (38.18%)	66 (33%)	108			
Total	110	200	310			

The above table no.-9:4 indicates that X^2 value suggests insignificant relationship between place of early socialization and social alienation. But, in contrast to present finding, Dean (1961), Wirth (1938) etc, found significant relationship between rural-urban background and alienation.

From the data in the above table no.-9:4 it is also obvious that among the workers with urban background majority 38.18% are associated with low alienation while equal number of workers are associated with high and moderate alienation 30.91% in each category. But, among the rural workers majority 35% are associated with moderate alienation. next among them 33% are lowly alienated workers while least among them 32% are highly alienated workers. But, among the workers of rural background the margin of difference at high and low levels of alienation is not very much pertinent rather marginal. Thus, on the basis of the above data, it can be concluded that urban workers are comparatively less alienated than rural workers in the present study. The superficiality, the anonymity and the transitory character of urban social relationship may mainly be responsible for the estrangement of the urban workers. Besides this, the upbringing in the surrounding which lacks intimacy and warmth may be causing alienation more among the workers with urban background than the workers with rural background.

If compared with other studies, we find that Meir et al (1959) Mizruchi (1960), Killan et al (1962) have suggested that there is no difference in the degree of alienation between rural and urban people. They have further pointed out that the observed differences may be attributed to some other factors say educational levels, etc. Dean (1961) has found urban people more alienated. According to him the rapid social change, impersonal relations and anonymity characterize urban social life as contrasted to rural society. Wirth (1938) has pointed out this character of urbanism leading to a void in social life.

It is generally believed that job-related variables such as income, occupational status and promotion also influence social alienation.

Income is the basic means to provide livelihood for a person. It has been considered by many scholars as a key factor determining alienation. Against this background the relationship between income and social alienation has also been examined in the present study.

For this purpose, the steel workers were divided into three categories of low, middle and high income groups through Chi-square test the statistical significance was tested. The obtained results are shown in the following table no.-9:5.

Table No.-9:5

Income and Alienation

Level of Alienation	Low Income group	Middle Income group	High Income group	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.5 level
High Alienation	28 (27.73%)	63 (37.5 %)	7 (17.07%)	98	9.839	4	Significant
Moderate Alienation	32 (31.68%)	52 (30.95%)	20 (48.78%)	104			
Low Alienation	41 (40.59%)	53 (31.55%)	14 (34.15%)	108			
Total	101	168	41	310			

As is indicated in the above table no.-9:5 the result obtained shows that there is significant relationship between income and alienation. Hence, income as a correlate of alienation has been established in this study. From the table it may further be observed that workers of middle income group show higher alienation than the workers of high & low income groups. It indicates that in the present study higher income is inverselely related with alienation.

The data regarding income and social alienation show that among the low income group majority 40.59% workers are lowly alienated, 31.68% are moderately alienated and least among them 27.73% are highly alienated. But, among the middle income group majority 37.5% are highly alienated and almost similar number 30.95% & 31.55% respectively are moderately and lowly alienated. High income is inversely related to alienation as in this group

the least 17.07% are highly alienated workers. Among this category of workers 48.78% are moderately alienated and 34.15% are lowly alienated. It may be assigned that the main reason behind the low level of alienation among the high income group lies in some Psycho-Social variables. For example, high income is generally considered as a variable which integrates the individual to community which ultimately leads him to feel more powerful and less isolated. He does not possess sense of meaninglessness. All these result in the development of his positive orientation towards society.

The reason behind the high degree of alienation among the workers of middle income group may be seen in their lesser compatibility to society. They are expected by the community members to maintain a particular standard of living. In providing education to their children and fulfillment of the material needs of their family members they have to compete with their fellow-workers in high income group. A lag between growing needs and income results in frustration. The worker starts feeling isolation and powerlessness simultaneously due to non-adaptability on economic front. This is why the workers of middle income group seen to be more alienated than any other category of workers.

If our findings are compared with other studies, it becomes clear that in most of the earlier

studies inverse relationship have been reported between income and alienation. Sinha (1982), Dean (1960), Mizrochi (1960), Meir and Bell (1959) all reported inverse relationship between income and alienation.

Occupational status acquires considerable importance in social and community life. A number of sociologists have suggested that it influences the worker's alienation from society. Therefore, an attempt has been made to findout the relationship between occupational status and social alienation. The following table no.-9:6 illustrates the details of the findings.

Table no.-9:6

Occupational status and Social Alienation

Alienation Score	Unskilled	Skilled	Supervisory	Managerial	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.5 level
High 64-82	14 (31.82%)	27 (33.33%)	46 (40.34%)	11 (15.49%)	98	17.681	6	Significant
Moderate 55-63	16 (36.36%)	20 (24.69%)	34 (29.83%)	34 (47.88%)	104			
Low 23-54	14 (31.82%)	34 (41.98%)	34 (29.83%)	26 (36.63%)	108			
Total	44	81	114	71	310			

The data in the above table no.-9:6 shows that there is significant relationship between occupational status and social alienation. The distribution of the data in different categories further explain that among unskilled majority (36.36%) workers are moderately alienated and equal

number of workers (31.82%) are highly and lowly alienated. Among the skilled majority (41.98%) are lowly alienated, next to them (33.33%) are highly alienated and least (24.69%) are moderately alienated. But, after moving to vertically upper occupational category of supervisory workers, it can be observed that majority (40.34%) of the workers in this category are highly alienated and equal member of employees (29.83% each) are moderately and lowly alienated. Thus, it can be inferred that supervisory employees are more alienated from the society than unskilled & skilled employees. But, after moving to upper most level of occupational status, it can be observed from the table that in this category the lowest number of workers (15.49%) are highly alienated and majority (47.88%) are moderately alienated. Thus, no consistency can be observed in regard to occupational status & alienation in the present data because each category has domination of different degree of alienation. To sum up, it can be concluded that unskilled workers are associated with moderate alienation, Skilled with low alienation, supervisory with high alienation and managerial workers are associated with moderate alienation. If the reason for least alienation among the workers of highest occupational status and high alienation among the supervisory workers are assigned, it would seem that persons placed in high occupational status, acquire more recognition, admiration and respect in society. These people

have considerable importance in social and community interactions. Their higher status symbolises their being more powerful. All these provide a sense of attachment and feeling of recognition in social set up. Therefore, these persons are supposedly less alienated. But, Mills (1991) explanation suggests that high occupational status occupied by white collar workers make the workers status panic and therefore they have to sell their personalities, they remain anonymous in large bureaucratic organizations, and they have to get used to the idea that every thing can and has to be marketed. As for the high alienation among supervisory workers the reason could be assigned that gap between their aspiration from society and its fulfilment cause high alienation among them.

Contrary to the present study, Sinha (1982) found that with the increase in job level there is corresponding increase in alienation. But, Sharma (1974) found that occupational status does not affect alienation.

Promotion is another means which provides a worker an opportunity to move upwards in a vertical manner. Thus, it can be supposed that a worker who gets regular promotion may have less social alienation than the workers with no promotion or little promotion.

To find out the relationship between promotion and alienation the data were cross tabulated between different opportunities of promotion and levels of

alienation. Then, Chi-square test was computed on the data. The following table no.-9:7 explain the result and the distribution of the data.

Table No.-9:7

Promotion and Social alienation

Level of Alienation	No Promotion	Moderate Promotion	High Promotion	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.5 level
High Alienation	22 (33.33%)	53 (31.18%)	23 (31.08%)	98	9.378	4	Insignificant
Moderate Alienation	24 (36.36%)	47 (27.65%)	33 (44.59%)	104			
Low Alienation	20 (30.31%)	70 (41.17%)	18 (24.33%)	108			
Total	66	170	74*	310			

From the above table no.-9:7, it can be observed that there is no relationship between promotion and alienation from society. The distribution of the data explains that getting no promotion has caused more alienation among the workers than those who have got promotion. This is because among the workers with no promotion 33.33% are highly alienated while this percentage is low 31.18% & 31.08% respectively among the promoted workers. Among the workers with no promotion majority 36.36% are moderately alienated, next number is of highly alienated workers 33.33% and lowest number of workers 30.31% in this category are lowly alienated.

The alienation starts decreasing with getting of the promotion. This is evident from the data of lowly alienated workers in which 41.17% are those workers who have got moderate promotion (1-2 promotion). Thus, among the moderately promoted workers majority are lowly alienated. But, among the workers who have got maximum number of promotions (3-4 promotions), majority are not lowly alienated, neither are they highly alienated rather they are moderately alienated (44.59%). Thus, it does not mean that after getting maximum number of promotion one will be lowly alienated from society. Hence, on the basis of the present findings it can be concluded that getting no promotion does not make a worker alienated and at the same time getting maximum promotion also does not create least alienation.

Finally, data after dealing alienation as dependent variable suggests that at social background level workers of young age, with high educational attainment and of rural background are more alienated than other categories of workers. At job background level, workers of moderate income group, of supervisory status and without any promotion are more alienated than others.

SOCIAL-ALIENATION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

A sense of alienation as the experience of one or more of the feelings of powerlessness, normlessness and isolation is not uncommon on the relation of individuals

to modern society. To feel powerless and to experience isolation is a common fact for masses in large, complex societies of unequal classes and social power. Such activities seem neither controllable nor understandable by the political and economic nodes of action available to ordinary people despite the existence of democratic institutions.

Then, alienation is no longer an issue primarily about the feelings of individuals, but an issue about conditions in society, which produce such feelings.

From the earliest days of industrial society work was supposed to be the central life-interest of industrial people, Their dominant and rewarding role. But, with the advent of present complex social conditions, it is assemed that industrial workers engage themselves only to fulfill their social obligations. Thus, for working classes work has become necessity, not a joy. The social surrounding around the workers has considerable impact on their working life and work-commitment. Alienation from society has direct bearing on the worker's work life and alienation from work can also result in estrangement from society. This is why the workers actually donot find their work to be so central to their lives. They don't either find it more rewarding than other activities. To prove this contention, Robert Dubin (1956) attempted to determine the 'central life-interests' of industrial workers. He discovered that

these interests were not in work but in human associations out side of the job. Less than ten percent of workers preferred the important relationship in the job to other possibilities.

After explaining the different factors associated with alienation, it is our primary task to explore the nature and extent of relationship between social alienation and commitment to work. As it has earlier been made clear, our study of alienation is not concerned with alienation from work rather it is related with alienation from society. In this context, alienation has been perceived as subjective feeling of the worker resulting from his response to conditions of isolation, powerlessness and normlessness from the total society. The work situation, it is obvious, constitutes, an integral part of social system. It can't be singled out from the influence of social situation.

Therefore, the impact of alienation can well be seen on individual's work-commitment. Alienation has been considered by most of the scholars as opposite to commitment. Hence, it can be assumed that the relationship between alienation and work-commitment is negative one. On this ground a person who is alienated from society might not be found committed to work.

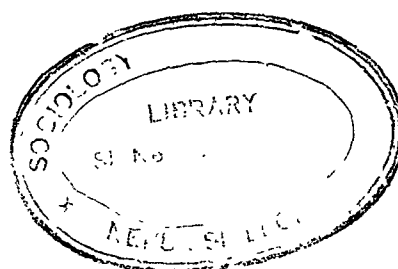
Work and non-work situations are related with each other. Therefore, what happens to one situation affects

the individual's response to other situation. Faunce (1968) argues citing research evidences that the activities of the people on the job and off the job interpersonal relationship continue to overlap. In his words, "it appears that many of the people who are alienated from work are also less likely to have acquired interest and skills that could be used to acquire social status off the job".

Again, interpretation of work-commitment in terms of general societal conditions (social alienation) is done following two agreements based on two theories viz theory of compensatory effect and theory of spill-over effect. The first and less prevalent pattern of relationship is that people compensate for them selves in not being committed to work by trying to attach himself in community life or the other way round. This can be termed as compensatory effect. A different and more prevalent relationship between response to societal conditions (eg. powerlessness, normlessness or isolation) is that one response affects the other. Work-commitment can be interpreted interms of general emotional tone of the employees because commitmnt may be conceived as a state of mind. An employee may be attached to his societal conditions, leading favourable orientation to working conditions and vice-versa. This effect can be explained as spill-over-effect which means that one spills over to the other (Iris et al., 1972).

In addition to the above contention, the relationship between alienation and commitment to work can be explained in terms of changing period of time and changes in social conditions. In this context, it can be argued that a person may be alienated from the society not from the beginning rather changes in social set up may influence his degree of alienation later on. In this regard piquent situation can well be foreseen, where an individual who is already well adjusted to his social set up may become alienated from it later on. For the emergence of alienation at this stage several reasons can be cited. Important among them are changed social set up, indifferent behaviour of community members and sudden feeling of powerlessness, normlessness or isolation. In this context, it may be mentioned that even if work and non-work situations are interdependent alienation from society might negatively affect commitment to work. But this may not necessarily be found in all cases. Commitment being a mental construct is related to value orientation also, commitment to work is not such which is inculcated among the workers all on a sudden rather it is a trait of the cultural value which is institutionalised among the individuals through the process of socialization from the very beginning. Hence, family orientation, cultural ethos and values are capable enough to affect work-commitment. If the norms of commitment are well institutionalised through socializing agencies, commitment

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to work is reflected in the behaviour pattern permanently. But, alienation is manifested in a fluctating manner. A person who is alienated at a particular time or place may not be found alienated at some other time or place. In this situation it can be argued that alienation and commitment should have no relation because a person may be socially alinated but he may be found committed to work.

All of the above conditions have their own limitations and possess a particularised view but the most conceivable and agreeable point regarding the relationship between alienation and work-commitment is that both are negatively related.

It has been found that a worker's perception about his work and society is generally similar. If he is able to adjust himself with society, he is likely to adjust with his work also. He does not view society and work-place seperately. Conciously or Sub-consciously, he conceptualises the place of work as a reflection of society as a whole. Thus is why he tries to find all those things in his work place which he has seen in the society. In this condition, those workers who find themselves helpless or weak in social frame work or those who feel that inspite of their attainments and capabilities they are misfit in the existing social framework, they are under evaluated and suppressed, hold the same view of their work also. These people always have the notion that they won't get any reward inspite of

their high skills on work. Like society, in work place also they feel helpless and incapable of improving the situation. Therefore, due to alienation from society, these workers fail to maintain high commitment to work. Thus, in this situation, a worker realises that he can't control his own destiny in the society to which he belongs. The feelings he derives from societal experiences are applied by him in work leading to his low commitment to work.

If there is adjustment between the approved goals and prescribed means to achieve them in the society, every individual gets equal chance of getting what ever reward society provides. This is an ideal condition for any society. In this condition there is complete adjustment and integration in the various Sub-system of society and it continue to work as an organized whole. But, this condition can't remain constant all the time. When the adjustment between social goals and approved means break or is weakened, the problem of disorganization and deviation arise in every society. In this condition people hardly care for the approved means in order to attain their goals. They start adopting any means even illegitimate to achieve their goals. Established norms are flouted in order to achieve the goals. But, those who stick to approved means and prescribed norms lag behind and become unsuccessful. This results in frustration and hopelessness among them and they become alienated. If Durkheim's view is applied here, it seems that

this situation of normlessness arised due to weakening of norms. If this situation is further explained on the basis of Merton's analysis then we come to the conclusion that this situation of normlesness arise due to breaking down of adjustment between approved goals and approved means, chiefly because this situation fails to provide equal opportunity for all. to quote Mckee (1974) in this context", Durkheim developed the concept of anomie to identify those situations in which power of social norms to regulate social interaction among the members of society no longer held. Merton's starting point was a significant insight, his recognition that, if a set of socially approved goals were to be efectively upheld by the members of a society, than those members had to have available to them effective socially approved means to attain those goals". Both conditions of society described by Durkheim as well as merton are conducive to increase alienation among the individuals. In this situation no 'worker can attach himself with work. He never foresees any chance of upliftment and reward. He considers that all rules are meant for weak. A resourceful person can achieve what ever he desires flouting all rules. All these feelings make a worker lowly committed to his work. If rules are not complied fully and uniformly, workers adhering to them are not suitably rewarded the apathy towards work may develop.

In that situation of alienation where the

individual feels isolated or is unable to attach himself with the society has adverse impact on the work-situation also. The person having a feeling of isolation in society may have the same feeling of isolation at work place. This feeling will always be a hindrance in the development of commitment to work. But, opposite to it, one who is attached to society always considers society as indispensable and pleasant. These workers have more attachment to work and they consider it as means of healthy enjoyment and recreation. These people definitely have more commitment to work.

Thus, all the three contentions of alienation discussed above explain the different dimensions of alienation which has some impact in influencing commitment to work. In this way, if one considers himself weak in his social set up, he considers himself misfit in the work set up also and has low work-commitment. Similarly, if a person develops the notion that normlessness has become a dominant social process then he views his workplace as manifestation of that process. In the same way if the worker has a feeling of isolation in society, he holds the same feeling in the work place also. All these lead to low work-commitment.

Thus, on the basis of the above discussion on different dimensions of alienation and work-commitment, it has been assumed in the present study that persons who do not feel integrated with their social environment rather

feel alienated will be less committed to their work. On this basis it has been hypothesized that alienation will be negatively related to work-commitment.

In this context, the objective of the present study is to find out relationship between alienation and work-commitment.

In order to find out the relationship between alienation and work-commitment two scales were used to measure the relationship between social alienation and work-commitment and then Chi-square test was conducted. The data and the result are presented in table no.-9:8.

Table No.-9:8

Social Alienaton and Commitment to work

Level of work Commitment	Lowly alie-nated	Moderately alienated	Highly alienated	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.5 level
High work Commitment	37 (43.02%)	31 (36.04%)	18 (20.94%)	86	8.405	4	Insignificant
Moderate work Commitment	36 (32.43%)	32 (28.83%)	43 (38.74%)	111			
Low work Commitment	35 (30.97%)	41 (36.28%)	37 (32.75%)	113			
Total	108	104	98	310			

The findings in the above table suggest that there is no significnat relationship between alienation and work-commitment on the basis of Chi-square value. This finding is supportd by Sharma (1971) and Groenon (1976) who

also did not find significant relationship between alienation and work-commitment. A survey of the distribution of alienation and work-commitment scores clearly show an inverse variation. The data in the table shows that with the increase in commitment to work social alienation has correspondingly decreased and in the same way with the lowering down of commitment level social alienation has increased. This is evident from the fact that among the highly committed workers majority (43.02%) are lowly alienated. Among the moderately committed workers majority (38.74%) are highly alienated. The reason for this may be that this category of workers possess moderate level of work-commitment due to various work compulsions and responsibilities but have more feelings of powerlessness, normlessness and isolation resulting in lower alienation. At low level of work commitment majority (36.28%) workers are moderately alienated. In this category, the number of lowly alienated workers are least (30.97%). Therefore, from the present data it is obvious that workers who are highly committed are lowly alienated and those who are lowly committed are comparatively more alienated. And, hence high alienation is associated with low work commitment and low alienation is associated with high work-commitment.

Thus, the findings of the present study confirm our hypothesis that there is inverse relationship between alienation and commitment to work. Therefore, it is

retained It also supports our assumption that with the increase in the level of commitment to work alienation decreases, likewise, when there is lower commitment, higher is the level of alienation.

CHAPTER-X

Organizational Commitment and Commitment to work

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

The concept of employee commitment to organizations has received increased attention in the research literature recently as both managers and organizational analysts seek ways to increase employee retention and performance. Employee commitment is important for several reasons. To begin with, recent findings indicate that commitment is often a better predictor of turnover than is job-satisfaction (Koch and Steers, 1976; Porter et al, 1974). Moreover, findings by Mowday, Porter and Dubin (1974) suggest that highly committed employees may perform better than less committed ones. Finally, it has been suggested by some that commitment may represent one useful indicator of the effectiveness of an organization (Schin, 1970; Steers, 1975). These findings have important implications for both organizational theory and the practice of management.

The term organizational commitment has been expressed by various names such as company allegiance (Purcell, 1960), Company loyalty (Lee, 1968), 'Company satisfaction' (Sharma, 1974), etc.

However, in the present study by organizational commitment is meant commitment to factory as a place of work.

Organizational commitment has conceptually been expressed by various scholars in various ways. The classical approach to deal with this concept is to perceive it as moderate and consistent relationship with the company (Becker, 1960). Becker suggested that a person invests in his organization or occupation places side-bets by staking something he values in it. The more side-bets at stake, the greater becomes the commitment to organization. Thus commitment is a matter of accrued investments.

Buchanan (1974) reviewed the meanings of the concept of organizational commitment. These include "Willingness of an employee (member) to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization", "Strong desire to stay with the organization", "degree of belongingness or loyalty to organization, "acceptance of major goals and values (of the organization) and the "positive evaluation of the organization". (cf. Marsh & Mannari, 1977).

Lee (1968) who viewed organizational commitment as company loyalty explained it as a complex attitude held by employees towards an organization. The degree of such loyalty is related to the degree of employee commitment and willingness to sacrifice his personal or group needs for those of the organization.

To Purcell (1960) it is an attitude of the worker partly about his total situation and partly towards the company.

According to Porter et al (1979). "Organizational commitment may be defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Such commitment can generally be characterized by at least three factors:

- (i) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values;
- (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and
- (iii) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization".

Sharma (1974) has called organizational commitment as company satisfaction and has meant by this the overall attitude of employees indicating their degree of favourableness towards their company. In the present study also, we have used the term organizational commitment in the same sense as perceived by Sharma (1974). Similar perception of this term has been made by Lambert (1963), Blauner (1964) & Goldthorpe (1966).

Steers (1977) has discussed several behavioural outcomes of organizational commitment. According to him, "Commitment leads to several behavioural outcomes. First, highly committed employees should have a strong desire and intent to remain with the organization. Such an outcome is implicit in the definition of commitment. Moreover, such behavioral intentions should be manifested in

subsequent employee retention or turnover. In addition, commitment would be expected to be related to attendance. Employees who are highly committed to the goals of an organization and have positive attitudes toward it should be more likely to have a strong desire to come to work and contribute towards goal attainment. Finally, commitment was hypothesized to be related to performance under the assumption that committed employees would expend greater effort on the job. The second part of the model was set forth more on an exploratory level because of the paucity of empirical data available for guidance. Even so, it was felt that knowledge of such possible outcomes was equally important as information concerning antecedent when taken together, it was hoped that this study would provide for a cross-validated test among divergent samples of the generalizability of the proposed model of organizational commitment".

The analysis of organizational commitment can't be complete unless a brief outline of "life time organizational commitment" of Japanese workers is discussed. In the following paragraphs, industrial relations in Japan and emergence of life time commitment will be discussed and a comparison will be made with the Indian industrial workers

In the present chapter organizational commitment has been dealt both as dependent and independent variable.

As is evident from chapter IV, the basic objective of the present study is to find out the relationship between organizational commitment and commitment to work. As such, organizational commitment is to be dealt with primarily as an independent variable. But, for better understanding of the concept and to discern the factors responsible for influencing organizational commitment, it has also been discussed as dependent variable. For this purpose, some social background factors such as age, education, rural-urban background and some job-related factors such as income, Occupational status, span of service, promotion and job-satisfaction have been examined.

First of all, in order to analyse an overall level of commitment five-items were selected which contained total score value ranging from 5 to 25. These were divided into the categories of high, moderate and low on the basis of 33 percentile and 66 percentile. Thus an index was developed to analyse an overall level of organizational commitment. It is presented in the following table No.-10:1.

DISTRIBUTION OF FACTORY COMMITMENT SCORE

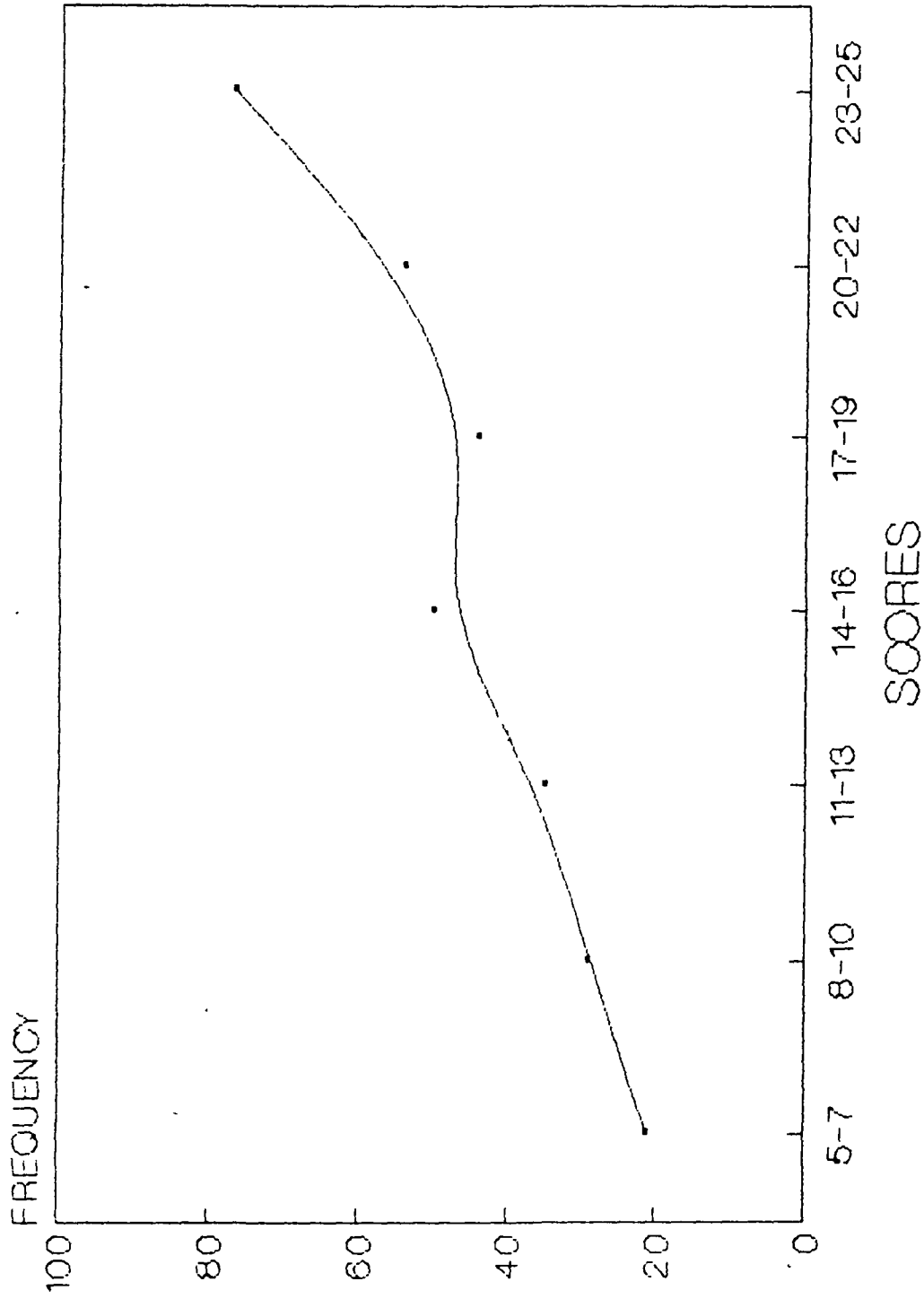


Table No.-10:1

Workers' level of organizational commitment

Score categories	Level of organizational commitment	No. of workers	Percentage (%)
5-15	Low	120	38.71
16-21	Moderate	107	34.52
22-25	High	83	26.77

N = 310

It is evident from the above table no.-10:1 that a majority (38.71%) of workers are lowly committed to the factory, 34.52% of them are moderately committed and 26.77% are highly committed. Thus, the overall score of commitment indicates that Bokaro Steel Workers are not strongly committed to the factory. If compared with other studies, we find that in Lamberts' (1963) over 76% workers showed commitment with the factory. According to him, "if the commitment is viewed as the intention to try to remain in factory employment, more than three fourth of the workers are committed". Similarly in the study of Sheth (1963) most workers expressed favourable views on company as a whole.

To deal with the social background factors at first, an attempt has been made to find out the relationship between age and organizational commitment.

The data in the following table no.-10:2 explain the details.

Table No.-10:2

Age and organizational commitment

Organizational Commitment (O.C) Score	Young age	Middle age	Aged	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High O.C	33 (39.76%)	26 (31.32%)	24 (28.92%)	83	32.630	4	Significant
Moderate O.C	40 (37.38%)	30 (28.04%)	37 (34.58%)	107			
Low O.C	40 (33.33%)	54 (45%)	26 (21.67%)	120			
Total	113	110	87				

The above table no.-10:2 indicates that there is significant relationship between age and organizational commitment on the basis of Chi-Square value. The data in the table also suggests that young age workers are more committed to their factory than others. As is obvious from the table, with the increase in age, organizational commitment has declined. This is evident from the fact that at high level of commitment majority is of young age workers (39.76%), next to them are middle age workers (31.32%) and least are aged workers (28.92%).

At moderate level of commitment also majority are young age workers (37.38%), but, in this category next number is of aged workers (34.58%) and lowest number is of middle age workers (28.04%). And, finally at low level of organizational commitment, majority belong to middle age

group (45%), then young age group (33.33%) and lowest to aged group (21.67%).

The possible reason behind the high organizational commitment of young age workers could be that the young age workers are generally optimists, they have high hopes in regard to their career development but as the worker advances in age frustration overtakes him and he starts expressing dissatisfaction. But, he does not take risk in giving up the factory in favour of other.

Our finding that organizational commitment and age are significantly related is supported by the studies of Herbiniak (1974), Lee (1971), Sheldon (1971), Alutto et al (1973), Tellinck (1974) Steers (1977) Lincoln and Kelleberg (1985), Fukani and Larson (1984). But, contrary to the present finding Sharma (1974) found that the relationship between age and organizational commitment appeared to be weakest. For example, when either wages seniority or number of children is held constant, the relationship between age and company satisfaction completely disappeared. Gupta (1982) & Ritzer and Trice (1969) also did not find significant relationship between age and organizational commitment.

Education has also been considered by several scholars such as Sharma (1974), Buchanan (1974), Porter et al (1974) etc. as one of the important factor influencing organizational commitment. In this connection it can be

assumed that workers with lower educational background should have more commitemnt to their work place rather than persons with high educational background. High educated workers may be found to be committed, to their profession and in order to get better breaks they may have work place frequently. Here Indian workers sharply differ from Japanese workers who have life time commitment to their organization (Abegglen, (1958)).

In the present study an attempt has been made to findout the relationship between education and organizat-
ional commitment. The result can be seen in the following table no.-10:3.

Table No.-10:3

**Educational background of the workers and
organizational commitment**

Organizational Commitment (O.C) Score	Low Education	High Education	Total	χ^2	d.f.	Significance at 0.01 level
High O.C	67 (80.72%)	16 (19.28%)	83	85.288	2	Significant
Moderate O.C	54 (50.46%)	53 (49.54%)	107			
Low O.C	19 (15.83%)	101 (84.17%)	120			
Total	140	170	310			

As is evident from table no.-10:3, the relationship between educational background and organizatio-

nal commitment is statistically highly significant.

The data further explain that low education is associated with high organizational commitment and high education is associated with low organizational commitment. It is evident from the fact that among the highly committed as much as 80.72% workers are having low education while only 19.28% are having high education. Although at moderate level of organizational commitment the distinction between two groups is negligible, still low educated workers show higher moderate commitment than high educated workers. And, again at low level of organizational commitment, it can be observed that 84.17% workers with high educational background are lowly committed where as only 15.83% workers with low education are placed in this category. Therefore, the data explicitly suggest that with the increase in level of education organizational commitment declines and at the same time with the decrease in the level of education level of organizational commitment increases.

It would be appropriate to mention here that like the findings of the present study, Hansmol (1974), Alutto et al (1974) Koch and Steers (1976) and Fukami & Larson (1984) also found education to be significantly related with organizational commitment. But, Steers (1977) found that education and organizational commitment were inversely related.

Place of early socialization may have an impact on organizational commitment. In order to test this fact, workers with rural and urban orientation were cross tabulated in a 3 x 2 contingency table and Chi-Square value was obtained. The details are shown in the following table no.-10:4.

Table no.-10:4

**Rural-urban background of the workers and
their organizational commitment**

Organizational Commitment (O.C) Score	Urban	Rural	Total	χ^2	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High O.C	13 (11.82%)	70 (35%)	83	21.174	2	Significant
Moderate O.C	41 (37.27%)	66 (33%)	107			
Low O.C	56 (50.91%)	64 (32%)	120			
Total	110	200	310			

It can be observed in the above table no.-10:4 that there is statistically significant relationship between rural-urban background and organizational commitment.

Besides this, the table also explains that workers with rural background are markedly more committed to factory than urban workers. For example, among the urban

workers only 11.82% are highly committed where as among rural workers 35% are highly committed. Similarly at lower level of commitment among the urban workers as much as 50.91% are lowly committed while among rural workers only 32% workers are lowly committed.

The rationale behind this can be seen in the fact that rural workers are so socialized that they develop more attachment to work place than urban-workers. They see their welfare in the welfare of the factory while urban workers are prone to mobility. They are likely to leave the factory even if they get a little chance for better placement else where. This is why in the present finding urban workers are less committed to the organization than rural workers.

The income from the organization tends to be prime center of attraction which binds a worker with the organization. Economic considerations are most important factors in determining the decision of the worker to rank his own company above or below other companies. Thus, good pay, bonus and other economic considerations constitute important elements determining favourable attitude towards organization. These are extrinsic aspects of a person's job and may be termed as job context factor. In the study conducted by Sharma (1974) three fourth of his respondents consider it most important factor determining commitment to company. In his study Sharma (1974) found that wages

influence the workers' feeling about the company. However, this influence is neither independent nor very strong. The relationship between wages and company satisfaction holds among the young but not the old, among the less senior but not the more senior and among those with fewer children but not those with many children.

To find out the relationship between income and organizational commitment, the data were grouped into 3 x 3 contingency table and Chi-Square test was computed. The details of the findings have been expressed in the following table no.-10:5.

Table No.-10:5

Income and organizational commitment							
Organizational Commitment (O.C) Score	Low Income group	Middle Income group	High Income group	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High O.C	43 (42.58%)	38 (22.62%)	2 (4.88%)	83	34.829	4	Significant
Moderate O.C	35 (34.65%)	61 (36.35%)	11 (26.83%)	107			
Low O.C	23 (22.77%)	69 (41.07%)	28 (68.29%)	120			
Total	101	168	41	310			

The Chi-Square value obtained showed significant relationship between income and organizational commitment.

The data in different categories indicate that contrary to our hypothesis low paid group is more associated with high organizational commitment than better paid. As is evident from table no.-10:5 among the low income group majority are highly committed and there is subsequent decline in their number with the decline in the level of commitment. Next percentage among them is of moderately committed workers and least percentage is of lowly committed worker. The middle income group and high income group are dominated by low commitment.

Regarding income and organizational commitment, Sharma (1974) found significant relationship between the two. Lincoln & Kalleberg (1985) found in this regard that coefficient is significant at the .001 level. Alutto et al (1973) in their study have found that organizational commitment is not affected with the increase in pay. Hansmol (1974) also found that income is not significantly related with organizational commitment.

Occupational status is important job-related variable influencing organizational commitment. In many studies (Super, 1939, Crooks, 1968), it has been found that high skill level or high occupational status is generally associated with high organizational commitment. To test this fact, an attempt has been made to find out the relationship between occupational status and organizational commitment. For this purpose the data was cross tabulated in to 3 x 4

contingency table containing scores of organizational commitment at high, moderate and low level and occupational status of unskilled skilled, supervisory and managerial workers. After that Chi-Square test was conducted to find out the relationship between the two. The details can be observed from the following table no.-10:6.

Table No.-10:6

Occupational status and organizational commitment

Organizational Commitment (O.C) Score	Unskilled	Skilled	Supervisory	Managerial	Total	χ^2	d.f.	Significance at 0.01 level
High O.C	22 (50%)	34 (41.97%)	19 (16.66%)	8 (11.26%)	83			Significant
Moderate O.C	14 (31.82%)	34 (41.97%)	45 (39.48%)	14 (19.72%)	107	66.444	6	
Low O.C	8 (18.18%)	13 (16.05%)	50 (43.36%)	49 (69.02%)	120			
Total	44	81	114	71	310			

The above table no.-10:6 suggests that there is significant relationship between occupational status and organizational commitment. The distribution of the data further suggest that with the enhancement in the level of occupation organizational commitment has declined. Thus, in the present study unskilled workers (lowest occupational status) are associated with high organizational commitment while managerial workers (highest occupational status) are associated with low organizational commitment. This is

evident from the fact that among the unskilled workers majority (50%) are highly committed to their organization, among the skilled a lesser number 41.97% are highly committed, among the supervisory this percentage goes down to 16.66% and finally among the managerial workers only 11.26% are at this level of commitment with their organization. At the same time when the lower level of organizational commitment is examined, it can be observed that among the managerial workers, majority 69.02% are lowly committed to their organization, among the supervisory this percentage is 43.86%, among skilled workers the least 16.05% are lowly committed and among the unskilled almost similar population 18.18% are lowly committed. Thus, among the higher occupational status majority are lowly committed to their organization while among the lower occupational status majority are highly committed.

The reason behind this could be the non-attachement of the workers belonging to high occupational status.

If would be appropriate to mention here that this category of workers have also been found lowly committed to work as well as lowly satisfied with the job. Hence, being lowly committed to organization is a natural expression to their attitude in this regard. Contrary to them, the workers of lower occupational status are associated with high work commitment and high

job-satisfaction. They are also satisfied with their income. All these might have induced high organizational commitment among them.

If compared with other studies we find that contrary to our findings Lambert (1963), in his study of production and maintenance workers of Poona, did not find any relationship between occupational rank and satisfaction with the company. Similarly, Blauner (1960) observed that high skilled workers showed strong identification with the company. But, Super (1939) and Fairchild (1940) in their studies have reported a positive relationship between skill level and attitude towards company, ie, the higher the skill the more favourable the attitude. Unbrock (1939) also found that foreman generally had more favourable attitudes towards the company than did the workers. Crooks (1968) has studied this problem in the context of white collar and bluecollar workers and has come to the conclusion that with the increase in certain facilities for blue-collar workers, they tend to develop more commitment for their factory but previously company loyalty was subject for white collar workers only.

Span of service is also one of the important job-related variables determining employees' commitment to their organization as it has often been said that real commitment emerges only after a worker has spent sufficient amount of time on work. It is also believed that a worker

with long span of service develops psychological attachment with the factory. Sometimes, his attachment is so strong with his organization that he considers pay promotion and other rewards secondary and relates himself with organizational goals and achievements primarily. If given opportunity to leave the factory for better placement or facilities, he prefers to stay in the mother organization. This sense of attachment commonly develops due to long tenure of service in the same organization. Sharma (1974) hold the same view on the basis of the findings from his study.

To find out the relationship between span of service and organizational commitment, the workers were divided into three categories of short, moderate and long span of service on the basis of their work-experience in the factory. After cross-tabulating the data into a 3 x 3 contingency table, Chi-Square value was obtained to determine the relationship between span of service and organizational commitment.

The details can be seen in the following table no.-10:7.

Table NO.-10:7

Employees' Span of service and their
organizational commitment

Organizational Commitment (O.C) Score	Short Span	Moderate Span	Long Span	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High O.C	34 (33.01%)	37 (26.81%)	12 (17.39%)	83	15.132	4	Significant
Moderate O.C	28 (27.18%)	59 (42.75%)	20 (28.98%)	107			
Low O.C	41 (39.18%)	42 (30.44%)	37 (53.63%)	120			
Total	103	138	69	310			

As is evident from the above table no.-10:7 the Chi-Square value suggests that there is significant relationship between span of service and organizational commitment. The distribution of the data further explains the fact that contrary to our hypothesis workers with short span of service are associated with high organizational commitment and long span with low organizational commitment. It is also evident that with the increase in the tenure of service organizational commitment has declined. It can be observed from the data that among the workers with short span of service 33.01% are having high organizational commitment, among the workers with moderate span of service 26.81% are highly committed to their organization while among the long span workers only 17.39% are highly committed to their organization.

At moderate level of organizational commitment, majority of moderate span workers 42.75% are placed while among short and long, span of workers almost similar percentage of workers ie. 27.18% and 28.98% are placed respectively. At low level of commitment, majority are of long span workers (53.63%) while comparatively a small percentage of workers with moderate and short span of service are lowly committed, their percentage being 30.44 and 39.18 respectively. But, Purcell (1960) in his study found that old employees were more favourable than new comers to their factories. Hansmol (1974) and Gupta (1982) also had the same findings that workers with long span of service showed more allegiance to the company than the workers of short span of service. But, regarding the relationship between the two, similar to the findings of the present study, Purcell (1960) , Sharma (1974), Hansmol (1974) and Gupta (1982) found significant relationship between span of service and organizational commitment.

Career orientation is considered a key factor for a worker to make him stay in the same organization. If there is sufficient promotional opportunities, it is expected to encourage the worker's identification with the company. In the present study, we have tried to find out the relationship between promotion and organizational commitment. For this purpose, the workers were divided in to three categories on the basis of promotional opportunities

viz workers with no promotion, workers with moderate promotion and workers with high promotion. After cross tabulating the data on the basis of the level of organizational commitment into a 3 x 3 contingency table, Chi-Square test was applied to find out the significance between promotion and organizational commitment.

The following table no.-10:8 contains the details.

Table No.-10:8

Promotion and organizational commitment

Organizational Commitment (O.C) Score	No Promotion	Moderate Promotion	High Promotion	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High O.C	19 (28.78%)	42 (24.70%)	22 (29.73%)	83			Insignificant
Moderate O.C	18 (27.28%)	59 (54.71%)	30 (40.54%)	107	4.556	4	
Low O.C	29 (43.94%)	69 (40.59%)	22 (29.73%)	120			
Total	66	170	74	310			

The Chi-Square value as shown in the above table No.-10:8 shows insignificant relationship between promotion and organizational commitment. Therefore, it can be said on the basis of the present findings that promotion does not determine organizational commitment. If a worker has an attachment with the factory promotion or no promotion, he will continue to be loyal to the factory. The data further explain the fact high promotion is associated

with moderate organizational commitment, because, majority of the workers (40.54%) in this group are moderately committed. Moderately promotion is also associated with moderate organizational commitment (54.71%) but no promotion category definitely is associated with low organizational commitment as majority of the workers in this category are lowly committed (43.94%). Hence, it can be said that no promotion induces low organization commitment among the workers but high promotion does not make them highly committed rather moderately committed to the factory.

Blauner (1964) in his study conducted in this regard found higher loyalty of the workers towards their company was due to better promotional opportunities. He thus hold the view that "Promotional opportunities encourage identification with the company". Unlike the present study steers (1977) reported significant relationship between , promotion and organizational commitment.

Job-satisfaction is one of the most important factor influencing organizational commitment. It is said to be positively associated with organizational commitment. It can be assumed that the workers who are satisfied with the job are generally satisfied with their organization also. People who fail to have company allegiance are generally those who are dissatisfied with their work (Purcell, 1960). Therefore, in this context, in order to detrmine the relationship between job-satisfaction and organizational

commitment the data were cross tabulated in to 3 x 3 contingency table and relationship between the two was tested through Chi-Square test.

The data and the result can be seen in the following table no.-10:9.

Table No.-10:9

Job-satisfaction and organizational commitment

Organizational Commitment (O.C) Score	Low Job-satisfaction	Moderate Job-satisfaction	High Job-satisfaction	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.01 level
High O.C	6 (7.23%)	19 (22.89%)	58 (69.88%)	83			Significant
Moderate O.C	30 (28.04%)	46 (42.99%)	31 (28.97%)	107	87.298	4	
Low O.C	69 (57.50%)	39 (32.50%)	12 (10%)	120			
Total	105	104	101	310			

The above table no.-10:9 shows that there is significant relationship between job-satisfaction and organizational commitment. This is also evident that with the increase in the level of job-satisfaction organizational commitment level subsequently increases and with the subsequent decrease in the level of Job-satisfaction organizational commitment also decreases. Among the workers having high organizational commitment majority 69.88% are highly satisfied with the job. Among the workers having moderate organizational commitemnt majority 44.99% are

moderately satisfied with the job. And in the same way the workers with low organizational commitment the majority 57.50% are having low job-satisfaction. Thus, the data shows that job-satisfaction and organizational commitment are not only significantly related but high organizational commitment is associated with high job-satisfaction, moderate organizational commitment with moderate job-satisfaction and low organizational commitment with low Job-satisfaction. Therefore, our hypothesis that high organizational commitment induces high Job-satisfaction is retained.

Similar to present finding Purcell (1960), Hansmol (1974), Alutto, et al (1973), Steers (1977) Lincoln & Kalleberg (1985) found significant relationship between job-satisfaction and organizational commitment. Stone and Porter (1975) have suggested that Job-characteristics may also influence commitment to factory to some degree although the influence is probably more pronounced for other affecting responses like Job-satisfaction. Marsh and Mannari (1977) also investigated Job-satisfaction as an independent variable to findout the causes of life time commitment of Japanese workers and reported highly significant relationship between job-satisfaction and organizationa commitment.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

As we have already explained our main objective in this chapter is to find out the relationship between organizational commitment and commitment to work. Therefore, here we would explain the relationship between these two, keeping commitment to work as dependent variable and organizational commitment as independent variable. Sharma (1974), in this context, has pointed out that commitment to work and favourableness to the company though related with each other are, however, two different things produced by different set of factors. For example, increase in wage may promote factory commitment but may not promote work-commitment. In a comparative analysis of commitment to work and commitment to organization, Sharma, S.L. (1971) is of the opinion that while work-commitment is influenced more by Job-content factors, ie, intrinsic aspects of the job, factory commitment is influenced by job-context factors, ie, extrinsic aspects of the job. The data in his study explain this very fact and hence he has concluded that job content factors play only a minor role in affecting commitment to company. Instead, it seems to be influenced primarily by what Herzberg et al (1959) have called the hygiene factors or extrinsic aspects of the job.

In regard to the relationship between organizational commitment and commitment to work the hypothesis has been advanced that these two are significant-

tly related and that workers who tend to be committed to work also remain committed to organization.

To discern the fact regarding this null hypothesis, the data were tabulated into 3 x 3 contingency table on the basis of the scores of commitment to work and organizational commitment.

To find out the relationship between the two, Chi-Square test was conducted. The details of the findings can be seen in the following table no.-10:10.

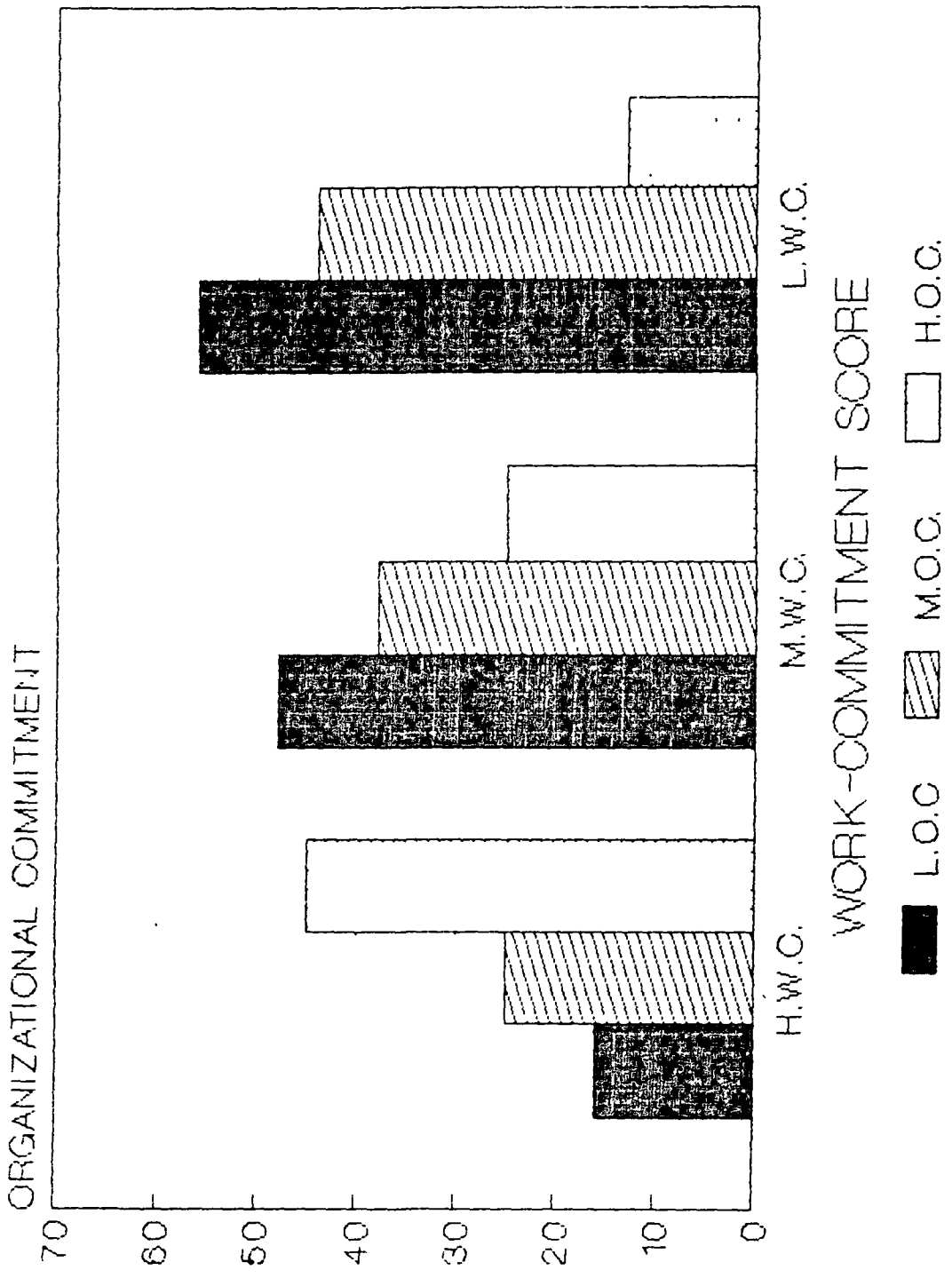
Table No.-10:10

Organizational commitment and commitment to work							
Work-Commitment Score	Low organizational commitment	Moderate organizational commitment	High organizational commitment	Total	X ²	d.f.	Significance at 0.05 level
High Work-Commitment	16 (18.61%)	25 (29.07%)	45 (52.32%)	86	57.992	4	Significant
Moderate Work-Commitment	48 (43.24%)	38 (34.23%)	25 (22.53%)	111			
Low Work-Commitment	56 (49.55%)	44 (38.94%)	13 (11.51%)	113			
Total	120	107	83	310			

The table no.-10:10 makes it clear that there is strong association between organizational commitment and commitment to work as Chi-Square value 57.992 suggests statistically significant relationship between the two at 0.001 level of significance.

The data further reveal that high work-commitment is associated with high organizational commitment

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND COMMITMENT TO WORK



and low-work commitment with low organizational commitment. Hence, both are positively related with each other. As is evident from the table among the workers with high commitment to work a majority of 52.32% are highly committed to the organization, a lesser number among them 29.07% belong to category of moderate commitment to the organization and the lowest number only 18.61% belong to low commitment to organization category.

Among the workers who are moderately committed to work majority 43.24% are lowly committed to organization, then 34.23% are moderately committed to organization and the least 22.53% are highly committed to organization. Thus moderate work commitment is not associated with moderate organizational commitment rather it is associated more with low organizational commitment. And, at last among the workers with low level of work-commitment maximum 49.55% have low level of organizational commitment also, a lesser number 38.94% is of workers having moderate organizational commitment and the lowest 11.51% is the number of those workers who are highly committed to organization. Thus, it is evident that with increase in the level of work-commitment organizational commitment increases and with the decrease in the level of work-commitment there is subsequent decrease in the level of organizational commitment.

Workers who are highly committed to work generally consider every aspect of their work-related

situation very important. They do not only attach them psychologically with their work but take all possible care to perform their duties in a least possible way. They consider the aims and the progress of their organization as their own and hence work dedicatedly for it. Thus, work-commitment and organizational commitment are very much interrelated concept although used in different contexts. Therefore, it is obvious that workers who are highly committed to work should also be highly committed to organization. Like ours, study, Sharma (1974) also found positive association between company satisfaction and commitment to work.

To sum up this chapter, we can say that organizational commitment is an important factor determining commitment to work. In the present study, it has been dealt both as dependent and independent variable. While analysing it as dependent variable it was found that age, educational background, rural-urban orientation, income, occupational status, span of service and job-satisfaction are significantly related with organizational commitment but no significant relationship was found between promotion and organizational commitment.

When organizational commitment was analysed as independent variable as a factor determining commitment to work, it was found to be significantly and positively related with work-commitment.

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CHAPTER-XI

Summary
and
Conclusion

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The present research work is a sociological study on commitment to work. In recent times the need for committed work is being felt tremendously. After industrial revolution, especially after World War II it is being thought to be essential for the development and progress of any nation. In the present study the concepts of work, Commitment and commitment to work have been conceptualised .

The Concept of work has been expressed differently at different times. To the ancient Greeks work was curse and nothing more. Greek, He brews also thought of work as a painful necessity but added the belief that it was a product of original sin. Early Christians followed this tradition, but added a positive function. Work was now considered, necessary in order to share what is produced with one's needy brothers. But no intrinsic value was recognized in work-it was still only means to earn one's own livelihood. But, the early writings of church and later reformation movement institutionalized the importance of work and it was being taken in high esteem. In early Hindu Society, work had no identity of its own. Society was compartmentalized on the basis of birth and one did what one was destined to do. The worker was dependent and servant of

the social structure. Work itself was considered both lowly and impure. But, this notion of work was not the original Indian concept of work. It was propagated and practiced by vested interest in order to exploit. Here in India work has always been considered very important. The teaching of Geeta has emphasised on incessant working, working for the good of all but without any attachment. Similarly, the political and Social leaders of India have always been emphasizing the values of work and the most prominent among them are Vivekanand & Gandhi who developed a whole philosophy of work. This philosophy was not a creation of either Vivekanand & Gandhi, it was an expression of traditional thinking on the subject by Indians in general through the centuries. Conceptually, work is a basic condition of the existence and survival of human life. It is independent of any particular form of society. It is one of the most absorbing things men can think and talk about. It fills the greater part of the working day for most of us. The term commitment conceptually has been used to explain the fact of consistent line of activity or the process through which individual interests become attached to carrying out of Socially organized patterns of behaviour.

And by commitment to work is meant the consistent line of activity in one's own work irrespective of its nature.

The concept of commitment of the workers to industrial work has been analysed by many industrial sociologists. In the beginning commitment has been regarded as posing a problem especially in Indian context mainly because of the rural orientation of the industrial workers. Only those workers were considered committed workers who had completely severed his village ties and settled permanently to industrial urban area. A complete motivational transformation was a precondition for a worker to reach a stage where he can be called committed to industrial work. Later on, this notion changed and industrial sociologists also took under consideration various other social and economic factors to determine the workers' commitment to work. Further more, new dimensions of absenteeism, turnover, indiscipline, seniority, etc. were also added to explain this concept. However, in the present study by work-commitment is meant the state of mind devoted towards work performance without attaching one self towards any material rewards.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESIS

The present study was conducted with the objective to findout the factors which determine commitment to work. In this context, five dimensions were chosen for inquiry. These are :

(a) Social background of the workers and commitment to work.

- (b) organizational structure and job-background factors and commitment to work.
- (c) Job-satisfaction and Commitment to work.
- (d) Social alienation of the employes and commitment to work.
- (e) Organizational Commitment of the employes and commitment to work.

For each of the five dimensions chosen for study, the following objectives were kept in mind while collecting the data :

- (i) To discern the relationship between employees' age and commitment to work.
- (ii) To find out the relationship between family orientation and work-commitment.
- (iii) To identify the relationship between workers' educational background and commitment to work.
- (iv) To explore the relationship between rural-urban background and commitment to work.
- (v) To explore the relationship between employees' income and commitment to work.
- (vi) To find out the relationship between occupational status of the employees and work-commitment.
- (vii) To investigate the relationship between Span of service and commitment to work.
- (viii) To discern the relationship between Promotion and commitment to work.

- (ix) To know the relationship between physical working condition and commitment to work.
- (x) To know the relationship between job-satisfaction and work-commitment.
- (xi) To find out the relationship between social alienation and commitment to work.
- (xii) To explore the relationship between organizational commitment and commitment to work.

Related to the above objectives following hypothesis were formulated :

- (i) Aged workers will be more committed to work than young age workers.
- (ii) There will be no difference in commitment scores of workers of tradition and modernity oriented families.
- (iii) Formal education does not affect workers' work-commitment because socialization process and cultural ethos inculcate work-values and work culture among them and not the level of education.
- (iv) Cultural transmission of values influence work-commitment and not the place of early socialization. Therefore, commitment to work will neither be associated to rural background nor to urban background.
- (v) Employees who are in higher income groups will be more committed to work than those who are in lower income group.

- (vi) Workers having higher occupational status will be more committed to work than workers of lower occupational status.
- (vii) Employees with longer span of service will be more committed than the workers of shorter span of service.
- (viii) Employees who have sufficient promotional avenues will be more committed to work than the workers having no or very meager promotional opportunities.
- (ix) Persons working in different plants will differ at commitment level. Hence, the workers performing work in difficult physical condition will have lesser commitment to work than workers performing duties at comfortable physical condition.
- (x) Job-satisfaction will be positively related with work-commitment and that workers with high job-satisfaction will have high work-commitment.
- (xi) Social - alienation will be negatively related to work-commitment.
- (xii) Organizational commitment and commitment to work will be positively related. Therefore, workers with high level of organizational commitment will also be highly committed to work.

RESEARCH DESIGN :

The employees of Bokaro Steel Ltd working in it's works division constituted the present universe. From

this universe a sample of 310 workers was drawn with the help of systematic regular method of sampling.

The individual structured interviewing was used for data collection from the workers selected in the sample. The interview schedule was divided into three parts. The first part consisted of nominal scale to measure demographic and background variables of the respondents. These variables were treated as independent variables at the time of analysis. The second part consisted of scales to measure respondents' commitment to work, job-satisfaction, social alienation and organizational commitment. And, the third part included items and statements to explore the family culture of the respondents'.

Job-satisfaction scale consisted of 17-items having high discrimination power. These 17-items were selected from the original job-satisfaction scale developed by Sinha, G.S. (1974).

10-items were used to measure work-commitment of the ten seven are positive and three are negative items.

Social alienation scale consisted of 18-items. These items consisted of three dimensions of alienation, i.e. powerlessness, isolation and normlessness. Sinha, A.K. (1984) reported the relationship of total alienation scale as .78 when corrected.

5-closed items were used to measure commitment towards the organization. Of five items one was

negative and four were positive.

The interview-schedule was prepared in Hindi for the convenience of the respondents.

Chi-Square test was computed to find out the relationship between independent and dependent variables.

Suitable graphs and tables have also been used to express the data clearly.

FINDINGS :

(A) SOCIAL-BACKGROUND FACTORS AND COMMITMENT & WORK :

- (i) There is statistical significant relationship between age and commitment to work. Workers comparatively at young age are more committed than the workers of middle age or old age.
- (ii) There is statistically insignificant relationship between commitment score and workers' family orientation. Difference between two categories of workers belonging to tradition and modernity oriented families in regard to work-commitment appears to be meager.
- (iii) Educational background and commitment to work are significantly related, But high education is not found to be associated with high commitment rather low education is associated with high commitment.
- (iv) No significant relationship could be found between rural-urban background of the workers and their commitment to work. Further, urban orientation is

associated with low work-commitment while rural orientation is associated with moderate work-commitment

**(B) ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE & JOB-BACKGROUND VARIABLES
AND COMMITMET TO WORK:**

- (v) Income and commitment to work are significantly related. The high income group is associated with low work-commitment, a majority, 56.09% workers in this group are lowly committed to work. Low income group is associated with moderate work commitment because majority 37.62% workers of this group are moderately committed to work.
- (vi) There is significant relationship between occupational status and commitment to work. Further, higher job-status is not conducive to higher level of work-commitment.
- (vii) There exists no significant relationship between Span of service and work-commitment. Workers with short Span of service are more committed to work than workers with longer Span of service. With the increase in the Span of service the level of commitment has decreased.
- (viii) Promotion and commitment to work are not significnatly related. Workers with no promotion are more committed to work than the workers who got promotion. Increase in the promotion has resuted in decrease in work commitment. Therefore, promotion is not conducive to work-commitment.

(ix) There is significant relationship between physical working condition and commitment to work. The workers working in more hazardous condition have higher degree of commitment than the workers working in less hazardous plants. Not only so but also that with the betterment of physical working conditions, the level of commitment to work has consecutively declined.

(C) JOB-SATISFACTION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK:

(x) When analysed as dependent variable the finding show that education, rural-urban background, income, occupational status, and organizational commitment are significantly related to job-satisfaction while age, promotion and social alienation are insignificantly related to job-satisfaction.

After the analysis of job-satisfaction as an independent variable it has been explored that there is significant relationship between job-satisfaction and commitemnt to work. The workers who are highly satisfied with the job are highly committed to work. Thus both job-satisfaction and work-commitment are positively related.

(D) SOCIAL ALIENATION AND COMMITMENT TO WORK:

(xi) When dealt as dependent variable, income & Occupational status are having significant relationship with social alienation. But age, education. rural-urban background

and promotion are insignificantly related to social alienation.

After dealing social alienation as an independent variable we find that there is significant relationship between social alienation and commitment to work. There is also inverse relationship between the two and therefore, with the increase in commitment to work social alienation has correspondingly decreased.

(E) ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND WORK-COMMITMENT:

And (xii) In regard to the relationship between different independent variables and organizational commitment, The results show that age, education, rural-urban background income, occupational status, Span of service, and job-satisfaction are significantly related with organizational commitment while promotion is insignificantly related to it.

After exploring the relationship between organizational commitment and work-commitment it becomes clear that there is statistically significant relationship between the two. There is also positive relationship between them and that high organizational commitment induces high work-commitment among the workers.

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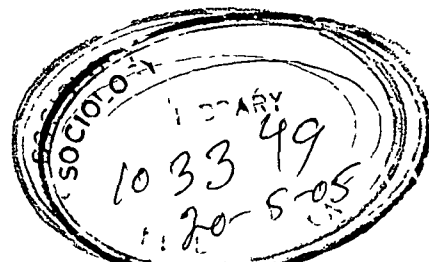
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APPENDIX

र्य के प्रति पाबंदी एवं रूचि : एक समाजशास्त्रीय अध्ययन

राजादी के बाद भारत में औद्योगिक विकास तेजी से हो रहा है। इसीलिए उद्योग विशेष रूप से उल्लेखनीय कर्तु औद्योगिक समाज के सामने उत्पादन सम्बन्धी कई समस्याएँ हैं, जिनमें काम के प्रति प्रतिबद्धता एक समस्या है। औद्योगिक विकास के लिए इस समस्या पर गम्भीरतापूर्वक सोचने की जरूरत है। इसके कई हैं। उन्हीं कुछेक पहलुओं से सम्बन्धित आपकी राय जानने आया हूँ।

आपको इस काम को पूरा करने के लिए भागलपुर विश्वविद्यालय, भागलपुर एवं विश्वविद्यालय अनुदान आयोग, ळ्ली से आर्थिक एवं अवकाश सम्बन्धी सुविधाएँ दी गई हैं। आपके द्वारा दी गई सूचनाएँ अत्यन्त गोपनीय ायेगी। इनका उपयोग काम के प्रति प्रतिबद्धता को समझने के लिए किया जायेगा। अतः आप अपनी ापूर्वक निःसंकोच भाव से दें।

सहयोग के लिए हार्दिक धन्यवाद।

प्रमोद कुमार सिन्हा
ध्याख्याता, समाजशास्त्र विभाग
मारवाड़ी महाविद्यालय, भागलपुर
टीचर फेलो, यू० जी० सी०

समाजशास्त्र विभाग, पटना महाविद्यालय, पटना विश्वविद्यालय, पटना

१. उच्च २. स्त्री/पुरुष ३. धर्म.....
- राति - - - - - ५. मातृभाषा - - - - -
- बाहिक स्थिति अविवाहित विवाहित विधुर/विधवा - - - परित्यक्त/परित्यक्ता - - -
- आपने कहां तक शिक्षा पाई है ?
- क रूप से आप किस क्षेत्र के निवासी हैं ? (क) शहर..... (ख) अर्द्धशहर/कस्बा..... (ग) गांव.....
- क) आप अभी किस विभाग में हैं ? - - -
- ख) आप किस तरह का काम करते हैं ? - - -
- ग) आप किस पद पर हैं ? - - -
- स कारखाने में आपकी पहली नियुक्ति किस रूप में तथा किस वर्ष हुई थी ? - - -
- क) नियुक्ति - - - - - (ख) वर्ष - - - - -
- ब तक आपको कितनी बार तरक्की दी जा चुकी है ? - - -

१२. क्या इस कारखाने में नियुक्ति के पहले आप किसी दूसरे कारखाने में काम करते थे ?

यदि हाँ, तो :—कारखाने का नाम पद का नाम कितने समय तक

१.

२.

१३. पहले कारखाने का काम छोड़कर आप इस कारखाने में क्यों आए ?

१४. आपका मासिक वेतन — — मूल वेतन— ... — महंगाई आदि

१५. क्या आप अपने वेतन से संतुष्ट हैं ? संतुष्ट हैं ... अनिश्चित ... असंतुष्ट है —

१६. क्या आपको अमदनी के दूसरे जरिया भी हैं :—जैसे खेती-बारी, मकान किराया, व्यवसाय में साम्प्रदायी इत्यादि ?

१७. आय के अन्य स्रोतों से औसतन प्रतिमाह कितनी आमदनी हो जाती है ? — — —

१८. क्या आप संयुक्त परिवार के सदस्य हैं ? यदि हाँ, तो क्या परिवार को योगदान के रूप में रुपये भी देते हैं ? ...

१९. क्या संयुक्त परिवार के कुछेक सदस्यों जैसे छोटा भाई, भतिजा, बहन इत्यादि की जिम्मेवारी आप पर है ?

२०. आपकी दृष्टि में आपको अपना परिवार कैसा लगता है (जो लागू हो उन्हें घेर दें ।)

(क) लगन से काम करने को बहुत महत्व देते हैं ।

(ख) अपने से काम करने को हेय दृष्टि से देखते हैं ।

(ग) अपने काम के लिए दूसरों पर चिभर करते हैं ।

(घ) अधिकांश लोग काम करने से कतराते हैं तथा काम न करने का बहाना बनाते हैं ।

(ङ) अधिकांश लोग आराम पसंद हैं ?

(च) उद्यम तथा परिश्रम पर काफी बल देते हैं ?

(छ) समय पर काम करने के लिए तत्पर रहते हैं ।

(ज) काम करने के बजाय भाग्य पर अधिक भरोसा करते हैं ।

(झ) ईमानदारी से रोजी कमाने पर विशेष बल देते हैं ।

(ठ) अधिकांश लोग काम को मजबूरी/बन्धन मानते हैं ।

२१. क्या आपके परिवार में पुराने रीति-रिवाजों एवं प्रथाओं को अधिक प्रधानता दी जाती है ? हाँ ... नहीं

२२. क्या आपके परिवार में लड़के एवं लड़कियों के साखन-पाखन, शिक्षा इत्यादि में किसी तरह का भेद-भाव बरता जाता है ?

(क) किसी तरह का भेद भाव नहीं किया जाता है ।

(ख) थोड़ा भेद-भाव किया जाता है ।

(ग) बहुत ज्यादा भेद-भाव किया जाता है ।

२३. नीचे कुछ सवाल दिये गये हैं। जो आपके विषय में जितना लागू होता है उसके अनुरूप अंक को घेरें। "पूर्ण सहमति" के लिए ५, "सहमति" के लिए ४, "अनिश्चित" के लिए ३, "असहमति" के लिए २ तथा "पूर्ण असहमति" के लिए १ को घेरें।

(क) क्या आप सोचते हैं कि यदि आप कोई दूसरा काम करते, तो आपको योग्यता का अधिक उपयोग होता ?	४	५	१	३	२
(ख) क्या आपको अपने पेशे पर गर्व है ?	५	३	२	१	४
(ग) क्या आपको अपने वर्तमान काम में मन लगता है ?	३	४	५	२	१
(घ) क्या काबू करते समय आप ऐसा महसूस करते हैं कि समय धीरे-धीरे बीत रहा है ?	२	४	५	३	१
(ङ) क्या आप अपने वेतन से सन्तुष्ट हैं ?	२	५	४	३	१
(च) क्या आप समझते हैं कि यहाँ कारखाने में कर्मचारियों के लिए पर्याप्त सुविधाएँ हैं ?					
(छ) यदि मौजूदा वेतन के बराबर वेतन पर दूसरा काम मिले तो क्या यह काम छोड़ देना पसन्द करेंगे ?	५	३	१	४	२
(ज) मेरा काम बड़ा नीरस है।	४	२	३	५	१
(झ) दूसरों से ज्यादा मैं अपने काम से खुश हूँ।	३	२	५	१	४
(ञ) मेरा काम मन बहुलाव का अच्छा साधक है।	२	४	३	१	५
(ट) मुझे बहुत अफसोस है कि मैंने अपने लिए यह काम चुना।	३	१	४	५	२
(ठ) मेरा काम आनन्ददायक है।	४	२	१	५	३
(ड) यह काम करने का मुझे मन नहीं करता।	४	५	३	१	२
(ड) यह काम करने का मुझे मन नहीं करता।	५	१	४	२	३
(ड) अपने काम में मुझे उत्साह का अनुभव होता है।	४	५	१	३	२
(घ) काम पर जाने के लिए अपने को जबरदस्ती तैयार करना पड़ता है।	१	२	४	५	३
(त) मैं इस काम में इसलिए आया क्योंकि मुझे दूसरा काम नहीं मिला।	५	४	१	३	२
(प) क्या आप खुश हैं कि आप इस कारखाने के कर्मचारी हैं।	१	२	३	५	४

२४. क्या आप किसी यूनियन के सदस्य हैं? यदि हाँ तो,

यूनियन का नाम

पद

सदस्यता की अवधि

२५. अपने अनुभवों के आधार पर बतायें कि क्या यूनियन से इसके सदस्यों को हानि के बनिस्पत लाभ अधिक है। हाँ — — नहीं — —

२६. क्या यूनियन से मजदूरों में अनुशासनहीनता को बढ़ावा मिलता है ?

हाँ — —

नहीं — —

२७. क्या यूनियन से मजदूरों में कर्मचारियों में पाबन्दी की भावना का ह्रास होता है ?

हाँ — —

नहीं — —

२८. क्या यूनियन की वजह से मनेजमेंट तथा मजदूरों में मयड़ा होता रहता है ?

हाँ — —

नहीं — —

२९. नीचे कुछ सवाल दिये गये हैं। जो आपके विषय में जितना लागू होना है उसके अनुरूप अंक को घेरे। "पूर्ण सहमति" के लिए ५, "सहमति" के लिए ४, "अनिश्चित" के लिए ३, "असहमति" के लिए २ तथा "पूर्ण असहमति" के लिए १ को घेरे।

(क) क्या आप अपना काम पूरे लगन से करते हैं ?	५	४	३	१	३
(ख) क्या आप अपने को एक समर्पित कर्मचारी मानते हैं ?	३	४	५	१	२
(ग) मैं ऐसा मानता हूँ कि दिये गये काम को अच्छी तरह पूरा करना ही सबसे बड़ा धर्म है।	१	५	३	४	२
(घ) क्या आप काम करने में इतना तन्मय हो जाते हैं कि प्रायः आप अपने नौजो पारिवारिक कार्यों को भी भूल जाते हैं।	२	४	३	५	१
(ङ) चाहे आपको जो भी शिकायत हो कम्पनी से/सुपरवाइजर से ऊँचे अधिकारी से/किसी अन्य से लेकिन, आप अपना काम अच्छी तरह पूरा करना अपना फज समझते हैं।	५	३	२	१	४
(च) आज के जमाने में इमानदारी तथा निष्ठापूर्वक काम करने में कोई फायदा नहीं है।	२	५	३	४	१
(छ) क्या आप पूरी कोशिश करते हैं कि काम पर समय के पहले ही पहुँच जायें ?	१	४	२	३	५
(ज) क्या आप काम पर पूरी तैयारी के साथ पहुँचते हैं ?	५	३	४	२	१
(झ) क्या आपको बहुधा कुछ न कुछ इस तरह के काम आ ही जाते हैं कि आप अपना कारखाने में किया काम ठीक से नहीं कर पाते।	२	१	५	३	४
(ञ) मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि मुझ पर काम का बहुत जबाबा बोझ है।	१	४	३	२	५

३०. नीचे कई कथन दिये गये हैं, जिनसे आप सहमत भी हो सकते हैं और असहमत भी। प्रत्येक के सामने पाँच उत्तर दिये गये हैं। आप जिस कथन से "पूर्ण सहमति" हो उसके आगे ५ को घेरे, "सहमत" हो तो ४, "अनिश्चित" हो तो ३, "असहमत" हो तो २, तथा "पूर्ण असहमत" हो तो १ को घेरे।

(क) बहुत बार मैं यहाँ अपने को अकेला महसूस करता हूँ।	५	४	३	२	१
(ख) आजकल के बच्चे उदर एव अनुशासनहीन हो गए हैं।	१	२	३	४	५
(ग) आज इतने प्रकार के विचार दिये जा रहे हैं कि किमके अनुसार काम किया जाय, यह निर्णय लेना भी कठिन हो गया है।	४	३	२	१	५
(घ) बढ़ते हुए भ्रष्टाचार को रोकने का कोई उपाय नहीं है।	३	२	१	४	५
(ङ) मैं अपने साथियों द्वारा उतना आमन्त्रित नहीं किया जाता जितना मैं चाहता हूँ।	२	१	५	४	३

(च) आज के जमाने में ईमानदार आदमी की अपेक्षा धूर्त व्यक्ति के सफल होने

की अधिक सम्भावना है।

४ ३ २ १ ५

(छ) सच्चा मित्र पाना काफी कठिन है।

१ ३ २ ५ ४

(ज) आजकल समाज इतनी तेजी से बदल रहा है कि जिसे आज अच्छा समझा जाता है, कल उसे बुरा समझा जाता है।

४ २ ५ ३ १

(झ) भविष्य काफी अन्धकारमय लगता है।

२ ४ १ ३ ५

(ञ) मैं ऐसा अनुभव करता हूँ कि बढ़ती हुई कीमतों को रोकना बहुत मुश्किल है।

१ ३ ५ २ ४

(ट) क्या नैतिक है, क्या अनैतिक है—इसपर सहमति प्राप्त करना आसान है।

३ ५ २ १ ४

(ठ) अच्छे बर्ताव करने वालों को मित्रों की कमी नहीं होती।

५ १ ४ २ ३

(ड) दूसरों के निर्णयों को मैं प्रायः प्रभावित नहीं कर पाता।

५ २ १ ३ ४

(ढ) यदि आजकल सतर्क न रहा जाय तो दूसरे अनेक प्रकार के फायदे उठाना चहेते।

४ १ ५ ३ २

(ण) आजकल एक साधारण नागरिक भी सरकारी नीतियों को प्रभावित कर सकता है।

२ १ ४ ५ ३

(त) हर आदमी का असंग-असंग विचार है, इसलिए क्या सही है, क्या गलत है,

कहना मुश्किल है।

२ ४ ५ ३ १

(थ) एक दूसरे पर धरोसा करने का जमाना नहीं रहा।

५ ४ ३ १ २

(द) वर्तमान अनुशासनहीनता का एक कारण यह भी है कि अनुशासन के अर्थ के सम्बन्ध में मतभेद है।

४ १ ५ २ ३

३१. आप निम्न में से किस कारण से अधिकांश छुट्टियाँ लेते हैं? (जो लागू हो उन्हें घेर दें)

(क) पारिवारिक उत्सव

(ख) पर्व-त्योहार

(ग) मुकदमा

(घ) बीमारी

(ङ) परिवर्तन एवं मनबहसाव के लिए

(च) कृषि कार्यों के लिए

(ज) कार्य से ऊब कर

(झ) बचे छुट्टियों के उपयोग के लिए

३२. पिछले बारह महीनों की अनुपस्थिति एवं घटित दुर्घटनाओं का लेखा :-

माह	दुर्घटना	अनुपस्थिति
जनवरी		
फरवरी		
मार्च		
अप्रैल		
मई		
जून		
जुलाई		
अगस्त		
सितम्बर		
अक्टूबर		
नवम्बर		
दिसम्बर		

३३. नीचे कई कथन दिये गये हैं। प्रत्येक के सामने पाँच उत्तर दिये गये हैं। आप जिस कथन से 'पूर्ण सहमत' हो तो उसके आगे '५' को घेरे, सहमत हो तो '४' अनिश्चित हो तो '३' असहमत हो तो '२' तथा पूर्ण असहमत हो तो '१' को घेरे।

(क) मैं इस कारखाने के लिए काम करने में बहुत उत्साहित महसूस करता हूँ।	२	३	४	५	१
(ख) काम करने के लिए यह बहुत अच्छा कारखाना है।	१	१	२	४	५
(ग) मुझे जैसा ही मोक़ा मिलेगा मैं इस कारखाने की नौकरी छोड़ देना पसन्द करूँगा।	५	२	३	४	१
(घ) मैं इस कारखाने के लिए ही काम करते हुए अवकाश प्राप्त करना पसन्द करूँगा।	४	१	२	५	३
(ङ) मेरे बच्चे एवं सम्बन्धी भी इसी कारखाने में काम करेंगे तो मुझे प्रमत्तता होगी	२	३	५	४	१

३४. आपके परिवार के सदस्यों की संख्या —

३५. जीविकोपार्जन की संख्या —

३६. आपकी वयक्तिक आय पर आश्रित सदस्यों की संख्या :—

सामान्य कोड संख्या



फैक्ट्री कोड संख्या

