This chapter deals with the studies conducted in the past by other researchers and related to the present study. There has been conducted so many studies on organizational climate, employee motivation and subjective well-being, but the components of employee motivation and subjective well-being as tapped in the present study have generally not been subjected to empirical verification either abroad or in our own context in relation to organizational climate. So this area of research needs further investigations to answer various moot questions still existing in this field. The review of related studies also suggests that there are contradictory findings as well, relating to organizational climate as it might be influencing the employee motivation and their subjective well-being. The following review makes it quite obvious. Besides it, effects of demographic variables on employee motivation and subjective well-being also need to be analyzed to ascertain their roles in motivating the employees and determining their subjective well-being.

**Studies on Employee Motivation**

Organizational climate has an important influence on organizational outcomes. Human resources theories highlight the importance of motivating employees in the workplace and suggest that satisfied employees are more productive, innovative and efficient (Maslow, 1943). This view of motivation was the first attempt to conceptualize the organizational climate theories.

The role of organizational climate in employee’s behavior management plays a crucial role as management is responsible for implementing the human resource practices. Thus, management can create a desired organizational climate using specific human resource practices, but employee perception of these practices is crucial for realizing the organizational climate as intended. Therefore, organizational climate is considered as a predictor of organizational performance (Burton, 2012).
The success and the effectiveness of an organization can generally be traced in its success to motivate employees. Among other things, organizational climate happens to be of utmost importance as regards employee motivation. A look at the synonyms for the word ‘motivated’ such as induce, move, provoke, prompt, and cause, shows that without motivation at some level, nothing really gets started. However, motivating people can be difficult, there are no magic formulas or programs to motivate individuals. Motivation is also personal. While one employee may appreciate time off, the next may enjoy new challenges. The basic rule is to discover what employees want and create a way to give it to them or encourage them to earn it. Following this, managers should motivate their employees and allow them to become engaged in the success of their organization. There have been conducted some studies which show the importance of organizational climate in employee motivation (Luthans, 1996).

Organizational climate theory is widely studied in industrial and organizational psychology. Kofka (1935) studied the behavior environment; Murray (1938) analyzed the personality problems on a level of depth and concreteness usually found only in the work of the psychiatrist or psychoanalyst. Lewin et al. (1939) analyzed the relationship between leadership style and climate. However, in the beginning the conceptual definition of organizational climate and measurement techniques were inconsistent.

Shalmani et.al. (2015) explored the teachers’ perception of organizational climate. The first aim of study was to examine the association of gender and teachers’ perception of organizational climate, and the second purpose was to examine the influence of type of school on teacher’s perception of organizational climate. A total of 822 school teachers were selected by using cluster sampling method from schools in
Mysore city. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), developed by Halpin and Croft (1963) was used. Data analysis was done using descriptive statistics and contingency coefficient. The results revealed that gender and type of school had significant association with teachers’ perception toward school organizational climate at 0.05 levels.

Kumar (2014) intended to study the motivational level of the employees in consideration with the 12 dimensions (i.e.) orientation, interpersonal relationship, supervision, management of mistakes, conflict management, communication, decision making, trust, management of rewards, risk taking, innovation and change, problem management of organizational climate. The project focuses to the attention of the objectives where the organizations 12 dimensions are classified under 6 factors of objectives (i.e.) achievement, expert influence, extension, control, dependency, affiliation. The sample survey was taken from a sample size of 158 with a confidence level of 95% and a confidence interval of 5%. The analysis and interpretation, on the collected data revealed that employees with a back up objective need an increased level of motivation.

Ghanbari and Eskandari (2014) conducted a research to identify relationship between organizational climate with job motivation, and organizational citizenship behavior at the Bu-Ali Sina University. The research method were descriptive- correlation. Statistical population included all staff (non-faculty employees) comprised of 750 people, and the sample size of 250 subjects was determined based on the cochran formula. The sampling method used was proportional stratified random sampling. Results showed that level of organizational climate, job motivation, and organizational citizenship behavior were above the average level. Pearson correlation coefficient revealed that there is a significant positive correlation between organizational climate and job motivation, and organizational citizenship behavior. The results of multiple regression
analysis indicated that the components of organizational climate, factors of reward satisfaction and role clearness and agreement are most effective in predicting job motivation, and the factor of aim clearness and agreement has the highest impact in prediction of organizational citizenship behavior.

Tsai (2014) aimed to explore the organizational climate in the terminal operation industry in the port of Kaohsiung. Data was collected from questionnaire survey. Questionnaire designed through the processes included literature review, interviews, pre-test, and pilot test. Exploratory factor analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis were employed to analyze the respondent data. Subsequently, the primary organizational climate of terminal operation industry, namely, management system, awards and motivation, transformation leadership, and laissez-faire leadership, were yielded, and the employees’ job satisfaction were used as explanation variables in this study. Results showed that employees’ job satisfaction strongly related to the types of company and organizational climate.

Ncube and Samuel (2014) attempted to determine the level at which municipal employees of one of the world-class socio-economic cities in South Africa enjoyed job satisfaction using selected motivational variables. The study adopted a survey research method using quantitative research design. A measuring instrument with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of above 0.70 was developed and used to collect primary data from 300 employees of the municipal council. Main hypotheses were formulated and tested using both regression and correlation statistical analyses. Results show that intrinsic and extrinsic motivational variables impacted significantly the level at which employees derived job satisfaction. Management can therefore develop a job satisfaction practice around identified motivational
variables in order to maximize employee productivity and enhance quality service delivery.

Singh and Singh (2014) have reviewed the significance of employee motivation from the point of view of job performance, employee satisfaction and organizational effectiveness. They have concluded that human factor is the most valuable resource for the organizations. The organizations having well motivated employees can realize their objectives more comfortably as compared to those organizations which are not lucky enough to have such employees.

Rahimic (2013) analyzed the importance and impact of intensity of different dimensions of organizational climate in terms of satisfaction, and thus employee motivation and performance in companies across Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH). A particular challenge in this paper was to investigate whether there are differences in the importance of certain dimensions of organizational culture for job satisfaction of male and/or female participants, as well as differences in relation to the position in the organizational hierarchy. It also examined the hypothesis that employees on the top of the organizational hierarchy have a more positive opinion about the organization. Organizations that take steps to monitor and control the organizational climate directly or indirectly exert influence on the efficiency and productivity, as well as the capacity for innovation and job satisfaction, but also and other attitudes towards the work of its employees. The research on the effect of organizational climate on job satisfaction in BiH is essential, notably in terms of BiH’s specific business environment which dwells in a transition period and under complicated political and economic systems.

Uddin et al. (2013) examined the impact of organizational culture on employee performance and productivity from the perspectives of multinational companies operating especially under the telecommunication
sector of Bangladesh. The paper has applied qualitative methodology focusing on a case study of Grameenphone (GP) (a subsidiary of Teleron in Norway), the leading telecommunication based subsidiary in Bangladesh. The paper argues that organizational culture significantly influences employee performance and productivity in the dynamic emerging context.

Torres (2013) examined the organizational climate considering gender differences in the professional role within healthcare organizations. Data came from organizational-climate questionnaires administered in 2010 to 1498 health managers and 19616 health status in Tuscany Region (Italy). He applied exploratory factor analysis to verify the validity and internal consistency between items and t-test to compare mean perceptions regarding the dimensions across different groups of respondents. He measured five dimensions 'training opportunities', 'communication and information processing', 'managerial tools', 'organization' and 'management and leadership style' and overall job satisfaction. Gender differences in the professional roles were significant between managers' and status perceptions.

Rizvi et.al. (2012) tried to find out the relationship of motivation with organization climate, engagement, and job security in a service organization, where the company is going through rightsizing. Moreover the company is also utilizing temp staff. This study finds out as to how employees working in the organization perceive it and how much they feel connected to it. Is there any variation on their motivation regarding job security keeping in view the economic crises in the country?

Purohit and Wadhwa (2012) conducted a study to assess the OC of a District Hospital (DH) from the view point of motivation. A total of 66 staff (all from the same district hospital) participated in the study that included 12 Class I doctor specialists; 14 Class II doctors and 40 Class III staff. The data was collected using a validated instrument called Motivational
Analysis of Climate (MAO-C). The instrument included six needs or motives and twelve dimensions of organizational climate that were ranked by individuals according to their perception. According to the study, the dominant climate in the organization was that for Dependency motive while the backup climate for the organization was for Control motive. According to the literature, both Dependency and Control motives are dysfunctional climates. A high dependency motive indicates that the overall organizational climate is characterized by no initiatives by the people and the employees always look for approval from their seniors assistance of others in developing oneself; a need to check with others who are more knowledgeable. Similarly high score for control motive indicates that order is maintained in organization; indicates display of personal power; a desire to stay informed and an urge to monitor events and to take corrective action when needed. When the two motives are combined, the study indicates a dependency-control climate profile which means that the organizational practices are similar to government offices, where subordinates have no say in decision making and they have to follow the established rules of the organization. Such organizations have clearly laid communication channels controlled from higher authority indicating typical characteristics of a bureaucratic organization.

Singh and Singh (2012) ascertained the impact of human resource climate on organizational commitment. In all, 200 hundred employees working in different branches of State bank of India at Jaunpur, participated in the study. They were subdivided in two groups based on their score on HRD climate survey, i.e., perceiving climate as favorable, or unfavorable. The results revealed that employees perceiving the work conditions as favorable exhibited higher level of organizational commitment as compared to those who perceived their work climate being unfavorable.
Onukwube (2012) conducted a study to ascertain the levels of job satisfaction among quantity surveyors in consulting firms in Lagos, Nigeria. Biographical and job descriptive index questionnaires (JDI) were administered to gather the data. The JDI measures job satisfaction on five facets, namely, pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers and the work itself. A total of 100 questionnaires were collected and used for the study. The survey covered quantity surveyors in consulting firms in Lagos and the respondents were selected using stratified random sampling technique. Data collected were analyzed using mean item score, spearman rank correlation, correlation matrix, linear regression analysis where appropriate. Findings of the study revealed that the respondents were satisfied with the relationship with co-workers, nature of work and the supervision they receive. Major sources of dissatisfaction are promotion and salaries of the respondents. This finding is a bold step and necessary benchmark for resolving major sources of dissatisfaction among quantity surveyors in consulting firms.

Krüger and Rootman (2010) attempted to scrutinize motivational factors that may influence the levels of satisfaction and commitment of small business employees. An unmotivated workforce leads to dissatisfaction and low commitment levels among them. A five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, was applied. Simple random sampling was used to elicit the responses of 444 respondents from small businesses in the Nelson Mandela Metropole in South Africa. Cronbach Alpha coefficients were calculated to measure the internal consistency and reliability of the measuring instrument. Descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation coefficients and simple linear regression analyses were used to analyse the data. The research revealed that significant positive relationships exist between all the motivational factors and satisfaction, as well as with commitment. The strongest positive
relationships exist between the independent variable job interest and importance and both the dependent variables. The weakest relationships exist between the independent variable rewards and both the dependent variables. It was felt that levels of satisfaction and commitment should continually be developed and improved through management training about the application of motivational factors. Small businesses should implement the motivational factors discussed in this research in creative ways, in order to have a positive effect on the satisfaction and commitment levels of employees.

Govender and Parumasur (2010) assessed the current level of, and relationship between, employee motivation and job involvement among permanent and temporary employees in various departments in a financial institution. This cross-sectional study was undertaken on 145 employees who were drawn by using a simple random sampling technique. Data were collected using the Employee Motivation Questionnaire (Fourie, 1989) and the Job Involvement Questionnaire (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) and, was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The results indicate that there are significant intercorrelations among the majority of dimensions and sub-dimensions of employee motivation and job involvement.

Putter (2010) studied the relationship between organizational climate and organizational performance in a large multinational company. Besides, he tested what influence of management support and organizational unit size on organizational climate perception. In total, 30,892 employees among operating companies participated in the study. Regression analyses showed that there is a significant relation between organizational climate and profitability, sustainability and growth, productivity and employee engagement. No relation between organizational climate and employee turnover was identified. Furthermore,
it was found that organizational climate is strongly influenced by management support, and that the relation between organizational unit size and organizational climate is mediated by management support. These results contribute to the literature on organizational climate and performance. Besides, these results are of great value to the business world, as managerial implications have been identified that can be used to improve organizational climate, and thus performance of the organization.

Sodhi (2012) studied teacher effectiveness among secondary school teachers of Punjab in relation to their school organizational climate, gender, location, teaching experience and stream (science, social science and languages). He found that there is no significant difference in teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers across gender, location, stream and teaching experience groups. The findings of Gul (2008) showed that gender and academic title were not important in the perception of organizational climate.

Torres, Seghieri and Nuti (2012) examined the organizational climate from gender differences view among healthcare professionals and managers in health care organizations in Tuscany (Italy). Their starting point was to know how men and women perceived their work environment and how different climate dimensions affect their behavior. Moreover, the findings showed that there are gender differences in the perception of organizational climate between Teaching Hospitals and Local Health Authorities.

Pandey and Singh (2011) examined 300 employees of different departments of public sector by administering group effectiveness scale and organizational commitment scale. Analyses of data revealed that group effectiveness, as an aspect of organizational climate, exerted differential effects on organizational commitment. The group feeling more group
effectiveness exhibited higher degree of organizational commitment in comparison to the group feeling low group effectiveness.

Pratheepkanth (2011) is of the view that studies that have been conducted in the past indicated that the most common problem in organizations today is that they miss the important component of reward, which is the low-cost, high-return ingredient to a well-balanced reward system. A key focus of recognition is to make employees feel appreciated and valued. Research has proven that employees who get recognized tend to have higher self-esteem, more confidence, more willingness to take on new challenges and more eagerness to be innovative aim of the study. The aim of this study was to investigate whether rewards and recognition has an impact on employee motivation. A biographical and Work Motivation Questionnaire was administered to respondents. The results also revealed that staff, and employees from non-white racial backgrounds experienced lower levels of rewards, and motivation. Future research on the latter issues could yield interesting insights into the different factors that motivate employees. Notwithstanding the insights derived from the current research, results need to be interpreted with caution since a convenience sample was used, thereby restricting the generalisability to the wider population.

Karlfjord et.al., (2010) conducted a study using a prospective intervention design. The computer-based concept was implemented at six PHC units. Contextual factors in terms of size, leadership, organizational climate and political environment at the units included in the study were assessed before implementation. Organizational climate was measured using the Creative Climate Questionnaire (CCQ). Two different implementation strategies were used: one explicit strategy, based on Rogers’ theories about the innovation-decision process, and one implicit strategy. After 6 months, implementation outcome in terms of the
proportion of patients who had been referred to the test was measured. The CCQ questionnaire response rates among staff ranged from 67% to 91% at the six units. Organizational climate differed substantially between the units. Managers scored higher on CCQ than staff at the same unit. A combination of high CCQ scores and explicit implementation strategy was associated with a positive implementation outcome. Organizational climate varies substantially between different PHC units. High CCQ scores in combination with an explicit implementation strategy predict a positive implementation outcome when a new working tool is introduced in PHC.

Oztekin and Isci (2013) indicated that there was no significant difference between school principals’ efficacy and teachers’ gender, professional seniority, length of service in the current school, field of experience. On the contrary, school climate differentiated in terms of gender in sincerity dimension. It was found that female teachers’ perceptions were more positive in view of sincerity dimension than those of male teachers. However there was no significant difference between school climate and teachers’ professional seniority, length of service in the current school, and field of experience.

Noor and Dzulkifli (2013) explored the relationship between leadership practice and organizational climate effect and its mediating effect towards innovative work behaviour. Data from 125 R&D scientists of public agricultural agencies were used to assess leadership practices of their superiors, organizational climate and their innovative work behavior. Results suggested that there was a significant relationship between organizational climate and innovative work behavior.

Muogbo (2013) investigated the impact of employee motivation on organizational performance of selected manufacturing firms in Anambra State. 103 respondents selected from 17 manufacturing firms across the three senatorial zones of Anambra State. The population of the study was
120 workers of selected manufacturing firms in Anambra State. The study used descriptive statistics (frequencies, mean, and percentages) to answer three research questions posed for the study. The Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient was used to test the three hypotheses that guided the study. The result obtained from the analysis showed that there existed relationship between employee motivation and the organizational performance. The study reveals that extrinsic motivation given to workers in an organization has a significant influence on the workers performance. This is in line with equity theory which emphasizes that fairness in the remuneration package tends to produce higher performance from workers. The researcher recommends that all firms should adopt extrinsic rewards in their various firms to increase productivity. On the basis of these findings, employers are continually challenged to develop pay policies and procedures that will enable them to attract, motivate, retain and satisfy their employees.

Malik (2013) conducted a study using descriptive and cross-sectional study to see the relationships between leader behavior and employees’ job satisfaction in Pakistan. The data were collected from middle and first line managers through survey questionnaires using a stratified random sampling technique. Employee job satisfaction depended upon the leadership behavior of managers. There was significant correlation between all the four path-goal leader behaviors i.e. directive; supportive; participative; and achievement oriented leader behavior and job in general & supervision were significant. There was a significant correlation between the attributes of subordinate (age, gender, qualification, rank, experience and length of service under the current supervisor) and their job satisfaction. Similarly, the correlation between situational factors (locus of control, ability, task structure, role ambiguity, stress, achievement need and autonomy need) and subordinates’ job satisfaction was significant.
Some authors have proposed that organizational climate is associated with important outcomes at diverse levels (individual, groups and organization). For example, there is a positive correlation between climate and turnover intentions (Rentsch, 1990), job satisfaction (Mathieu et al., 1993; James and Tetrick, 1986; James and Jones, 1980), individual job performance (Brown and Leigh, 1996); (Pritchard and Karasick, 1973), organizational performance (Lawler III et al., 1974;), and innovation. (Patterson et al., 2005)

Some researchers have studied the relation between certain aspects of organizational climate and more global company outcomes. For example, Baer and Frese (2003) studied the relation between climates for initiative and psychological safety, and company performance, at 47 mid-sized German companies. Their results showed that climates for initiative and psychological safety are positively related to two measures of firm performance: return on assets and firm goal achievement. Borucki and Burke (1999) did a large research project on more than 30,000 employees at 594 stores of a large US retail company. Their results indicated a positive relation between service climate, personnel service performance, and store financial performance.

Bhattacharya and Neogi (2006) studied the goal setting tendencies, work motivation and organizational climate as perceived by the employees of Peerless Hospital and B.K. Roy Research Centre at Kolkata. Accordingly, a group of 50 female employees (nursing – 28 and officer – 22) were randomly selected. General Information Schedule and a set of three questionnaires, viz., Goal Setting Questionnaire, Motivation Feedback Questionnaire and Organizational Climate Questionnaire were administered to them. The major findings revealed that the employees in nursing have lower goal setting tendencies than those of the officers. The employees have utmost importance to the security of their jobs.
Organizational climate as perceived by the employees in nursing is better than that of the officers. Besides, this, the employees working for below one year have less favorable perception towards organizational climate and also lower goal setting tendencies than that of the older employees.

Patterson, Warr and West (2005) did a study on the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between global organizational climate and productivity at manufacturing companies containing 4503 employees in total. They found a positive significance correlation between 5 of the 17 climate dimensions and company productivity. Another global climate study has been performed by Gelade and Ivery (2003). In their study, conducted at the branch network of a retail bank among 14,390 employees, they found global climate to be positively related to sales against target, staff retention, clerical accuracy, customer satisfaction, and overall performance (combination of previous indicators).

Rynes et. al., (2004) opine that a majority of human resources professionals appear to believe that employees are likely to over report the importance of pay in employee surveys. However, research suggests the opposite is actually true. They review evidence showing the discrepancies between what people say and do with respect to pay. It was found that pay is not equally important in all situations or to all individuals, and identify circumstances under which pay is likely to be more (or less) important to employees.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) attempted to use job design to improve employee motivation. They show that any job can be described in terms of five key job characteristics. Skill Variety - the degree to which the job requires the use of different skills and talents. Task Identity - the degree to which the job has contributed to a clearly identifiable larger project. Task Significance - the degree to which the job has an impact on the lives or work of other people. Autonomy - the degree to which the worker has
independence, freedom and discretion in carrying out the job. Task Feedback - the degree to which the worker is provided with clear, specific, detailed, actionable information about the effectiveness of his or her job performance. Pandey (2000) used this approach in his study and found positive impact on employees behaviour

There are researchers who advocate that by employee recognition, motivation can be increased but employee recognition is not only about gifts and points. It's about changing the corporate culture in order to meet goals and initiatives and most importantly to connect employees to the company's core values and beliefs. Strategic employee recognition is seen as the most important program not only to improve employee retention and motivation but also to positively influence the financial situation. The difference between the traditional approach (gifts and points) and strategic recognition is the ability to serve as a serious business influencer that can advance a company's strategic objectives in a measurable way. The vast majority of companies want to be innovative, coming up with new products, business models and better ways of doing things. However, innovation is not so easy to achieve. A CEO cannot just order it, and so it will be. One has to carefully manage an organization so that, over time, innovations will emerge. (Stevens, 2011)

The relation between organizational climate and organizational performance can be explained using the Social Exchange Theory. This theory is based upon the assumption that social exchanges involve several actions that create obligations, and that relationships evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). These relationships can exist among two or several persons, but also among persons and organizations. Reciprocity or repayment is the most common exchange rule; the action of one party initiates a response of the other party that wants to 'repay' this action. Employers can reward
employees in two different ways using economic and socio-emotional resources. Economic resources are tangible and often are financial rewards; socio-emotional resources are intangible and address the social needs of employees. Employing these resources, employer’s can create strong relationships with their employees, as employees have the tendency to repay these rewards with ‘better’ work behavior and positive employee attitudes.

Macey and Schneider (2008) opine that high states of employee engagement lead to discretionary effort of employees. Discretionary effort on its turn will lead to better organizational performance (Corporate Leadership Council, 2004). Thus, organizational climate does not only seem to have a direct influence on financial and operational performance, but also indirectly via employee engagement.

According to Barnes et al. (2009), professional, managerial and other jobs characterized by high levels of autonomy, most notably in male-dominated working environments, are associated with a higher incidence of stress and other mental ill-health. These jobs are typically well paid and interesting and often functionally flexible but can, nevertheless, be stressful and associated with unmanageable workloads. The health sector, ironically, stands out as being unhealthier than other sectors.

Grant et al. (2007) opine that although managerial practices are often structured with the explicit goal of improving performance by increasing employee well-being, these practices frequently create tradeoffs between different dimensions of employee well-being, whereby one aspect of employee well-being improves but another aspect of employee well-being decreases. They call attention to the multi-dimensional nature of well-being and highlight the importance and prevalence of these well-being tradeoffs. Their reviews sheds new light on the effects of managerial
practices on employee well-being, and offers guidelines for managing and mitigating well-being tradeoffs.

Koene et al. (2002), in a study at 50 supermarket stores of a large supermarket chain, found consideration to have a significant effect on organizational climate. Other studies identified the relationship between transformational leadership and specific organizational climate aspects: for example, climate for innovation (Jung, Cho & Wu, 2003), and involvement climate (Richardson & Vandenberge, 2005).

According to Putter (2010) organizational unit size has important implications for the structure and systems within an organization. Large organizations are standardized, often mechanistically run, and complex. In small organizations, communication is informal and face-to-face, because (top) management usually works directly with employees on day-to-day operations. For larger organizations, the distance between managers and workers in the non-managing functions increases; formal systems and procedures are implemented to deal with the increase in information and complexity. This has far-reaching consequences for management support perception; management support perception will be more positive in small organizations than in large organizations.

Forehand and Von Haller (1964) reviewed the organizational climate literature found in psychology, sociology, administration and education studies until 1964 and they worked on the problem of variation in the conceptualization of climate term. They found that organizational climate term means different things to different writers and they concluded that organizational climate refers to the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization. (Forehand and Von Haller, 1964)
Wright and Nishii (2010) state that top management is responsible for creating the HR strategy, while middle managers are responsible for implementing the HR practices. This gives them (especially top management) a principal impact on organizational climate. As a consequence of this, their climate perceptions will be more positive than non-management’s climate perception.

Payne and Mansfield (1973) studied the effect of hierarchical level on organizational climate perception and found that persons higher in the organization tend to have a more positive climate perception than lower hierarchical levels. In their study, they collected data in 14 different work organizations ranging in size from 262 employees to 4580 employees. However, not all of the employees were questioned in their study, their results were only based on a sample of 387 employees in total.

Patterson et al. (2004) studied the relation between organizational climate of management and non-management in 42 manufacturing companies ranging in size from 70 to 1150 employees. Their results indicated that management perceives climate more positive than non-management.

Pritchard and Karasick (1973) explored the validity of a measure of climate construct and they presented data on the relationship between climate, job performance and satisfaction. They concluded that satisfaction relates positively with climate perceptions and job satisfaction. However, Guion (1973) conclude that organizational climate represent a fuzzy concept and reinforced the idea that climate measurement often used the same instruments and techniques apply to job satisfaction research.

Schneider (1975) argues that each work organization probably creates different kinds of climates and is related to the outcome behavior (dimension) and the unit of analysis (professional role, organization). An important conclusion in this work was the different conceptualization
between organizational climate and job satisfaction. In previous studies of climate research Litwin and Stringer Jr (1968) found that different kinds of climate could directly influence levels of job satisfaction, this result allowed some authors to propose that the two concepts were the same.

Some authors have proposed that organizational climate is associated with important outcomes at diverse levels (individual, groups and organization). There is a positive correlation between climate and turnover intentions (Rentsch, 1990), job satisfaction (Mathieu et al., 1993; James and Tetrick, 1986; James and Jones, 1980), individual job performance (Brown and Leigh, 1996); organizational performance (Lawler III et al., 1974), and innovation. (Patterson et al., 2005)

Rynes, Colbert, and Brown (2002) presented the following statement to 959 members of the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM): “Surveys that directly ask employees how important pay is to them are likely to overestimate pay’s true importance in actual decisions”. If their interpretation (and that of Rynes et al.) of the research literature is accurate, then the correct true-false answer to the above statement is “false.” In other words, people are more likely to underreport than to over report the importance of pay as a motivational factor in most situations. Put another way, research suggests that pay is much more important in people’s actual choices and behaviors than it is in their self-reports of what motivates them, much like the cartoon viewers mentioned in the quote above. Yet, only 35% of the respondents in the Rynes et al. study answered in a way consistent with research findings (i.e., chose “false”).

A brief review of some the major studies of self-reported pay importance is given here to highlight the role of pay in motivating employees and making organizational climate worth working.

- Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell, (1957) review of 16 studies showed that pay ranked sixth in importance. Ranking above
pay were job security, interesting work, opportunity for advancement, appreciation, and company and management.

- Lawler, (1971) reviewed 49 studies showing that pay ranked approximately third across studies.

- Jurgensen (1978) collected rankings of importance from more than 50,000 applicants to the Minneapolis Gas Company over a 30-year period. Pay ranked fifth in importance to men and seventh in importance to women. For men, security, advancement, type of work, and company ranked higher than pay. For women, type of work, company, security, supervisor, advancement, and coworkers ranked higher.

- Towers Perrin (2003) surveyed more than 35,000 U.S. employees and found that importance of pay varies by objective. Competitive base pay ranked second and pay raises based on individual performance ranked eighth for attracting employees. Competitive base pay ranked sixth in retaining employees. Pay was not ranked in the top ten in terms of “engaging” (motivating) employees.

Some Studies of Behavioral Responses to pay and other motivational interventions may also be quoted in this context. For example-

- Locke, Feren, McCaleb, Shaw, and Denny, (1980.) metaanalysis of productivity-enhancing interventions in actual work settings found that introduction of individual pay incentives increased productivity by an average of 30%. In contrast, job enrichment produced productivity increases ranging from 9–17%, while employee participation programs increased productivity by less than 1%, on average.

- Guzzo, Jette, and Katzell, (1985). meta-analysis of monetary incentives and other motivational programs on productivity or
physical output. Financial incentives had by far the largest effect on productivity of all interventions. For example, pay was four times more effective than interventions designed to make work more interesting.

- Judiesch (1994) meta-analysis found that individual pay incentives increased productivity by an average of 43.7%. Results were even larger (48.8%) when the sample was restricted to studies in real organizations (as opposed to laboratory experiments).

- Stajkovic and Luthans, (1997) meta-analysis found that incentive systems yielded productivity 1.36 standard deviations higher than in comparable groups without incentives in manufacturing firms (comparable figure in service firms was.42). Similar effect sizes were found for feedback and social rewards.


Some studies have shown that women are generally less frequently found in leadership positions compared to men and more frequently in static positions, consequently they have less opportunity to demonstrate their competencies (Wiggins, 1996) and even in female-dominated occupations, men have more opportunity to be promoted to the top (Broadbridge, 2010). The 2011 Catalyst Census showed that in 2010 women held 14.4 percent of Executive Officer positions and 7.6 percent of Executive Officer top earner positions (Soares et al., 2009).

When considering the healthcare sector, the promotion of women to senior management positions in healthcare organizations has been shown
to be slower in comparison with men even when most positions are held by women. The same happens to financial benefits which seem to decrease for women and expand for men as their respective careers advance. Moreover, researches in USA have demonstrated that, in the last years, little has been made to close the gender gap in healthcare leadership especially among the nation’s top hospitals (Branin, 2009).

**Studies on Subjective Well-being**

History reveals that well-being has been a much debated issue, and the philosophical tradition offers many theories as to what well-being is and why it matters (Sumner, 1996; Tiberius &Hall, 2010). A most notable treatment of well-being was provided by Aristotle in his “Nicomachean Ethics” (1999) where he argued that only a virtuous life can be a happy or eudaimonic life (eudaimonia was the classical Greek term for a good life). Several of Aristotle’s contemporaries disagreed with the virtuous approach to happiness, and argued that the experience of pleasure is sufficient for a good life. The view that pleasure is the only element of a happy life is referred to as the hedonic approach to eudaimonia (Waterman, 1993). In contemporary psychology however, a terminology has evolved in which the term eudaimonic well-being refers specifically to Aristotle’s theory (Deci & Ryan, 2008b; Keyes, Shmotkin, &Ryff, 2002; Waterman, 1993). This way of contrasting eudaimonia with hedonia is probably a misconception of the classic views, since the hedonic approach was one among several theories of eudaimonia in Ancient Greece (Keyes &Annas, 2009). Nevertheless, the psychological tradition of making a distinction between eudaimonic well-being and hedonic well-being has provided a comprehensible framework of psychological well-being research.
Psychologists typically rely upon Aristotle (1999) in their conceptualization of eudaimonic well-being (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2008b; Waterman, 1993), and distinguish between experiences of pleasure and the good life. The latter is known as eudaimonic well-being. The former, known as hedonic well-being, has become the most common approach to understanding and defining well-being in general. Translated to psychological understandings, hedonic wellbeing concerns a subjective experience including the belief that one is getting the important things one wants, as well as certain pleasant affects that normally go along with this belief (Kraut, 1979; Waterman, 1993). Typically, psychological scholars have translated this into subjective well-being (SWB; e.g., Diener, 2000).

From this perspective, wellbeing is considered as experiencing high levels of positive affect, low levels of negative affect, and a high degree of satisfaction with one’s life (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

In modern psychology and related disciplines, subjective well-being has been studied from many different points of views. A brief review of such studies makes it quite obvious. According to Lyubomirsky, the determinants of happiness are a combination of a person’s genetic set-point, intentional activities and life circumstances (Lyubomirsky, 2007) objective well-being and wealth. Research indicates that wealth is related to many positive outcomes in life. Such outcomes include: improved health and mental health, (Langner & Michael 1963). greater longevity, (Wilkinson,1 1996). lower rates of infant mortality, (Furnham & Argyle 1998, Smith et.al.1997) experience fewer stressful life events, (Wilson, et. al., 1995) and less frequently the victims of violent crimes (Mayer, & Salovey, 1997). However, research suggests that wealth has a smaller impact on SWB than people generally think, even though higher incomes do correlate substantially with life satisfaction reports (Mayer, & Salovey,1 1997).
There are a number of recent researches which show that employee well-being is an important concern for organizations (Grant et al., 2007). Extensive evidence indicates that employee well-being has a significant impacts on the turnover (Page and Vella-Brodrick, 2009), on the performance (Page and Vella-Brodrick, 2009; Wright et al., 2007), and on the indirect costs which related with organizational survival (Danna and Griffin, 1999). Two questions are important here.

First- Why employee well-being should be an important matter by linking it with turnover? Turnover is an important issue for organizations today, largely because of its significant business costs (Page and Vella-Brodrick, 2009). Cascio (2003) reported that the cost of losing an employee can range between 1.5 and 2.5 times the employees’ annual salary.

Second -The presumption that happy workers are productive workers has been discussed several decades of organizational psychology research and practice (Staw, 1986). Judge et al., (2001) had conducted a very rigorous analysis on this topic. By their rigorous analysis, they found that the correlation between job satisfaction and job performance is just 0.30. In other words, if the employee is satisfied with work it does not mean he will have high performance.

According to Büyükbay et. al. (2015), there is a growing interest for positive psychology at organizational context. More companies thrive to retain and engage their employees, value ‘talents’ well-being. Today various happiness-fostering interventions are in practice, in addition to standard HR functions. However, a multi-dimensional and holistic approach to measuring employee well-being and assessing impact of the practices are missing. He proposes a new, multi-dimensional construct for measuring employee well-being, covering the positive psychology and work-related
elements influencing employee work performance. It aims to prove the ‘happy-productive-worker hypothesis’, analyzing its mediating effect on the human resources (HR) practices and organizational performance relations, with the moderation of positive organizational climate.

Meena and Agrawal (2014) conducted a study to understand the relation between organizational climate, job satisfaction and happiness. This study was conducted on a sample of 90 employees (45 males, 45 female) of different educational institutions. Organizational climate inventory, job satisfaction scale and the happiness measure scale were used in this study. The data was analyzed using correlation design and t-test. It was found in the study that there is positive correlation between organizational climate and job satisfaction, and organizational climate and happiness. It was also found that job satisfaction and happiness are negatively correlated to each other. Organizational climate for males and females is found to be significantly different and there is insignificant difference in job satisfaction and happiness of males and females.

MacLeod and Clarke (2014) are of the view that there is strong evidence for the linkage between employee engagement and wellbeing, and the consequential impact on individual and organizational performance. Positive employee engagement is linked to factors such as employees’ ability to participate in workplace decisions, and a sense of achievement with the work performed. Conversely, lack of employee engagement has been linked to increased absenteeism, presenteeism, and lower levels of performance and productivity.

Fulya and Sari (2009) conducted a study to determine the rate of how teachers’ subjective wellbeing is predicted by their perceptions about the quality of school life and burnout levels. The participants of the study consisted of 161 teachers (93 females, 68 males) who were working in elementary schools in Adana central districts.
Scale, Life Satisfaction Inventory, Quality of School Life Scale, and Teacher Burnout Scale were used as data collection tools. Results of stepwise regression analysis showed that teachers’ subjective well-being levels were predicted significantly by the Quality of School Life Scale sub-factors, namely status and curriculum and burnout scale sub-factor, namely coping work-related stress. Teachers’ life satisfaction levels were predicted significantly by the variables of status, coping work-related stress and school administrator which is a sub factor of the Quality of School Life Scale. Also, teachers’ positive affect was predicted by the variables of status, positive affects towards school and teachers, and teachers’ negative affect was predicted by the variables of coping work-related stress, status, and curriculum. Other subscales of the Quality of School Life and Teacher Burnout Scales had no significant contribution in the estimation. Results also indicated that the contribution of predictors could be accounted as 39% for subjective well-being; 23% for life satisfaction; 23% for positive affect, and 37% for negative affect. In the direction of these general findings, it was suggested that, in-service education programs about interpersonal relations and coping strategies with stress should be applied for teachers and administrators. Besides that, the quality of life in schools should be improved.

Some researchers have expressed the view that organizations aiming to create positive climate do not necessarily have to involve specially designed practices or interventions. Presence of some basic and simple attitude, behavior and policies would be enough; whereas lacking it, creates unhappiness, stress and misery. If employees are offered flexible work, supervisor and workplace/organization support and trust, their well-being level increases (Jang, 2009; Paille et.al. 2010).

Zhang (2012) discussed employee wellbeing in the context of project-based organization (PBO) and also summarized features of project-based
organizations and this kind of work settings brings some negative effects to employee wellbeing. He tried out some human resource management (HRM) policies and practices for improving employee wellbeing in PBO based on case study results and theoretical research. These HRM policies and practices suggest that performance evaluation and appraisal in PBO should be dynamic and autonomic; employees in PBO should be more involved in work process; trainings and development should include basic skills, broad knowledge and deep technical excellence.

Alam and Rizvi (2012) compared the public and private sector banking employees from the point of view of well-being. The sample comprised of 50 employees from each sector. Sample consisted of male employees only. The analyses of data revealed that employees working in public sector exhibited higher level of SWB than their counterparts working in private sector. The difference between their means was found to be significant, suggesting that the management of private sector should pay due attention to it in order to control intention to leave the organization and dissatisfaction among employees as such feelings prove to be very costly for the organizations.

Wiezer, et.al. (2011) evaluated the impact of restructuring on employee well-being. Their analyses showed that restructuring has an impact on the well-being of those working in the organization before, during and after restructuring. It has an impact on job satisfaction, on dedication, on cynicism, on emotional exhaustion and feelings of stress, on work ability and job insecurity. It even has an impact on sickness absence. They found no proof for that employee get used to restructuring. The impact of prolonged restructuring on the well-being is negative. In most cases, the effect of restructuring is negative. But not in all: restructuring may also lead to experienced improvement in one’s own job position, which in turn is linked to better well-being.
Shier and Graham (2011) in their study of work-related factors found impact of social work on practitioners ‘subjective well-being. They found that the respondents’ overall subjective well being was impacted by characteristics of their work environment (i.e. physical, cultural, and systemic), interrelationships at work (i.e. with clients, colleagues, and supervisors), and specific aspects of the job (i.e. factors associated with both workload and type of work).

Joshi (2010) in her study made an attempt to compare the level of subjective well-being among male and female employees in IT industry with the help of two questionnaires (Satisfaction with Life Scale and Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity Scale). The study reflects that gender is not a determinant of subjective well-being. Males and females both perceive subjective well-being or evaluate their lives in a similar way. They also differed in their life satisfaction. The level of positive affect and negative affect among the genders was similar and no significant gender difference in the level of positive affectivity was found.

Aknin, Norton, and Dunn (2009) asked participants from across the income spectrum to report their own happiness and to predict the happiness of others and themselves at different income levels. In study 1, predicted happiness ranged between 2.4-7.9 and actual happiness ranged between 5.2-7.7. In study 2, predicted happiness ranged between 15-80 and actual happiness ranged between 50-80. These findings show that people believe that money does more for happiness than it really do. However, some research indicates that while socioeconomic measures of status do not correspond to greater happiness, measures of sociometric status (status compared to people encountered face-to-face on a daily basis) do correlate to increased subjective well-being, above and beyond the effects of extroversion and other factors.(Anderso, et.al. 2012).
The Easterlin Paradox (Easterlin, 1973) also suggests that there is no connection between a society’s economic development and its average level of happiness. Through time, the Easterlin has looked at the relationship between happiness and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) across countries and within countries. There are three different phenomena to look at when examining the connection between money and subjective well-being; rising GDP within a country, relative income within a country, and differences in GDP between countries. More specifically, when making comparisons between countries, a principle called the Diminishing Marginal Utility of Income (DMUI) stands strong. Veenhoven (1991) said, they not only see a clear positive relationship between happiness and GNP per capita, but also a curvilinear pattern; which suggest that wealth is subject to a law of diminishing happiness returns. Easterlin (1995) proved that the DMUI is true when comparing countries, but not when looking at rising gross domestic product within countries.

Grant et al., (2007) summarized three dimensions to explain well-being through reviewing various research results from psychologists and sociologists; the three dimensions are psychological, physical and social. The psychological dimensions contain satisfaction, self-respect, and personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery and autonomy. There are substantial positive associations between health and SWB so that people who rate their general health as good or excellent tend to experience better SWB compared to those who rate their health as fair or poor. A meta-analysis found that self-ratings of general health were more strongly related to SWB than physician ratings of health. The relationship between health and SWB may be bidirectional. There is evidence that good subjective well-being contributes to better health (Diener & Chan (1984).

A review of longitudinal studies found that measures of baseline subjective well-being constructs such as optimism and positive affect
predicted longer-term health status and mortality (Diener, 2008). Conversely, a number of studies found that baseline depression predicted poorer longer-term health status and mortality. Baseline health may well have a causal influence on subjective well-being so causality is difficult to establish. A number of studies found that positive emotions and optimism had a beneficial impact on cardiovascular health and on immune functioning. Changes in mood are also known to be associated with changes in immune and cardiovascular response.

There are a number of domains that are thought to contribute to subjective well-being. In a study by Hribernik and Mussap (2010), leisure satisfaction was found to predict unique variance in life satisfaction, supporting its inclusion as a distinct life domain contributing to subjective well-being. Additionally, relationship status interacted with age group and gender on differences in leisure satisfaction. The relationship between leisure satisfaction and life satisfaction, however, was reduced when considering the impact of core affect (underlying mood state). This suggests that leisure satisfaction may primarily be influenced by an individual’s subjective well-being level as represented by core affect. This has implications for possible limitations in the extent to which leisure satisfaction may be improved beyond pre-existing levels of well-being and mood in individuals.

According to Suh and Koo (2008), people from individualistic groups report higher levels of happiness than people in collectivistic ones and that socioeconomic factors alone are insufficient to explain this difference. In addition to political and economic differences, individualistic versus collectivistic nations reliably differ in a variety of psychological characteristics that are related to SWB, such as emotion norms and attitudes to the expression of individual needs. Collectivistic cultures are based around the belief that the individual exists for the benefit of the
larger social unit, whereas more individualistic cultures assume the opposite. Collectivistic cultures emphasize maintaining social order and harmony and therefore expect members to suppress their personal desires when necessary in order to promote collective interests. Such cultures therefore consider self-regulation more important than self-expression or than individual rights. Individualistic cultures by contrast emphasize the inalienable value of each person and expect individuals to become self-directive and self-sufficient. Although people in collectivistic cultures may gain happiness from the social approval they receive from suppressing self-interest, research seems to suggest that self-expression produces a greater happiness payoff compared to seeking approval outside oneself.

Reviewing the studies on SWB among employees Biggio and Cortese (2013) state that an initial approach, which has permitted the analysis of the relationship between well-being in the workplace and subjectivity, was the study of job satisfaction (Harris, Daniels, & Briner, 2003; Judge, Heller, & Klinger, 2008; TerDoest, Maes, Gebhardt, & Koelewijn, 2006). According to Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2003), two lines of research characterize this approach.

The first is connected to the theory of the person–environment fit (French, Caplan, & Van Harrison, 1982), in which well-being is connected to the presence of appropriate requests to the individual by the organization.

A second line of research—the closest to our hypothesis—relates the performance and the quality of life of people with the presence of positive emotional states and satisfying relationships within the work environment (Isen, 1987; Warr, 1997).

When the environment encourages people to seek out challenging or significant tasks, according to Csikszentmihályi (1997), optimal conditions exist for mutual well-being between individuals and the work environment. The assumption in this method of framing the problem is that well-being in
the workplace is related to job satisfaction, and this, in turn, is stimulated by the subjective ability to find a positive personal equilibrium within organizational interaction.

Brunstein, Schultheiss, and Grässmann (1998) emphasize the importance of the willingness to define suitable personal objectives (goals) with the scope of encouraging personal well-being. However, the subjective capacity to establish a satisfactory psychological contract with the organizational environment seems to be linked with well-being in the workplace (Guest & Conway, 2002). According to these authors, in fact, the psychological contract that people are able to subjectively maintain SWB has become a formula widely used in research and has proven useful to explain many employees’ behaviours, including attitudes towards health and well-being.

Hughes (2005) reported a study that showed that extroverts experienced less fatigue and stress at work. Some authors emphasize the relationship between the Big Five traits (including extroversion, agreeableness, openness) and psychological well-being (Grant, Langan-Fox, &Anglim, 2009; Haslam, Whelan, & Bastian, 2009). As noted previously, individual psychological well-being may contribute to the welfare of the organization by improving job performance and group atmosphere. Kumar, Bakhshi, and Rani (2009) explored using the Big Five—the link between personality and organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), found that extroversion and agreeableness in interpersonal relationships support OCBs.

According to George and Jones (1997), extra role behaviour, such as spontaneity in interpersonal relationships, helps to create an isomorphic relationship of spontaneity and well-being, including at the organizational level. Ferris, Perrewé, Anthony, and Gilmore (2000) and Perrewé, Ferris, Funk, and Anthony (2000) are of the view that extroversion, openness,
respect, confidence, trust, and sincerity are political skills that will improve relations within the team by reducing stress in the workplace and are predictive of ability for success in a wide range of jobs in highly dynamic organizational environments that require flexibility.

Terrion and Ashforth (2002) state that openness to emotional expression and the capacity to create a playful group identity are connected to well-being in temporary groups while the ability to have open relationships and express one’s personal characteristics is seen as a factor in subjective well-being and at the same time as a factor capable of increasing the productivity of those who work in social service organizations (Graham & Shier, 2010, 2011).

In many researches empirical findings suggest that organizational climate is the significant affecting factor of different individuals and organizational outcomes such as intention to leave (burnout), effectiveness of individual practice, job satisfaction, work attitude and organizational productivity (Shim, M., 2010.; Pangil, et.al., 2011; Dawson, et.al. 2013; Lee, et.al. 2013; Crawford,l 2008; Castro, & Martins, 2010), team innovativeness (Açıkgöz-Günsel, 2011), organizational commitment (Delgoshaei, et. al., 2008) individual motivation to achieve work outcomes (Neal, et. 2000), job exhausting (Ramazaninejad, et.al. 2008) profitability, sustainability and growth of company, productivity and employee engagement, l customers’ (Putter, 2010) perceptions of employee service quality and withdrawal behaviors (Crawford,l 2008) and employees’ psychological well-being (Crawford,l 2008; Asif,l 2011).

Bahrami et.al. (2013) have reported that organizational climate is an important work environment factor which can affect different aspects of work. They conducted a study to evaluate the relationship between organizational climate and personnel’s psychological well-being. In an analytical and cross-sectional study Sussman and Deep’s organizational
climate questionnaire and CL-90R psychological well-being questionnaire were used in 3 educational hospitals of Yazd, Iran. A total of 120 personnel contributed in the study. Data analysis was done through SPSS16 Chi square test and Pearson’s correlation coefficient were used in data analysis. The statistical negative correlations between organizational climate and 5 dimensions of psychological well-being including obsessive-compulsive (p=0.04, r=-0.12), depression (p=0.03, r=-0.19), anxiety (p=0.01, r=-0.26), phobic anxiety (p=0.04, r=-0.23) and psychoticism (p=0.01, r=-0.14) were confirmed. Also, psychological well-being had a negative relationship with organizational climate (p=0.04, r=-0.26). The results of this study indicated that organizational climate improvement can be considered as a policy for promotion of personnel’s psychological well-being.

Workload is an important aspect of organizational climate and this too has been subjected to empirical studies. Employees’ workloads have been studied as factors contributing to depression and physical symptoms, but limited research has examined how work influences positive aspects of human functioning. Links between work and psychological well-being were found to differ depending on whether work is paid or unpaid (Lindfors et.al., 2006). For women, unpaid work was associated with lower levels of self-acceptance and environmental mastery, whereas for men, paid work was associated with increased levels of personal growth. Well-being has been investigated as an influence on vocational identity and career pursuits. Purpose in life and personal growth were found to contribute to career commitments (Strauser et.al., 2008). Women who saw themselves as falling short of their early career goals had lower levels of purpose in life and higher depressive symptoms, after adjusting for multiple background and health characteristics (Carr, 1997).

A longitudinal cohort of Swedish women found different psychological outcomes for diverse combinations of education, work and
family (Johansson et al., 2007), a key finding showed that women in higher socioeconomic strata exhibited better health and well-being than those in lower strata. Focusing on types of work, women teachers were found to have higher well-being compared to women working in banks who, in turn, had higher well-being than women working in industry (Johansson, 2007). Work and educational experiences were the strongest predictors of well-being among older adults, whereas reports of family and relational experience were strongest predictors of well-being in midlife (Ryff & Heidrich, 1997).

The interface between work and family has been extensively studied. Work-family conflict, particularly as it relates to the demands of caregiving, has been linked with poorer well-being (Marks, 1998). Alternatively, positive spillover from work to family and from family to work is associated with better well-being outcomes (Grzywacz, 2000). Changing expectations about how to fulfill work and family roles has been linked with cohort differences in how such roles are tied to well-being (Carr, 2002). For example, older women and younger men who adjusted their work schedules to meet family demands had higher self-acceptance, whereas older men and midlife or younger women had lower self-acceptance if they cut back on paid employment to accommodate family demands. Invoking comparisons between Korean and US adults, positive work to family spillover was associated with better adult well-being, but not for Korean women. Alternatively, negative work to family spillover was linked with poorer well-being, especially among US women (Song et al., 2007) while family to work spillover was also linked with poorer mental health, particularly among Korean men.

The style of leadership in the organizations is also a strong determinant of well-being. According to Schaufeli and Salanova (2007), a leader could stimulate a positive socio-emotional climate through
considerate leadership behaviors. For instance, a leader could facilitate such a climate through acknowledgment and giving rewards for good performance instead of exclusively correcting substandard performance. What is more, he or she should strive to act fairly, and not act out of self-interest. They should engage in building trust by providing sufficient information on important issues, coach employees to set goals, and plan work. The authors also argue that to stimulate a positive climate, a leader should offer emotional support when necessary, and interview employees on a regular basis about their personal functioning, professional development, and career development. As argued by the authors, these behaviors not only stimulate a positive group climate but are also important resources in themselves.

Erdil and Ertosun (2011) conducted a study to investigate the effect of social climate (as an organizational level factor) on loneliness of employees (as an individual level factor) and results for employee well-being. This point makes the study a multilevel research which is less studied in workplace psychology literature. In this article, first, existing literature is reviewed about the loneliness in the workplace, organizational climate and employee well-being. Then a research model questioning the relationships among social climate, workplace loneliness and employee well-being is structured and hypotheses related to the research model are developed in order to answer the research question 1- is there a relationship between loneliness of employees and social climate of the organizations? and research question 2 - Does loneliness of employees and social climate of the organizations effect employee well-being?. In the light of the research questions, hypotheses are tested on the data gathered by questionnaire method including 203 participants from various sectors and different sized companies. Findings support significant relationships among the variables.
According to Bevan (2010) there is a growing body of evidence that employees who feel demotivated with or disengaged from their work, or who find their work stressful are more likely to resign from their posts. This is because dimensions of psychological wellbeing are known to affect the ‘attachment’ of individuals to their employing organizations, which is linked to loyalty and ability to be resilient in times of pressure and change (Bevan et al., 1997). Bevan (2010) stated that the Health and Safety Executive (HSE) estimated there are at least one million workplace injuries caused by accidents every year. There is growing evidence that poor health and wellbeing can be a significant contributing factor to accidents at work. Tiredness is a factor in many accidents, for example, it has been estimated that 20% of accidents on motorways are attributable to fatigue.

Some other researches indicate that loneliness tends to be more intense and painful when the individual feels lonely in a social environment, rather than feeling lonely as a result of being alone (Jones, 1981, Sermat, 1980). After an extensive recent review of the extant literature, Heinrich and Gullone (2006) and Coplan et al. (2007) concluded that loneliness was a crucial marker of social relationship deficits. Social support implies social interaction and that is the reverse of loneliness therefore the relationship between them is understandable. In addition to these, perceived social support is a cognitive process while loneliness is an affective outcome, social relations can offset loneliness when the relationships are intimate (Cheung, 1988). Loneliness both affects individuals and the culture in which it occurs. Largely, loneliness researches tend to focus on the factors such as personality and social contacts (Rokach, & Neto 2005). However, loneliness could be expressive of the individual’s relationship with the community (Rokach, 2004). Beside these, it has been observed by the researchers that loneliness results from the interaction of personal factors and situational constraints.
interaction is closely associated with the changing circumstances which one encounters (Rokach, 2004).

Harnois and Gabrie(2000) has revealed that the impact of mental health problems in the workplace has serious consequences not only for the individual but also for the productivity of the enterprise. Employee performance, rates of illness, absenteeism, accidents and staff turnover is all affected by employees’ mental health status. In the United Kingdom, for example, 80 million days are lost every year due to mental illnesses, costing employers £1-2 billion each year. In the United States, estimates for national spending on depression alone are US$ 30-40 billion, with an estimated 200 million days lost from work each year. This can be controlled by ensuring better well-being among employees.

The reviews as presented on the preceding pages very clearly suggest that more researches should be conducted on the relationship and influence of organizational climate on employee motivation and subjective well-being and also other aspects of employee behaviour to enhance organizational efficiency and also employee satisfaction (Putter, 2010). Use of extrinsic as well as intrinsic rewards for employees performance in different sectors and organizations will be a handy tools in the hands of managements which may provide solutions to so many problem being faced by industries and organizations as well.