Chapter I
Conceptual Framework
CHAPTER-I
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Human resource is the pivot around which whole organization revolves. Human power is instrumental for survival of any organizations. Examining the development of the industrial societies demonstrates that skilful and trained human resources are considered as the important and vital element in developing the societies and organizations (Tale.b.pour, Mandi, 2001). In the past, it was believed the meeting the needs of the people would reduce the resources and facilities of organizations. Based on this notion, in order to reach the maximum efficiency, the minimum needs should be satisfied. But today this mind-set has completely changed. Now it is believed that if the actual needs of the employees are not identified, productivity in the organization will decrease. The high rate of interest and positive attitude of employees towards the job will put more effort into work and consequently would reduce the expenses (Haghiri, A.2009). Without human contribution, no work is possible. Any organization without the contribution of human being neither survives nor get successful in predetermined objectives. In earlier days most of the organizations were profit centered and they were always keen to find out the way for maximum profit. But as the trend has been changed after the introduction of globalization concept, organizations have started thinking towards the empowerment of people working in their organizations and considering them as one of the most important and reliable asset. The behavior of people working in their organizations requires more attention. The kind of activities which an individual perform, exhibits his behavior. In different situations an individual acts differently. The tendencies with help of which an individual expresses his likes or dislikes, reflect his attitudes. Attitudes are propensities, or tendencies, to react in a favorable or unfavorable way towards an object. The object could be any thing in the world around. People develop attitudes towards other persons, objects, events and ideas. Thus, there may be numerous attitudes in a person. For an organization, the attitudes held by its members about its practices are important. Such attitudes are often termed as organizationally –relevant attitudes or employees attitudes. Attitudes are reasonably good predators of behavior. Attitudes can have a significant effect on the
behavior of a person at work. Allport (1935) defined an attitude as a mental or neutral state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence in the individuals's response to all objects and situations to which it is related. An attitude is a mind set or a tendency to act in a particular way due to both an individual's experience and temperament. Attitudes are a complex combination of personality, beliefs, feeling and behavior. A person's attitude towards any object encompasses his/her point of view (e.g. thought); how he or she feels (e.g. emotion), as well as the actions (e.g. behavior) he or she engages. An attitude includes three components: an affect (a feeling), cognition (a thought or belief), and behavior (an action). Attitudes may simply be an enduring evaluation of a person or object or other emotional reactions to objects and to people. Attitudes provide with internal cognitions beliefs and thoughts about people and objects. The world of work is comprised of people. Human relations are the interactions that occur with and through people. These interactions create relationships. For an organization to be profitable, its employees must be productive. Workplace productivity is a result of positive workplace interaction and relationships. Personality is a result of influences, and there are many outside influences that affect workplace relationships. These influences may include immediate family, friends, extended family, religious affiliations, and even society as a whole. This means that experiences and influences outside the workplace affect the personal life of the employees. An attitude is a strong belief toward people, things and situations. An attitude affects performance. An individual's performance significantly influences a group's performance. A group's performance, in turn affects an organization's performance. Think about a barrel of juicy red apples. Place one bad apple in the barrel of good apples, and, over time, the entire barrel will be spoiled. That is why it is important to evaluate the personal influences. Too often in the business, organizations rely on knowledge, skills and training to improve performance and increased productivity. Although both improve competency, however unless people have the right attitude, no amount of training will improve performance. People who are confident in their capabilities think, feel, and behave differently from those who don't. The aim of present study is to investigate the impact of two job attitudes i.e. job involvement and job satisfaction on organizational effectiveness. In today's modern working life, people experience their work situation and examine how these experiences relate to work attitudes, performance, and health. The nature of work has changed in recent decades due to industrialization,
technological advancements, economic recessions and intensified global competition (Howard, 1995). The world is now shrinking at a faster rate than ever before, distances are shorter, and events in other parts of the world are affecting more and more. Today's organizations and their employees need to be able to adjust quickly to an ever-changing world. This is applicable to both public and private organizations. It is not only an organization's competitors who create this pressure for flexibility, but also an organization's related persons. With the intent of increasing competitiveness and reducing labour costs, many organizations have turned to downsizing, layoffs, and restructuring. Modern work is characterized, to a greater extent, by mental exertion rather than, as previously emphasized, physical exertion. Work, in modern life, often involves interpreting and understanding the needs and expectations. In modern working life, employees are expected to be autonomous and self-governing, meaning thereby they possess a great deal of skill and confidence in their own abilities (Allivin, Aronsson, Hagstrom, JohanssonLundberg and skarstrand, 1998).

The attitude of employees at work place can have a significant impact on the business as a whole. Attitude is one of hidden, hard- to-measure factors that end up being crucial to the success of a company. Employee attitudes tend to have a drastic impact on the productivity of business, both directly and through the effect on other job-related factors. Attitudes, both positive and negative, are important and can easily spread to co-workers. Negative attitudes can have a ripple effect. Decreased trust towards co-workers harms collaboration, decreasing productivity. A negativesocialenvironment isolates individual employees while positive attitudes lead to more productivity. The encouraging social atmosphere that results from good attitudes creates oneness in the the team and gives employees a sense of belongingness and emotional security in the organization. In the world of work, the attitudes towards supervision, pay, benefits, and promotion matters most. As a result employees' attitudes represent one of the key areas of measuring organizations effectiveness. Employees who are happy and productive can become dissatisfied and resentful overnight as a consequence of some managerial action. This is one of the reasons why many organizations pay close attention to attitudes by conducting employee's attitude survey periodically and by seeking feedback in other ways. The antecedents and consequences of job attitudes i.e. job satisfaction; job involvements on organizational commitment have been investigated by many researchers. Cheloha and Farr, 1980 indicates relationship between between job attitudes and absenteeism,
employees' turnover, internal motivation (Brown, 1996) and effort (Brown and Leigh, 1996). Job attitudes are of particular interest because of their assumed relationship to job performance and organizational citizenship behavior (Staw, 1986). Individual possesses hundreds of attitudes. But there are mainly three work related attitudes. They are job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment.

**Job satisfaction**: It refers to one's feelings toward job. Individuals having satisfaction will possess positive attitude towards the job. Dissatisfied people may have negative attitude. **Job involvement**: It refers to the degree with which an individual identifies psychologically with his or her job and perceives his or her perceived performance level important to self worths. It refers to one's attachment with the job. High degree of job involvement result in fewer absence and lower resignation rates. **Organizational commitment**: It can be defined as one's identification with his organization, its goal and feels proud of being its employee. Absenteeism and turnover are low when employees have organizational commitment.

Present study deals with two among these three attitudes. I.e. job involvement and job satisfaction. The most important factor in attitude and behavior relations is the individual's experiences that shape their attitudes which lead to corresponding behaviors. If an employee has no prior experiences with a given situation, they are likely to behave and react in positive way. Yet individuals with prior attitude know how they will behave in the given situation. Job involvement and job satisfaction both are important job attitudes. Both play a vital role in the achievement of organizational goals. Job involvement is related to the behavioral aspects of attitude. It is the degree to which one is psychologically engaged in and concern with one's current job. Job involvement involves internalization of core values about the worth of work (Lodhal and Kejner, 1965). It has gained importance due to its pivotal role in positive organizational outcomes such as employee motivation, commitment, and job-satisfaction. Job involvement is an individual's commitment, or psychological identification to his/her job (Kanungo, 1982). On the other hand job satisfaction is related to the affective (emotional) aspects of the contentment in individual. Emotional factors tie to people's personal satisfaction and sense of inspiration and affirmation; they get from their work and being part of their organization. Job satisfaction refers to how people feel about the various aspects of job or extent to which people like or dislike jobs. It is the combination of positive or negative feelings.
that workers have towards their work, job satisfaction is closely related to the individual behavior in the work place (Davereral, 1985). Relationships between job involvement, job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been studied by different researchers time to time. Understanding of these complex relationships is important to organizations from a financial and applied perspective. Organizational effectiveness has also attracted considerable attention of organizational analysts. Organizational effectiveness is of vital importance for the society at large. The main purpose of this study is to find the association of job-involvement and job satisfaction with the organizational effectiveness. Job involvement is considered to be the key factor influencing important individual and organizational outcomes. The study will also help to understand the perception level, level of satisfaction and performance levels of the employees within the limited resource constraints. Finally, this study would examine the amount of pleasure associated with the job and psychological involvement of the employee and combined effect of these two attitudes on organizational effectiveness. This study has been carried out in Himachal Pradesh where the geographical situations are not so easy for every individual. The present study is a comparative study between two public and two private banks. Almost eighty thousands employees are working in different organizations in Himachal Pradesh. A very few studies has been carried out earlier in this context in Himachal pradesh. So an attempt has been made to assess the two selected job attitude .i.e. job involvement and job satisfaction and their contribution in achieving organizational effectiveness.

1.2 CONCEPT OF JOB INVOLVEMENT

Job involvement has emerged an important variable in organizational research. It has drawn the attention of management scientists and organizational psychologists. It has great importance and significance in organizational development. Large numbers of studies have been conducted to see the job involvement among organizational employees. Job involvement refers to the degree to which employees identify themselves with their jobs. Different Psychologists describe job involvement in different ways. While there is a great deal of confusion regarding the concept of job involvement, Gurin,G., Veroff.,J. and Feld,S.(1960), who spoke that job involvement is the extent to which individuals seek some expression and actualization of the self in their work. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) define. Job Involvement in terms of "the degree
to which people are identified psychologically with their work or the importance of work in the individual self image. A person’s psychological identification with his work may be the outcome of his early socialization process during which the individual may internalized the values about the goodness of the work. Bass (1965) considers job involvement as a representative of the employee’s ego involvement in his job. Lodhal and Kejner (1965) propose two quite distinct definitions of job involvement. Job involvement focuses employees’ willingness to work independently of extrinsic rewards, i.e. an individual’s willingness in pursuit of job activities perceived to be meaningful. A job-involved person can, therefore, be considered as one for who work is very important part of life and as one who is affected very much personally by his whole job situation; the work itself, his co-worker leaving off the job (Lodhal and Kejner, 1965). One of their definitions states that, “job involvement is the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self image.” The work itself, his co-workers, the company etc. On the other hand, for the non-job-involved worker, work is not so important part of his psychological life (Lodhal and Kenjer, 1965). Wollock et al (1971), however, define job involvement in terms of “organizational commitment” as: the degree to which a worker takes an active interest in co-workers and company functions and desires to contribute to job related decisions”. Evaluating the definitions, Schwyhan and Smith (1972) have made comments that Job Involvement has not been adequately defined, whereas Seagel and Rah (1973) remarks that, “work related to Job Involvement in particular is not characterized by great deal of conceptual precision”. They point out that “the confusion does not stop at the theoretical level, but rather continues in the empirical studies of involvement”. Saleh and Hosck (1976) concluded that Job Involvement is, “the degree to which the person identifies himself/herself with the job, actively participates in it, and considers his performance important to his self worth. It is, therefore a complex concept based on cognition action and feeling.” According to Agarwala, (1976) job involvement has been the main spring energizing the symbolic relationship between Job Involvement, performance and the quality of working life, because individuals who have their ego development tied into jobs have a higher stake in performing well and there is often a strong desire to satisfy the need for ego identity and development in their jobs (Mckelvey and Sekaran, 1977). They postulated that such a state of identification with work results from early socialization and training during which the individual may
Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) concluded on Job involvement that the data are more consistent with “psychological identification with work”. The other definitions provided by Lodhal and Kejner on Job involvement state that, “Job involvement is the degree to which a person’s work performance affects his self-esteem”. It is important to note that Lodahl and Kejner have made no attempt to show how these two quite distinct definitions are related. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) in their critical review of the work of several researchers who have made use of the definitions of Job Involvement have that there is a great deal of confusion and ambiguities in theories about Job involvement. Mehta (1977) has proposed a model of people participation in organization and has considered Job Involvement as an intervening condition. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) stress that among other things, a job involved person believes strongly in the protestant ethics, has strong growth needs, and has a stimulating job that gives him or her high degree of autonomy and opportunity for participation. Lodhal and Kenjer, (1965); Rabinowitz and Hall, (1977); Gornund and Kanungo (1980) have conceptualized Job Involvement as having two components: (a) The degree to which an individual is involved in it, and (b) a psychological state of identification with work in general relative to other activities (organization, family, leisure), i.e. the importance of work in the present total self image. Gorn and Kanugo (1980) have also pointed out that while one can find occasional references to both of these aspects of involvement in literature; the lack of an explicit distinction between these two aspects of involvement has caused measurement problems and conceptual confusion. Job Involvement conceptualizations by previous researches have placed more emphasis on involvement with work in general rather than an involvement in a particular job. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977, 1981), therefore, aptly point-out that there is a great deal of conceptual confusion and proliferation of terms. Mishra, S, karlo, A, (1981) supported the notion that the attitude of job involvement is a function of the level of satisfaction of one’s salient needs, be they intrinsic or extrinsic. Job involvement was higher for those whose salient needs were met as compared to those whose salient needs were not met. Job involvement for an employee is determined by his/her expectancy level, which results in incentives for action. If expectations are lower than the inducement provided by the organization, job Involvement will increase. On the other hand, when expectations are higher than the inducement provided by the organization, then job involvement will decrease (vroom, 1964). The influence exerted by some stable personal characteristics such as
age, gender, marital status, external and internal control features, job seniority, dwelling locations, the intensity of high-level work demands in terms of time and responsibility, and the Protestant work ethic will ensure individuals hold different work attitudes and behaviours. Two such work attitudes are job involvement and job satisfaction (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Job involvement is also a personal characteristic, and thus it is never changed easily within an organization (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Job involvement can be viewed as the personal attitude towards the particular job (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Job involvement is affected by leadership style, participative decision-making, social factors, job features and other conditional influences. Personal characteristics and the environment interaction are used to explain personal work attitudes and behaviours. When personal characteristics and the situation reach congruence, the individual develops high job involvement. The individual is thought to own a certain amount of desire or value, and the demand or value drives them to work harder (Sekaran & Mowday, 1981). Job involvement is affected by the potential for personal socialization experience and the likelihood that the work environment can satisfy personal demand. Kanungo (1979, 1982) hypothesizes that employee perceptions concerning a job's potential to satisfy their needs represents a more proximal influence on job involvement. Kanungo (1982) contends that individuals develop beliefs that a job's context potentially provides an opportunity for them to satisfy their most important future needs. Consequently, job involvement depends on employees' needs (both extrinsic and intrinsic), as well as their perceptions of the job's potential to satisfy those needs. Job involvement is also an important factor in other work-related attitudes, and is linked to work behaviours. Work ethic is plays a significant role in job involvement (Brown in 1996). Yoshimura (1996) stated that the job involvement consists of three dimensions viz., emotional job involvement, cognitive job involvement and behavioural job involvement. Emotional job involvement indicates how strongly the worker is interested in his/her job or how much the worker likes his/her job. Cognitive job involvement indicates how strongly the worker wants to participate in his/her job-related decision making or how important the job is in his/her whole life. And behavioural job involvement indicates how often the worker usually takes extra-role behaviour such as taking an evening class to enhance job-related skills or thinking about the job after leaving the office. Yoshimura (1996) further in his multi-dimension model of job involvement classified the antecedents of job involvement into three categories namely; individual
personality variables, organizational variables and non-organizational variables. According to this model the individual variable which affects the job involvement are classified as individual personality such as locus of control, growth needs, work values and the way of being socialized, and individual career such as career stage and successful job experience. Organizational variables are those variables which affect job involvement are work related variables such as job type, job characteristics and human resource management and organizational attitude variable such as job satisfaction, organizational satisfaction, and organizational commitment. And the non-organizational variables include non-organizational involvement and family involvement.

1.3 JOB INVOLVEMENT AND SIMILAR CONCEPTS

It is difficult to distinguish closely related concepts with job involvement i.e. organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Morris and Coach, (1979) considered organizational commitment as, “a multi-dimensional construct with components of organizational attachment, motivation and organization- person value congruity.” It was Dubin (1956) who initiated the understanding to, “the ways in which members become attached to and thereby loyal towards an organization” (1956). His initial approach is followed by several researchers. Each of these studies is concerned with identifying determinants of employee involvement with the organization, or as Sheldon (1971) put it, “an orientation towards the organization which links or attaches the Identity of the person to the organization.” Buchanan (1975) suggests that commitment is an additive function of three variables i.e. organizational identification, job involvement and organizational loyalty. Similarly, Porter and his associates define commitment as an additive function of a person’s desire to remain a member of the organization, his willingness to exert high effort for the organization, and his belief in the values and goals of the organization. (Porter and smith, 1970; Porter, et, al, 1972 and Dubin, et, al, 1975). “Organizational centered loyalty” can probably be defined as a man’s personal commitment to give more than adequately of his time, energy, talent, judgment, ideas and moral courage in the best interests of the company”. Thus it can be noted that some employees are likely to identify themselves with organization and prefer to change jobs rather than organizations (organizational commitment) while others are likely to prefer to change organization rather than jobs. This prevalence of diversely committed personnel in organization is popularized with
the formulation of a major sociological construct, known as local cosmopolitanism (Gouldner, 1957, 1958). Locals are viewed as people who have high in organizational loyalty and low in organization commitment to their specialized roles and skills. Cosmopolitans, on the other hand, are considered to be low in organizational loyalty, but high in commitment to their specialized roles and skills. Behavioral Researches have tended to support the likelihood of conflict between organizational and professional commitment. Nevertheless, not all the research findings have shown an incongruous relationship between the two commitments. These differing results suggest that professional and organizational goals are not necessarily divergent, but are likely to be related to the nature of individuals and to specific situations. Thus, if job involvement is ego identification with the job, than organizational commitment is identification with the involvement in a particular organization. Commitment as a construct is more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organization as whole, emphasizing attachment to the organization including its goals and values. Job satisfaction, in contrast, is affective reaction to the job. Job involvement and job satisfaction emphasizes only the specific task with the difference that while job satisfaction is an evaluative response generated through the specific environment. Job involvement is specific job identification. Further, the job attitude, i.e. organizational commitment and job involvement are sometimes more stable over time than job satisfaction. Although the work place may affect the employees’ level of job satisfaction, such as transitory events. Job involvement is, in fact, to a great extent an individual difference variable. Runyun (1973) concluded that job involvement has been largely a function of the internal-external dimension of personality and should be considered as “relatively stable personal characteristic.” Rabinowitz et al (1997) concluded that job involvement is a significant component of individual differences. Job satisfaction on the other hand, has been found to be a less stable measure over time, reflecting mere immediate reaction to specific and tangible aspects of the work environment (e.g., pay, supervision, etc.). However, “many of the demographic, personality, job and organizational variables that have been found to be relevant to satisfaction have also been found relevant to job involvement. Lodhal and Kejner (1965) conclude that job involvement has the same factorial content as job satisfaction. They observe that “it would not be justified to conclude that job involvement is the same as job satisfaction. Conceptually also one would expect job involvement (the psychological importance of work) to be more of a personal
characteristic than job satisfaction (affective, response to end job). Job involvement is distinct from internal motivation in that it has necessary implications for performance. People may take their identity from their positions or roles without having to perform well or grow and develop on job. On the other hand internally motivated employees reward themselves for successful performance. They feel a sense of personal satisfaction or self esteem from performing well. Internal motivation, unlike job involvement is extricable tied to performance (Mooch, 1980). In a study conducted by Mooch (1980) concluded that job involvement is distinctly different from internal motivation. Lawler and Hall (1977) found that job involvement attitude and intrinsic motivation attitudes related differently to job design factors and job behavior. Further it is also found that they are separate and distinct kinds of attitudes towards a job. Another concept closely related with job involvement is alienation. In social science, the concepts of alienation and its obverse, involvement have been used. In fact the terms alienation and involvement have been used to often and in so many contexts that they have acquired on equivocality. But it must be noted that the terms alienation and involvement indicate bipolar states. In other words, alienation-involvement is a continuous variable, rather than a dichotomous one. Employees are referred to as mere involved (less alienated) or less involved (more alienated) in their job situation, rather than being simply involved or alienated. Kanungo (1979) defines the concept of work involvement and alienation. He defines the concept of work involvement as "a generalized cognitive (or belief) state of psychological identification with work. Although the definition of involvement and alienation as cognitive states of identification with work resembles the way the concepts were defined by Lawler and Hall (1970). Involvement are different from alienation in one important aspect. both sociological and psychological formulations as well as the contributions of well known thinkers put exclusive emphasis on opportunities that meet workers need for control and autonomy as necessary precondition to the state of job involvement. Kanungo (1979) suggests that job involvement does not necessarily depend on job characteristics that allow for control-and autonomy-need satisfaction. It emphasizes, on the other hand, that workers have a variety of needs, some more salient than others. It also considers the phenomena of job involvement and alienation to be caused by historical as well as contemporaneous events.
1.4 DIMENSIONS OF JOB INVOLVEMENT

Different dimensions of job involvement have been identified in various studies. Lodhal and Kejners' (1965) scale is composed of items as concern about one's work, sense of duty in work, tendency to avoid coming to work, and the felt importance of one's work. Factor analyzing the score on the Lodhal and Kejner (1965) for a sample of managers, Schwyhart and Smith (1972) reported six dimensions: (i) job ambition — willingness to accept job responsibilities; (ii) Job-centrality-importance of work; (iii) Job Conscientiousness — desire to prepare for job and to be judged by performances; (iv) Striving for perfections; (v) being disinterested in non-job activities; and (vi) job interest for reasons other than pay. However, for a sample of skilled and semi-skilled workers, Wood (1974) found the following five dimensions: (i) work attraction-seeing work as having positive appeal and preparing oneself before each shift begins; (ii) failure sensitization — being bothered by work mistake and depressed by job failure; (iii) work commitment- choosing work and its related responsibilities as more important than other activities; (iv) job prominence- job provides the major source of gratification when compared with all other activities; and (v) work identification—perceiving the importance of being identified with work and evaluating others worth on that basis. Other scales (Patchen, 1965; Pelz and Endrews, 1966 claim to the following dimensions:- (i) lack of heightened time-consciousness (clock watching); (ii) working hard; and (iii) doing extra work. Agharwala (1976) developed a more comprehensive measure of job involvement which contains seven known dimensions (emotional involvement, energy expenditure, Planfulness, responsiveness of extra work, time consciousness, job devotion and job concern), and five new dimensions of job involvement. The dimensions under study are: (i) job longing- showing an eager desire or craving to be at job; (ii) work under load- feeling depressed and irritated with less work; (iii) persistence- tendency to keep on thinking about and sticking to the unsolved problems even after the working hours; (iv) task completion sensitivity—feeling bothered if unable to complete or finish the task at hand; and (v) job saliency-readiness to sacrifice which is considered important for the sake of job work. Various dimensions of study have been presented in Fig.1 and described under as:-
1. **Job-longing**

Showing an eager desire or craving to at job. It is basically an enthusiasm which an employee exhibits at work place. Enthusiastic employees out produce and outperform employees who are not motivated to perform. They step up to do the impossible. They rally each other in tough times. Most people are enthusiastic when they’re hired: hopeful, ready to work hard and eager to contribute. When employers look at perspective candidates, beyond skills, experience, and training, they look for those who demonstrate enthusiasm – those they believe will complete assigned tasks in an upbeat and cooperative manner. All other things being equal, a candidate who can demonstrate a positive attitude and eagerness to tackle the job will have an advantage over one who displays an attitude viewed by the employer as negative or disinterested. In fact, many employers would rather provide job skills training to an enthusiastic but inexperienced worker than hire someone with perfect qualifications but a less than-positive attitude. Managers sometimes worry that this type of person will not get along with supervisors and co-workers, treat customers disrespectfully, and not put much effort into his or her work. On the other hand, employees who are viewed as enthusiastic are known to provide good service, resolve interpersonal conflict effectively, and work productively with others. There are many ways in which an individual might demonstrate enthusiasm in the workplace. Once hired into a position, an enthusiastic employee will typically show up on time, show interest in his or her job, and demonstrate a willingness to listen, learn, and try new things. An enthusiastic employee offer assistance or seek out tasks and projects when there is
down time. This positive attitude helps employees go above and beyond to get along with co-workers and managers—even difficult ones—and respond to constructive criticism with maturity and willingness to improve. Overall, an employee with enthusiasm comes across as someone who wants to be at work and who is willing to do what it takes to get the job done. The activities in this section seek to teach participants about the importance of enthusiasm and a positive attitude in the workplace. Participants will hear strategies for turning negative thinking into positive thinking and displaying and discussing enthusiasm during an interview and on the job.

2. Work under load

It is basically feeling depressed and irritated with less work. On the other hand, workload refers to the total energy output of a system, particularly of a person performing a strenuous task over time. It is the total "workload" that is important to growth, as opposed to just the load, just the volume, or "time under tension". Definition by Hart and Staveland (1988) describes workload as "the perceived relationship between the amount of mental processing capability or resources and the amount required by the task". Workload modeling is the analytical technique which is used to measure and predict workload. The main objective of assessing and predicting workload is to achieve evenly distributed, manageable workload and to avoid overload or under load. Depending on the nature of the task, these resources may have to process information sequentially if the different tasks require the same pool of resources, or can be processed in parallel if the task requires different resources. Wickens (1984) proposed a theory views performance decrement as a shortage of these different resources and describes humans as having limited capability for processing information. Cognitive resources are limited and a supply and demand problem occurs when the individual performs two or more tasks that require a single resource. Excess workload caused by a task using the same resource can cause problems and result in errors or slower task performance. For example, if the task is to dial the phone then no excess demands are being placed on any one component. However, if another task is being performed at the same time that makes demands on the same component(s), the result may be excess workload. The relationship between workload and performance is complex. It is not always the case that as workload increases performance decreases. Performance can be affected by workload being too high or too low (Nachreiner, 1995). Sustained low workload
(under load) can lead to boredom, loss of situation awareness and reduced alertness. Also as workload increases performance may not decrease as the operator may have a strategy for handling task demands. Wickens’ theory (1984) allows predicting when: tasks can be performed concurrently; tasks will interfere with each other; increases in the difficulty of one task will result in a loss of performance of another task. McCracken and Aldrich (1984), like Wickens, describe processing not as one central resource but several processing resources: visual, cognitive, auditory, and psychomotor. Joseph Hopkins (unpublished) developed a training methodology, where the background to his training theory is that complex skills are, in essence, resource conflicts where training has removed or reduced the conflicting workload demands, either by higher level processing or by predictive time sequencing. His work is in effect based on Gallwey (1974) and Morehouse (1977). The theory postulates that the training allows the different task functions to be integrated into one new skill. An example of this is learning to drive a car. Changing gear and steering are two conflicting tasks (i.e. both require the same resources) before they are integrated into the new skill of "driving". An experienced driver will not need to think about what to do when turning a corner (higher level processing) or alternatively may change gear earlier than required to give sufficient resources for steering round the corner (predictive time sequencing). A precise definition of a workload is elusive; a commonly accepted definition is the hypothetical relationship between a group or individual human operator and task demands. The assessment of workload has a vital impact on the design of new human-machine systems. By evaluating workload during the design of a new system, or iteration of an existing system, problems such as work under-load and overload can be identified. So it is required to maintain a proper balance between work load and work underload.

3. **Emotional involvement**

   It is one's feeling concerned with the job. Emotions are basically described as discrete and consistent responses to internal or external events which have a particular significance for the organism. Emotions consist of a coordinated set of responses, which may include verbal, physiological, behavioural, and neural mechanisms. Emotions in the workplace play a large role in how an entire organization communicates within itself and to the outside world. Events at work have real emotional impact on employees. The consequences of emotional states in
the workplace, both behavioural and attitudinal, have substantial significance for individuals, groups, and society. Positive emotions in the workplace help employees obtain favourable outcomes including achievement, job enrichment and higher quality social context. Negative emotions, such as fear, anger, stress, hostility, sadness, and guilt, however increase the predictability of workplace deviance, and how the outside world views the organization. Emotions normally are associated with specific events or occurrences and are intense enough to disrupt thought processes. Moods on the other hand, are more generalized feelings or states that are not typically identified with a particular stimulus and not sufficiently intense to interrupt ongoing thought processes. There can be many consequences for allowing negative emotions to affect your general attitude or mood at work. Negative emotions at work can be formed by work overload, lack of rewards, and social relations which appear to be the most stressful work-related factors. Emotions and emotion management is a prominent feature of organizational life. It is crucial to create a publicly observable and desirable emotional display as a part of a job role. Negative emotions can be caused by poor leadership, lack of guidance, lack of support and backup. Employee's lack of confidence in their abilities to deal with work demands and their lack of confidence in co-workers can also create prolonged negative stress. Showing stress reveals weakness, therefore, employees suppress their negative emotions at work and home. People who continually inhibit their emotions have been found to be more prone to disease than those who are emotionally expressive. The person whose feelings are easily aroused (but not necessarily easily controlled) is going to have far more difficulty in dealing with emotionally stressful situations. Emotional employees and emotional work both have negative aspects to them including the feelings of stress, frustration or exhaustion that all lead to burnout. Burnout has serious negative consequences such as deterioration in the quality of service, job turnover, absenteeism and low morale. It sometimes seems to be correlated with various self-report indices of personal distress, including physical exhaustion, insomnia, increased use of alcohol and drugs and marital and family problems. The ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in managing occupational stress and maintaining psychological well-being. This indicates that stress reduction and health protection could be achieved not only by decreasing work demands, but also by increasing the personal resources of employees, including emotional intelligence. The
increasing of emotional intelligence skills (empathy, impulse control) necessary for successful job performance can help workers to deal more effectively with their feelings, and thus directly decrease the level of job stress and indirectly protect their health.

4. Persistence

A tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully and aim for achievement; planned rather than spontaneous behavior; organized and dependable. Persistence refers to perseverance in spite of fatigue or frustration. It is basically tendency to keep on thinking about and sticking to the unsolved problems after the working hours. Persistence was substantially associated with conscientiousness. It is measured in the temperament and character inventory and is considered one of the four temperament traits i.e. eagerness of effort, work hardened, ambitious, and perfectionist. Persistence denotes being thorough, careful, or vigilant; it implies a desire to do a task well. It is manifested in characteristic behaviors such as being efficient, organized, neat, and systematic, also including such elements as self-discipline, carefulness, thoroughness, self-organization, deliberation (the tendency to think carefully before acting), and need for achievement. Conscientious individuals are generally hard working and reliable. When taken to an extreme, they may also be "work aholics", perfectionists, and compulsive in their behavior. People who were low on conscientiousness tend to be more laid back, less goal-oriented, and less driven by success; they also are more likely to engage in antisocial and criminal behavior. Conscientiousness is related to impulse control, but it should not be confused with the problems of impulse control associated with other personality traits, such as (high) extraversion, (low) agreeableness, (high) openness and (high) neuroticism. Individuals low on conscientious are unable to motivate themselves to perform a task that they would like to accomplish. Having a sense of purpose in life and goals to pursue helps people deal with adversity by enhancing their sense of hope or optimism. A goal or plan instills the belief that no matter how bleak things may seem at the moment, there is still a way to get through these difficulties, and if these goals or plans are executed faithfully, hard times will eventually subside.
5. Planfulness

The state or quality of being systematic or predetermination regarding course of action. But the psychological meaning of Planfulness regarding attitude at work, it is basically pre determination of behavioral adjustments at work places. These psychological adjustments are directly related to people's belief about their ability to protect and control their environments. Those who value the work role and commit themselves to participate actively in it soon realize that they have to prepare themselves to become productive workers in general, and eventually train themselves for an occupation in particular. This preparatory process characterizes young employee's years. The main coping behavior of this stage is exploratory behavior, that is, action and reflection that increase self-knowledge about work values, vocational interests, and occupational abilities as well as produces' broad fund of occupational information and knowledge about the world of work (Super, 1963). Super's research indicated that this important exploratory behavior is conditioned by an individual's attitudes toward planning and exploring the future, or as Super often said, "looking ahead" and "looking around". To denote attitudes toward planning the future, Super (1974b) coined the word "Planfulness", although planlessness is defined in several dictionaries. Planfulness means an awareness that educational and vocational choices must be made eventually and an inclination to prepare to make these choices. Attitudes toward exploration mean an inclination to actively use environmental opportunities and resources to discover more about the world of work in general and preferred occupations in particular. Individuals with well-developed decisional competence know what to consider in making on choices at work places. They apply these decisional principles in making choices that match their interests and abilities to corresponding occupations. Individuals are mature or ready to make important career choices when decision-making knowledge is supported by an adequate fund of occupational information based on planful exploration. With this level of maturity, individuals are ready to discuss meaningfully the content of their choices. In other words, the mature individual displays the attitudes and competencies needed to benefit from traditional vocational guidance, namely the trait-and-factor approach that emphasizes the use of interest inventories and aptitude tests to match individuals to congruent occupations. After specifying a choice, the third and final task of the
exploration stage is implementing the choice by securing a position in the chosen occupation and working at it for a trial period.

6. **Energy expenditure**

It refers to the capacity for performing job. It also denotes qualities that enable a person to achieve or accomplish something. Ability is the mental or physical power to do something: Capacity refers to the potential or actual or potential ability to perform, yield, or withstand for acquiring that power. Power of receiving impressions, knowledge or mental ability. Performance and capacity are interrelated, but are not synonymous. While performance may be one indicator of capacity, it may cast little light on which aspects of capacity are deficient. Before placing an employee in an organization at the work places, it is required to make an analysis about employees’ capacity to perform that job. Job analyses provide information to organizations which helps to determine which employees are best fitted for specific jobs. So one should understand what the important tasks of the job are, how they are carried out, and the necessary human qualities needed to complete the job successfully. This analysis describes the duties of the incumbent, then the nature and conditions of work, and finally some basic qualifications. A job psychograph, which displays the mental requirements of the job helps in revealing the potential level of employees. The functional or duty areas of a position, the related tasks, and the basic training recommendations, all these factors depend for their standard nourishment on capacity of employees. Subject matter experts and supervisors for the position being analyzed need to validate the job analysis. This capacity analysis helps individuals develop their careers, and also for helping organizations develop their employees in order to maximize talent.

7. **Task completion sensitivity**

Failing bothered if unable to complete or finish the task at hand. It meansdo not get agitated or nervous, fluster, confused or perplexed- puzzle when the given task is not completed. It is negative attitude that effect work place. A negative attitude may prompt management to get involved, especially if management sees that work output, work ethic or interpersonal relations between work teams are strained because of a sour temperament. Bad attitudes in the workplace might include laziness, tardiness, rudeness, rumor mongering or any other attitude or activity that lowers overall
morale. Negative attitudes could be due to personal problems. For example, an employee might be having trouble at home that influences his/her behavior at work. Bad attitudes also can result from workplace events, such as a firing; pay decreases, careless or other small-business problems. An employee with an attitude problem may be careless, insensitive and inconsiderate of others. He may complain frequently, even inciting others to join in. He may have a negative or cynical attitude, brusque, abrupt talk or inattention to his work. One employee with a poor attitude may keep to himself and not speak to others, while another may have a problem with excessive socializing. If no disciplinary action is ever taken, escalates to become downright rude, lazy and even more disruptive. Bad attitudes among employees may develop as a result of poor work conditions, lack of skills or feeling undervalued. Employee attitude problems slow down performance and result in lower profits.

8. Responsiveness of extra work

It means more importance should be given to work related activities. Work is meaningful when it is performed in a context that respects human values, in an environment that respects justice, equity and human dignity. Now the question is what work is and what makes it meaningful? Sigmund Freud affirmed: work, like love, is a vital necessity to the development of the individual and of democratic society. Its scope is material, social, economic, psychological, psychic and biological. It is time to take a serious interest in work and work activity. A feeling of “importance to work” shows the commitment level of the employee. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), there are three forms of commitment. Affective commitment refers to the employee’s attachment, identification and involvement in the organization. An employee displaying a strong affective commitment keeps his job because he wants to. Normative commitment reflects the feeling of duty or responsibility the employee has to the organization. An employee expressing a strong normative commitment keeps his job because he believes he has a moral obligation to the organization. Finally, continuance commitment indicates the extent to which the employee is aware of the costs associated with his eventual departure. An employee displaying strong continuance commitment keeps his job because he needs to. This type of commitment is associated with two attitudes: the lack of alternatives available to him or the personal sacrifices the employee would have to make if he quits his job. This type of commitment reflects the nature and strength of the bonds between the individual and
his work. Commitment is correlated with workforce stability (i.e., low voluntary departure rate), employee diligence (i.e., low absenteeism rate), job performance, quality of customer service, and "corporate" behaviors i.e., professional behaviors that go beyond the expectations and prescriptions of the assigned roles (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

9. Job devotion

A feeling of strong love or loyalty: the quality of being devoted: use of time, money, energy, etc for a particular purpose. It is a sense of duty or loyalty in work performance. Loyalty is faithfulness or a devotion to a person, country, group, or cause. Devotion can be described and defined in many ways, and each definition predetermines the application of the concept within any specific context. It considers reliable external behavior to be the best indicator of loyalty. Under this approach, keeping one's promise of devotion, fulfillment of contractual obligations, and reliable fulfillment of employment responsibilities are all indicators of devotion. The disloyal or unfaithful actions are usually described in terms of breaching duties other than the duty of loyalty, such as truth-telling or there liable meeting of responsibilities. As R.E. Ewin observes, to define devotion in terms of what is morally due the object of loyalty or devotion, is to reduce the notion of loyalty to mere dutifullness in pursuit of another obligation. Further, to the extent that loyalty or devotion would function solely under the umbrage of "moral duty," the concept becomes a straw person adorned with the normative brush of "good" faithfulness to "bad" reliability and obedience. Devotion or faithfulness is defined and described as merely as the virtue of dutifulness in pursuit of right actions. Devotion or faithfulness itself, further, is not universally recognized as right action. Devotion or faithfulness is entirely context-dependent. Some seemingly disloyal actions do not necessarily violate a duty, but nevertheless trigger disappointment. However, any definition of devotion or faithfulness in terms that limit its boundaries to the expectations of another will necessarily reduce the concept to that of anticipatory obligation. Devotion or faithfulness then becomes enslaved to the informed or uninformed hopes of the person or group seeking loyalty, and loses its status as an independent concept that can be grasped by the person from whom devotion or faithfulness is expected. If those who have power are allowed to define devotion in terms of the fulfillment of duties, oppression - or at least the perception of oppression - can be the outcome. Loyalty as
a virtue emphasizes wholeheartedness in the fulfillment of duties. That is, devotion or faithfulness is measured by the passion and persistence with which duties or obligations are performed. Devotion refers to the level of dedication and commitment brought to bear by an individual. It recognizes the intensity with which the actor identifies with the purposefulness of the actions. It acknowledges that most people prioritize and perform certain duties with greater zeal than other they apply to other tasks, and that loyalty or devotion is a quality that accompanies such focus. A person who fulfills responsibilities owed to another in an minimal, mechanistic, or mindless manner hardly contributes to the well-being of anyone, including himself or herself. But obligations completed in an overly zealous manner are not necessarily fulfilled optimally. This ideal of loyalty seems to elicit a greater zeal in the performance of a duty on behalf of another.

10. Job Saliency

Readiness to sacrifice what one considers important for the sake of job work. Salience refers to the relative importance or prominence of a part of a sign. The salience of a particular sign when considered in the context of others helps an individual to quickly rank large amounts of information by importance and thus give attention to that which is the most important. Salience is the state or condition of being prominent. The Oxford English Dictionary defines salience as "most noticeable or important. The system of mental representations of an object or phenomenon, its properties and associations with other objects and/or phenomena. In the consciousness of an individual, meaning is reflected in the form of sensory information, images and concepts." (Bedny & Karwowsky, 2004). It is either denotative or connotative but the sign system for transmitting meanings can be uncertain in its operation or conditions may disrupt the communication and prevent accurate meanings from being decoded. Further, meaning is socially constructed and dynamic as the culture evolves. This is problematic because an individual's frame of reference and experience may produce some divergence from some of the prevailing social norms. So the salience of data will be determined by both situational and emotional elements in a combination relatively unique to each individual. At a group or community level, the conventional levels of significance or salience are slowly embedded in the sign systems and culture, and they cannot arbitrarily be changed. For example the first thing you see in a poster may be the title or picture of someones
face. Salience is used as a measure of how prominent or relevant perception coincides with reality. The salience (prominence) of an attitude can also be measured by the relevance of an idea to that person's needs or aspirations (Showers). As ideals become more salient they become more accessible, the more accessible the attitude object is the stronger the attitude toward the object. As accessibility increases, so does the likelihood of self-interested voting. This process keeps an individual from being overwhelmed with information overload. Different factors have a direct effect on the salience of attitude objects. Therefore, to define salience as appropriate as possible using the information, it would be apt to define it such that, salience is that intrinsic concept of the perceived or interpreted prominence of an attitude, and its manifestation on one's choices.

11. Job concern

Concern about one's work and being disinterested in non-job activities. It reveals, the focus level or dedication level of the employee. Being dedicated on the job means that employees give their full support to a company as long as they are employed with that company. The dedicated employee is one that has a low absentee rate, high production output, and is a positive force in the work environment. Just because employees do not stay for decades at the same job does not mean that they will fail to give their best effort for their employer every day. The dedicated employee is the person who never lacks work. If their job is complete and rules will allow it, they will begin doing other work. This might include keeping the work space clean and neat or getting items ready for long-term storage. A truly dedicated employee will enter a new position and swap past experiences for inside information and new career contacts. This makes a nice symbiosis that is good for most companies and most employees. Employees continue to build their income while companies get the ability to keep up with the competition. Dedicated employees will have a great work ethic, dependable, and willing to put the company and job in front of almost everything else. At that time, companies boast about how they take care of their people so superbly that employee dedication is almost automatic. Participation in company bashing is not a characteristic of the dedicated employee. Encouraging other employees to work better and smarter along with helping them learn new skills is a trait that signals one is a dedicated employee. The dedicated employees respect their working hours and be completely reliable. They are not the employee who takes time off on a whim, and
who can be relied upon to be there when needed. These are also the employees who are not first in the queue to leave at the end of the day, but who will do what it takes to finish the work for the day as a priority to their own personal need to leave on time. A dedicated employee is one who appreciates that their position in the company is viewed differently from other perspectives and who is intelligent enough to realize that how they see themselves isn't necessarily the full picture. They will be able to improve within the work environment taking into account the needs of the job. The dedicated employee is one who is prepared to work on solutions. Again, it is not necessary to be in a high powered job to do this. The dedicated employee has a wonderful sense of what the workplace is all about, and will help to use the people around them and their skills to enhance what is happening at work. They will do all they can to achieve a joint aim, which is to reach the goals of the company for which they work, even if those goals seem hard to reach. These are the people who look for solutions, and help and encourage others in order to further advance the workload to fit the needs of the company. When individuals think of the workplace, they tend to overlook the others. These are the people who go the extra mile. These people are dedicated to give the best service that they can, rather than minimal effort for a wage packet. Those who call themselves dedicated but neither go the extra mile nor think of those around them may need to question their own judgment and re-appraise their own situation, taking example from those who really are the heroes of the day.

12. Time consciousness

Clock watching at work place. An employee who demonstrates lack of interest in a job by watching the time closely to be sure to stop work as soon as the workday or shift is over. Any person who watches the time closely, as in expectation of some news or event. A person who is eager for the time to pass, as at work, he doesn’t want to do things related to his/her job. Such kind of attitude creates a negative environment in the organization. People who don’t get deeply involved with their work more likely to suffer burn out or emotional exhaustion and behave lower levels of well being. An employee who is out the front doors of their workplace within seconds (really, within a few minutes) of the end of the day, is a clock watcher. Generally, a clock watcher is someone who gives off a palpable sense of not wanting to be here. Managers often expect this from lower level employees, and are pleasantly surprised when they find employees at those levels who don’t do it. For professionals,
or, other manager, clock watching will definitely get you downgraded. And it also irritates the peers groups who aren't clock watchers themselves. There may be legitimate reasons for them to leave work at precisely 5:00:02 every day. And a more tightly timed the incidents are, the more likely someone will connect them and label the person as a clock watcher. It can be concluded that job involvement, though, a board concept, yet under present study, it has been confined to twelve dimensions namely job longing, work underload, emotional involvement, persistence, planfulness, energy expenditure, task completion sensitivity, responsiveness of extra work, job concern, job saliency, job devotion and time consciousness. These dimensions of job involvement have been studied with the help of job-involvement scale given by Aggarwala (1976).

In nut shell it may be concluded that job involvement depend upon organizational climate, job satisfaction, sense of participation, occupational stress, organizational commitment, personality type, family involvement, task identity, skill variety, job characteristics, job anxiety, job burnout, age turnover, mental health, social support, belonging support and need for achievement motivation. Job involvement is partially correlated with job satisfaction. Job involvement is influence by income, tenure, gender, job level and type- A behaviour pattern. Job stress is highly negatively correlated with job involvement. Organizational role stress, alienation, performance, social support has emerged as a strong predictor of job involvement. Reward, work culture and environment, challenging job, delegation to authority and responsibility were found as potential factors of job involvement. So in order to attain high level of job involvement, job involvement training programmes in all organizations is required. Such programme not only enhances the level of job involvement, but also efficiency of the employees.

1.5 CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Dictionary meaning of satisfaction is

An act of satisfying; fulfillment; gratification. The state of being satisfied; contentment or the cause or means of being satisfied. Confident acceptance of something as satisfactory, dependable, true, etc. Job satisfaction has been defined as one's feeling or state of mind regarding the nature of their work. Job satisfaction can be influenced by variety of factors such as kind of supervision, organization policies &
administration, salary & quality of life etc. It is one of the important factors that have
drawn attention of managers in the organizations as well as academicians. Various
studies have been conducted to find out the factors which determine job satisfaction
and the way it influences the productivity in the organizations. Employers have a need
to keep employee from leaving and going to work for other organizations. The best
way of retaining employees is to provide the job satisfaction and opportunities to
build up their careers. Though there is no evidence that job satisfaction affects
productivity directly because productivity depends on many variables. Job
satisfaction is the mental feeling of favorableness which an individual has about his
job. Dubrins has defined Job Satisfaction in terms of pleasure and contentment. “Job
satisfaction is the amount of pleasure or contentment associated with a job. If you like
your job intensity, you will experience high job satisfaction, if you dislike your
intensity, you will experience job dissatisfaction.” The significance of work
experience and how it affects attitudes and values about work is becoming
increasingly clear. People spend a fairly large portion of their working life in their
working environment. Thus on humanitarian grounds this condition of their working
life should be more or less pleasant, agreeable and fulfilling. Most of them have to
work for economic reasons. Few people have option as where to work, under these
constraints, people would find little satisfaction in their lives, if the work place is not
too congenial. Essentially, job satisfaction is a person’s attitudes towards the job. Like
any other attitudes, it represents a complex assemblage of cognitions, (beliefs or
knowledge), emotions (feelings, sentiments or evaluations) and behavior tendencies.
Job satisfaction has been defined by Smith, Kendall and Hullin (1969) “as an effective
response to the facets of the situations associated with a perceived difference between
what is expected and what is experienced.” It can also be viewed as a “physical
effective state which arises in the individual as a function of the perceived
characteristics of the job in his selection of his frame of reference,” (Sinha and
Agarwala, 1971). Job satisfaction is the perception of internal responses (i.e. feelings).
Job satisfaction consists of filtered and processed perceptions, perception filtered
through the individuals’ system of norms, values, expectations and so forth. Locke
(1976) has defined Job Satisfaction, “as a pleasurable or positive emotional state of
mind resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences.” Job Satisfaction
must be assumed to be the result of the operation of situational and personality
variables, so as to reveal the complex nature of the interactions of these two sets of
factors. People's reports of their satisfaction with their jobs are, in fact, directly related to the extent to which their jobs provide them with such rewarding outcomes as pay, variety in simulation, consideration from their supervisor, a high probability of promotion, close interaction with co-worker, an opportunity to influence decisions which have future effects on them, and control over their pace of work. Hoppock (1935) indicates that job satisfaction means the mental, physical and environmental satisfaction of employee and the extent of job satisfaction can be known by inquiring employees about the job satisfaction extents. According to this approach although job satisfaction is under the influence of many external factors, it remains something internal that has to do with the way how the employee feels. That is, job satisfaction presents a set of factors that cause a feeling of satisfaction. Vroom in his definition on job satisfaction focuses on the role of the employee in the workplace. Thus he defines job satisfaction as affective orientations on the part of individuals toward work roles which they are presently occupying (Vroom, 1964). One of the most often cited definitions on job satisfaction is the one given by Specter(1977) according to whom job satisfaction has to do with the way how people feel about their job and its various aspects. It has to do with the extent to which people like or dislike their job. That's why job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction can appear in any given work situation. Job satisfaction has been defined by Lofquist and Dawis (1969) as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of the extent to which the work environment fulfills an individual's requirement" (p. 47). It is the workers' job attitude toward environment with focal attention on the mental change for individual job satisfaction of employee (Locke, 1976; Fogarty, 1994; Robbins, 1996). Its differential definition given by (Smith et al., 1969; Hodson, 1991) emphasizes job satisfaction and the difference between the actually deserved reward and the expected reward from employees; the larger difference means the lower satisfaction. Reference structure theory of job satisfaction emphasizes the fact that the objective characteristics of organizations or jobs are the important factors to influence employees' working attitude and behaviors but the subjective sensibility and explanation of working employees about these objective characteristics; the said sensibility and explanation are also affected by self reference structures of individual employee (Morse, 1953; Homans, 1961). Although no uniform definition of job satisfaction exists (Siegel & Lane, 1982); job satisfaction is generally considered to be the overall feeling that a worker has about a job. Young (1984) defined job
satisfaction as “the affective reaction that employees have about their jobs” (p. 115). According to Young, job satisfaction has implications for the individual related to physical and mental health, for the organization related to the acceptance of and good performance on the job, and for society related to quantity and quality of life. Job satisfaction represents a combination of positive or negative feelings that workers have towards their work. Meanwhile, when a worker employed in a business organization, brings with it the needs, desires and experiences which determinates expectations that he has dismissed. Job satisfaction represents the extent to which expectations are and match the real awards. Job satisfaction is closely linked to that individual's behavior in the workplace (Davis et al., 1985). Solly and Hohenshil (1986) stated “Job satisfaction is defined as an attitude individuals hold about their work consisting of a general or global factor of satisfaction as well as a collection of specific factors related to sources of work reinforcement” (p. 119). According to Hoppock (1977), job satisfaction can be defined as essentially any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say, “I am satisfied with my job”. The sense of fulfillment and pride felt by people who enjoy their work and do it well (Hoppock, 1977). Frederick Herzberg (1958) called elements such as remuneration, working relationships, status, and job security "hygiene factors" because they concern the context in which somebody works. Hygiene factors do not in themselves promote job satisfaction, but serve primarily to prevent job dissatisfaction. Motivators contribute to job satisfaction and include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. An absence of job satisfaction can lead to poor motivation, stress, absenteeism, and high labor turnover. Job satisfaction has been defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job; an affective reaction to one's job; and an attitude towards one's job. Job satisfaction represents a combination of positive or negative feelings that workers have towards their work. Meanwhile, when a worker employed in a business organization, brings with it the needs, desires and experiences which determinates expectations that he has dismissed. Job satisfaction represents the extent to which expectations match the real rewards. Job satisfaction is closely linked to that individual's behavior in the workplace (Davis et al., 1985). Weiss (2002) has argued that job satisfaction is an attitude but points out that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affecting (emotion), beliefs and behaviors. Job satisfaction can be defined also as the extent to which a worker is
contented with the rewards he or she gets out of his or her job, particularly in terms of intrinsic motivation (Statt, 2004). Job satisfaction is usually linked with motivation, but the nature of this relationship is not clear. Satisfaction is not the same as motivation. Job satisfaction is more of an attitude, an internal state. It could, for example, be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative (Mullins, 2005). The term job satisfaction refers to the attitudes and feelings people have about their work. Positive and favorable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction. Negative and unfavorable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2006). Job satisfaction is a worker’s sense of achievement and success on the job. It is generally perceived to be directly linked to productivity as well as to personal well-being. Job satisfaction implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well and being rewarded for one's efforts. Job satisfaction further implies enthusiasm and happiness with one's work. Job satisfaction is the key ingredient that leads to recognition, income, promotion, and the achievement of other goals that lead to a feeling of fulfillment (Kaliski, 2007). Job satisfaction is the collection of feeling and beliefs that people have about their current job. People's levels of degrees of job satisfaction can range from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction in addition to having attitudes about their jobs as a whole. People also have attitudes about various aspects of their jobs such as the kind of work they do, their coworkers, supervisors or subordinates and their pay (George et al., 2008). Job satisfaction represents a feeling that appears as a result of the perception that the job enables the material and psychological needs (Aziri, 2008). This definition suggests that people form attitudes towards jobs by taking into account their feelings, beliefs, and behaviors. "Job satisfaction is defined as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (Spector, 1997, p. 2). This definition suggests job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their job. "Job satisfaction is a positive emotional state that occurs when a person's job seems to fulfill one's needs" (Williams). It is not always related with the money factor—because some people also work to satisfy their urge to work. Paul Spector's (1977) refers to job satisfaction as "a cluster of evaluative feelings about the job" and identifies nine facets of job satisfaction that are measured by the Job satisfaction: pay - amount and fairness or equity of salary, promotion - opportunities and fairness of promotions, supervision - fairness and competence at managerial tasks by one's supervisor, benefits - insurance, vacation, and other fringe
benefits, contingent rewards - sense of respect, recognition, and appreciation, operating procedures - policies, procedures, rules, perceived red tape, coworkers - perceived competence and pleasantness of one’s colleagues, nature of work - enjoyment of the actual tasks themselves, communication - sharing of information within the organization. The intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are not directly connected with job satisfaction, because of the employees’ perceptions regarding the deserved level of pay (Lawler and Porter, 1967). The objectives set at the highest level and a high expectation for success in work provides achievement and success in performing tasks. Success is analyzed as a factor that creates job satisfaction (Locke and Latham 1990). Generally it is agreed that job satisfaction involves the attitudes, emotions, and feelings about a job, and how these attitudes, emotions and feelings affect the job and the employee’s personal life. Maslow (1954) suggests that people are driven by unsatisfied needs that shape their behavior. Maslow (1954) and Hoppock (1935) suggested that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction share a single continuum. They further suggest that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors have the capacity to create satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Maslow describes one end of this continuum as a “growth” needs and, at the other end of the continuum as “deficiency” needs. Vroom (1964) states that job satisfaction are negatively related to the degree of discrepancy between what the worker needs and the extent to which the job meets those needs. Davis et al. (1964) states that work is conceptualized as an interaction between an individual and a work environment. The work environment requires that certain tasks be performed, and the individual brings skills to perform the tasks. In exchange, the individual requires compensation for work performance and certain preferred conditions, such as a safe and comfortable place to work. The environment and the individual must continue to meet each other’s requirements for the interaction to be maintained. Personalities and work environments can be described in terms of structure and style variables that are measured on the same dimensions. Pinder (1998) describes the first set of needs as basic survival needs, which can be looked at as those needs being concerned with the avoiding of pain and discomfort and as providing primary needs such as sex, thirst, and hunger. Pinder describes the second set of growth needs as those that express themselves in attempts by people to become all that they are capable of becoming. Herzberg (1958) also theorized that growth or motivation factors intrinsic to the job are: achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth for advancement (Gruneberg, 1979). He
also theorized that the hygiene factors or those factors that produce dissatisfaction are: company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security. Interpersonal relations with subordinates, policy and administration, interpersonal relations with superiors, and interpersonal relations with peers were perceived to be major determinants of overall satisfaction (Schmidt 1976). Job satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren’t met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn’t value that facet. Job satisfaction as being determined not only by the nature of the job and its context within the organization, but also by the needs, values and expectations that the individuals have in relation to their job (Gruneberg, 1979). The work adjustment is based on the concept of correspondence between the individual and environment (Davis & Lofquist, 1984). The individual seeks to achieve and to maintain correspondence with the environment. While many kinds of environments exist for an individual – home, school, work, church – to which an individual must relate, achieving and maintaining correspondence with one environment may affect the correspondence with other environments. Work then represents one such environment in which one must relate. Satisfaction then indicates the correspondence between the individual and the work environment (Davis & Lofquist, 1984). Those individuals who have a greater need for pay and achievement than others and where a job gives no opportunity for increased pay or achievement; such individuals are likely to be more frustrated than those whose need for higher pay and achievement is less. People develop beliefs about what constitutes a fair and equitable return for their contributions to their jobs. People tend to compare what they perceive to be the exchange they have with their employers to that which they perceive co-workers have with their employers. When people believe that their own treatment is not equitable, relative to the exchange they perceive others, then they will be motivated to do something about the inequity (Pinder, 1998). Employees compare their inputs and outputs from his/her job to others, such as his/her friends, co-workers, and others in the industry. People’s satisfaction is a function of how much of a reward or outcome they are receiving for their work. Satisfaction
depends on how much of a given outcome or group of outcomes a person receives (Lawler, 1994). In job satisfaction causes a series of influences on various aspects of organizational life. Some of them such as the influence of job satisfaction on employee productivity, loyalty and absenteeism are analyzed as part of this text. The preponderance of research evidence indicates that there is no strong linkage between satisfaction and productivity. Satisfied workers will not necessarily be the highest producers. There are many possible moderating variables, the most important of which seems to be rewards. If people receive rewards they feel are equitable, they will be satisfied and this is likely to result in greater performance effort. Also, recent research evidence indicates that satisfaction may not necessarily lead to individual performance improvement but does lead to departmental and organizational level improvements. Finally there are still considerable debate weather satisfaction leads to performance or performance leads to satisfaction (Luthans, 1998). Employee loyalty is one of the most significant factors that human resource managers in particular must have in mind. Usually three types of employee loyalty are considered: affective loyalty, normative loyalty and continuity loyalty. Affective loyalty has do with the cases when an employee feels an emotional connection to the company, normative loyalty is a sort of loyalty that appears in cases when the employee feels like he owes something to the company and continuity loyalty comes as a result of the fact that the employee does not have an opportunity to find a job somewhere else. The work, the pay, the supervision, the opportunities for promotion and co-worker are some of factors of job satisfaction.

Large numbers of studies have been designed to access the impact of job satisfaction on employee productivity, absenteeism and turnover. It is said that happy workers are not necessarily productive workers and the evidence suggests that the reverse to be more accurate—that productivity is likely to lead satisfaction. When satisfaction and productivity data are gathered for the organization as a whole, rather than at the individual level, result shows that organizations with more satisfied employees tend to be more effective than organizations with fewer satisfied employees. Earlier Studies have focused on individuals rather than on the organization and that individual-level measures of productivity do not take into consideration. So it might be true that happy organizations are more productive. It certainly makes sense that dissatisfied employees more likely to miss work; other
factors have an impact on the relationship. Satisfaction is also negatively related to turnover, but the correlation is stronger than absenteeism. Other factors such as labor market conditions, expectations about alternative job opportunities, and length of the tenure with the organization are important constraints on the actual decision to leave once current jobs. Evidence indicates that important moderator of the satisfaction-turnover relationship is the employees' levels of performance (Luthans, 1998). Specifically, level of satisfaction is less important in predicting turnover for superior performance. The organization typically makes considerable efforts to keep these people. They get pay raises, praise, recognition and increased promotional opportunities.

1.6 DIMENSION OF JOB SATISFACTION UNDER STUDY

Job satisfaction consists of certain factors such as: the nature of work, salary, advancement opportunities, management, work groups and work conditions. A somewhat different approach regarding the factors of job satisfaction is provided by Rue and Byars i.e. the opposite side of job satisfaction is job dissatisfaction. There is no consensus regarding this issue among authors. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory is probably the most often cited point of view. In fact the main idea is that employees in their work environment are under the influence of factors that cause job satisfaction and factors that cause job dissatisfaction. Therefore all factors that have derived from a large empirical research and divided in factors that cause job satisfaction (motivators) and factors that cause job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors). Keeping in view the above conceptual framework, job satisfaction has been taken as a summation of employees feeling in four important areas. Two of these areas encompasses on job factor i.e. those directly connected with the job. The other two include off the job factors, i.e. not directly connected with the job, but which are presumed to have bearing on job satisfaction (Pestonjee, 1973, 1981). These areas are: Fig. 2

![Job satisfaction and its dimensions](image_url)
1. Job

Under this dimension nature of work, hours of work, fellow workers, opportunities on the job etc have been studied. One of the major assets of an organization is the people that it employs. The term nature of job means something that just naturally comes along with, is a part of, and/or is integral to the job. For example: A job may be something like: waitress. The nature of the job is something like: serving food and beverages and providing good customer service. Locke (1976) has defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences" meaning that job satisfaction is associated with an individual's emotional reactions to a particular job. For instance, workers in larger firms tend to be more specialized whereas those in smaller firms often have a wider variety of duties. Most occupations have several levels of skills and responsibilities through which workers may progress. Beginners may start as trainees performing routine tasks under close supervision. Experienced workers usually undertake more difficult tasks and are expected to perform with less supervision. So proper knowledge is required to every employee that what entails in their job. On the other hand, hours of work and working time is the period of time that an individual spends at paid occupational labour. Unpaid labours such as personal housework or caring for children/pets are not considered part of the working hours. Working hours, such as stipulating minimum daily rest periods, annual holidays and a maximum number of working hours per week have been fixed by management. Working time may vary from person to person often depending on location, culture, lifestyle choice, and the profitability of the individual’s livelihood. Normal working hours refer to the legislation to limit the working hours per day, per week, per month or per year. If an employee needs to work overtime, the employer will need to pay overtime payments to employees as required in the law. Maximum working hours refers to the maximum working hours of an employee. The employee cannot work more than the level specified in the maximum working hour’s law. Fellow-worker or members of a staff, department, profession, etc also determine the level of job satisfaction. Workplace relationships directly affect a worker’s ability to succeed. These relationships basically include day to day interaction among worker, employees, or Managers. An interpersonal relationship is the nature of interaction that occurs between two or more people. People in an interpersonal relationship may interact overtly, covertly, face-to-
face or even anonymously. An individual's level of job satisfaction might be a function of personal characteristics and the characteristics of the groups to which she or he belongs to. The social context of work is likely to have a significant impact on a worker's attitude and behaviour. Relationships with both co-workers and supervisors are important. Every individual shares a certain relationship with his colleagues at the workplace. The relationship can be between anyone in the organization - between co-workers, between an employee and his superior, between two members in the management and so on. It is important that the employees share a healthy relationship with each other to deliver their best performances. An individual spends his maximum time at the workplace and his fellow workers are the ones with whom he spends the maximum hours in a day. One needs to discuss so many things at work and needs the advice and suggestions of all to reach to a solution which would benefit the individual as well as the organization. No individual can work alone. He needs the support and guidance of his fellow workers to come out with a brilliant idea and deliver his level best. The employees must be comfortable with each other for a healthy environment at work. It is the prime duty of the superiors and team leaders to discourage conflicts in the team and encourage a healthy relationship among employees. The success and failure of any organization is directly proportional to the labour put by each and every employee. The employees must share a good rapport with each other and strive hard to realize the goal of the organization. They should complement each other and work together as a single unit. For the employees, the organization must come first and all their personal interests should take a back seat. The degree to which companies offer personal and professional growth opportunities for employees plays into the overall work environment. Opportunities to learn new skills, take on new responsibilities, achieve higher compensation and gain new positions can allow employees to set and work towards goals, conveying a sense of personal achievement that boosts employee satisfaction. Employees rarely prefer to remain static in their careers for long. Rather, most people continually look for opportunities to advance. Providing these opportunities can keep your employee turnover levels under control, as employees stick with you for longer to achieve their personal and career goals. The opportunity for advancement is important to how satisfied the worker is with the job. Vroom (1982) found considerable evidence in related literature to suggest that promotional opportunities are important to a worker's satisfaction with the job. Vroom explained that job satisfaction is directly related to the extent that jobs provide individuals with
rewarding outcomes. If a worker believes that achievement of organizational goals will lead to such personal rewards as promotion, then whether or not these rewards occur is likely to affect the worker's job satisfaction. Schneider, Gunnarson, & Wheeler (1992) also state that promotional opportunity is important to job satisfaction. They wrote: "Employees who perceive few opportunities for advancement have negative attitudes toward their work and their organizations". While advancement in rank or position is associated with higher pay, and thus is an extrinsic motivator, opportunity for advancement is considered an intrinsic motivator. The opportunity to advance means more to a worker than material gains. Vroom (1982) interpreted promotional opportunity as a desired, positive, personal goal. He stated that promotional opportunity is a goal most workers desire and that an individual's performance is related to the degree to which the individual believes that being promoted is related to performance on the job and how strongly the individual desires the promotion. Argyris (1964) theorized that enlarging a person's job is important to promoting growth in an individual and increasing the worker's psychological energy devoted to the job, thus increasing job effectiveness.

Specialization in one or two aspects of a job results in a feeling of not being responsible for the total outcome.

2. **Management**

Refers to Supervisory treatment, participation, reward and punishment, praise and blame etc. These entiredimensions have important role in job satisfaction. There is disagreement on the importance of the relationship of the supervisor-worker relationship and job satisfaction. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) state that the relationship between workers and supervisors is overrated as a variable affecting job satisfaction. Vroom (1982), however, states that there is considerable evidence demonstrating that satisfaction is related to the consideration an employee feels is received from supervisors. Bruce and Blackburn (1992) ranked good managerial relations second among variables affecting job satisfaction. They asserted that both job satisfaction and job performance are dependent on supervisors in the organization. Several aspects of managerial relations with workers to be significantly related to job satisfaction. "Treat employee as important person" was one managerial behaviour that was found to be related to job satisfaction. Other managerial variables found to be related to job satisfaction were "communication, "frankness, "consistence, "helps
solve job-related problems, "encouragement to seek educational opportunities," aware
of employee difficulties," "encouragement to make suggestions," and "ability to foster
good relations with work force" (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992, p. 18). Other researchers
have concluded that supervisor relations are important to job satisfaction. Solly and
Hohenschil (1986) found that supervisor relations are related to overall satisfaction
among employees. Jones (1990) reports that there is a relationship between the goal-
related behaviour and the assistant job satisfaction, and that the consideration offered
by principals is important to the feelings of satisfaction received from the jobs. The
use of participation is believed to increase employee's satisfaction. Since there are
many benefits from higher employee job satisfaction, many companies have begun
taking more participative measures. Studies have shown that there is a positive
relationship between the use of a participative management approach and employee
satisfaction. Participative management focuses on empowering the employee to tell
that their opinion and participation is important to the success of an organization.
Some theorists go as far as classifying participative management as an ethical
imperative. Others deem it just another managerial technique that can only be
implemented in certain situations. Participative management can be a useful technique
to increase job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness. Employee Participation is
generally defined as a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are
otherwise hierarchically unequal (Locke and Schweiger, 1979; Wagner, 1994).
Participatory management practice balances the involvement of managers and their
subordinates in information processing, decision making and problem solving
endeavours (Wager, 1994). Coch and French (1949) are considered to be the pioneers
in studying employee participation in the workplace. They developed the productivity
and efficiency rationale, assuming that there is a direct link between employees,
involvement in decision-making and work outcomes such as the increase of job
satisfaction and productivity. Participation in decision-making can satisfy employees,
self-actualization needs and, by doing so, increase employees, motivation and job
performance (Likert, 1961). In 2002, Kim looked for the relationship between the
use of participative management and job satisfaction. Participative management style
correlated positively to job satisfaction. It was also found that employees who felt
they had effective communication with management and strong input in the
participative strategic planning process were associated with high levels of job
satisfaction. Participativemanagement gives employees a sense of empowerment.
Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason (1997) looked at the ability of supervisors to empower employees and the relationship towards employee satisfaction. In order to empower employees, four cognitions must be met: a sense of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. "Meaning" encompasses the creation of a fit between the needs of one's work and one's values, beliefs and behaviors. "Competence" is the belief that one has all the necessary skills and abilities to perform his/her job well. "Self determination "is the belief that one has control over how she does one's work. "Impact" is the perception that one has influence over strategic, administrative or operating outcomes to make a difference at work. All of these aspects are important to give employees the sense of empowerment. If employees lack "competence," they feel inadequate in being able to perform their job. Finally, if individuals do not feel they are making an "impact" through their work they will not feel empowered. Some researchers believe that participative management needs to be implemented in most companies because it is an "ethical imperative." Sashkin (1984) feels that the implementation of a participative management scheme can satisfy all three basic human work needs which in his opinion are: autonomy, achievement and interpersonal contact in the context of work activities. The failure to satisfy those needs can result in physical or psychological harm. He concludes his study by taking the ethical position - do not harm other people. Therefore, participative management is an ethical imperative. Participative management being an ethical imperative by saying that the opposite is true. Locke, et al, (1986) makes the point that job satisfaction is not a right; it is a responsibility that both employee and employer must pursue in the interest of both parties. If employees want satisfaction and happiness through raises and promotions, and employers want satisfaction through running a profitable organization, then these views come into conflict. Locke, et al, (1986) conclude by saying that good management is the result of intelligence, experience and clear thinking and that sometimes participation can be an answer and sometimes it can't be. The success of participative management techniques rely on the personnel involved. Participative management will not succeed if the employees do not desire it. Studies have also shown that employees need to have an interest or attachment to the employing firm to make them feel that their participation will be legitimate. If employees are asked to contribute their ideas on something they know nothing about, this will lead to a low-quality decision and a negative emotional impact at best. Participative management can produce gains for employers and benefits for workers,
but it will not usher in a new era of labour-management relations. Due to the circumstances in which a participative management approach can succeed, it will not and cannot be implemented into all organizations. In this age, the workplace should be a place where people can work together in order to get things done in the most efficient way. Employee participation has been shown to not only increase employee satisfaction but also company productivity and efficiency.

3. **Social Relations**

   Social relations implies the relationship with neighbours, friends and associates, attitudes towards people in community etc. These are the relationships which have high emotional attachment with the individuals. Any disturbance leads to an impact on employee's attitude. Relationships are the building blocks for all community organizing activities. Because the relationships with our co-workers, the communities, and even adversaries are the means for achieving goals. People don't work in isolation. It's always better to build relationships before you need them or before a conflict arises. The state of workplace relationships is of critical importance to organisational success and the wellbeing of people at work. Workplace relationships exist between different groups (teams, functions, departments), between management, staff and the union, and between staff and their union. These relationships are influenced by how people individually treat each other in the workplace. A better working relationship can emerge when everyone comes together as partners or allies. The distinct and different interests of each group are recognised, but there is more focus on how the partners can work together to the benefit of everyone. Poor workplace relationships can affect the overall performance of the organisation. When relationships between individuals and groups aren't working well, an organisation may experience communication breakdowns, low morale and job satisfaction, more personal grievances and high rates of staff turnover. A constant focus by the union on negative issues can also lead to relationship tensions between the union and its members. If an employee feels emotionally or socially detached at work and cannot seem to fit into the organization's culture or mix with other colleagues, feelings of dissatisfaction may start to surface. He or she may prefer to find a different job than try to approach the issue directly. Workplace relationships and interaction have an impact on employee satisfaction and retention. Negative attitudes can lead to isolation and loneliness, which may instigate an employee's
desire to resign. Be cognizant of your employees' moods and, without intruding in their personal lives, ask if there is anything you can do from an employer/employee standpoint. If an employees' issue stems from the office, this gives the employee an open door to discuss concerns. Making friends at work and engaging in social activities such as having lunch together or a drink after hours helps to build healthy relationships and strengthen bonds. Healthy relationships may motivate employees and increase morale. When employees cast aside relationship issues, they can focus on work tasks more effectively. By getting to know peers, employees can understand each other to be able to work together more effectively in a team.

4. **Personal Adjustments**

Refers to emotionality, health, home and living conditions etc. It is basically a rational coordination that someone has to maintain if he/she wants to do a job. Rational coordination is expected to improve performance in potentially significant ways. High-quality relationships reinforce high-quality communication, encouraging participants to listen to each other and to take account of the impact of their own actions or inactions on those who are engaged in different parts of the process, therefore, helping them to accept to new information in a coordinated way, further contributing to performance of the work process. But when does rational coordination matter? A great number of people struggle daily with tension resulting from the accumulation of their roles as parent, spouse, worker and community member. The extent of this problem calls for action on the part of stakeholders and decision makers concerned with public health, because researches have shown the negative impact of attempting to balance various spheres of life on the health, well-being, marital and family life of individuals. The work-family conflict affects on the health and well-being of individuals. One way to assess the impact of reconciling work and family is to measure the degree of satisfaction felt by individuals with regard to their lives and their work. Individuals experiencing a high degree of work-family conflict tend to be less satisfied with their job and their life in general. Employees who feel that the demands of their professional life conflict with those of their family life are less satisfied with life in general, as well as with their family life. The difficulty of balancing family and professional life also leads to dissatisfaction with leisure activities. However, lack of time is not the only variable affecting the conjugal life of people who must reconcile this aspect of their life with their work. In
some individuals, a long list of daily activities and concerns can provoke anxiety and a sense of being overburdened, which can lead to withdrawal from conjugal life. These people feel that so many demands are being made on them in the various spheres of their life that they cannot respond to the demands of conjugal life. By withdrawing, they attempt to alleviate their sense of being overburdened. Managing people in the organization should be an easy task for a human resource department, but the many changes in the workplaces and employees' lives have created a challenge in balancing work life and personal life. This also leads to a complicated relationship between organizations and its employees. Organizations are looking for better performance and productivity, whereas people are looking for enjoyment, pay, promotion and job satisfaction while maintaining their personal lives. In order to have better performance and productive employees, the organization should apply proper balancing policies to achieve good results from their employees.

5. On-the-Job Satisfaction and Off-the-Job Satisfaction

On the job-satisfaction or job satisfaction is, quite simply, how content or satisfied employees are with their jobs. Employee satisfaction is typically measured using an employee satisfaction survey such as compensation, workload, perceptions of management, flexibility, teamwork, resources, etc. These things are all important to keep employees happy and reduce turnover, but employee satisfaction is only a part of the overall solution. In fact, for some organizations, satisfied employees are people the organization might be better off without. Employee satisfaction and employee engagement are similar concepts on the surface, and many people use these terms interchangeably. Employee satisfaction covers the basic concerns and needs of employees. On the other hand, the condition or feeling of being displeased or unsatisfied or discontent also arises. Providing on-the-job satisfaction is not a simple matter for two reasons: first, the principle difficulty lies in meeting needs for social contracts, self expression and psychological security. Fulfilling each of these needs, calls for the active participation and often the initiative of worker himself. A manager cannot force a worker to enjoy his associate, be independent, take pride in his work, and be confident about his futures, a manager can only create an environment in which such feelings can flourish. Secondly, on-the-job satisfaction should arise only when men do the work i.e. necessary to meet company goals. The sequence of events is not that a manager first assures worker satisfaction and then hopes that the happy
worker will decide to do the tasks assigned to them; a satisfied need does not motivate behavior. How does a benevolent boss parcel out satisfaction as a reward? Satisfaction arises either directly or indirectly from the work. This distinction has an important bearing on how a manager seeks to motivate his subordinates. Work itself can be satisfying. A sense of achievement, for instance, arises from doing a job well when a man performs an assigned task and at the same time satisfies his basic needs, he enjoys direct or on the job satisfaction. In such a case, it is the work itself and the normal relations with other people at work. There may be rewards for work that are not generated as an aspect of work activity. Familiar forms of the kind of reward are pay, vacations, and pension. Satisfaction that arises from such rewards take place outside the management system or work situation, and mostly outside the company work is simply a means of obtaining satisfaction at a later time and place. It is known as "indirect or off-the-job satisfaction." Most of the literature in economics and scientific management stresses financial matters or job compensation. But behavioral scientists have insisted and these one of their major contributions, that on the job satisfaction are also highly important. There is only limited agreement on the issue as to what makes a person satisfied or dissatisfied. Harigopal (1979) has also used an indigenous questionnaire for measuring job satisfaction. The satisfaction, dissatisfaction (SD) employees' inventory has been developed by Pestonjee (1973, 1981) and has been used in organizational stress-job satisfaction studies. In India (Pestonjee and Singh, 1982, a and b, Sharma and Sharma, 1983, 1984). This inventory provides satisfaction scores on four dimensions (Job, Management, Social Relation, Personal Adjustment) as well as on the job and off the job facets of job satisfaction. For the purpose of the study the concepts of job involvement and job satisfaction has been operationally defined in terms of the tools utilized to measure them on the samples of public and private bank employees. A person's job is more than just the obvious activities of shuffling papers, writing programme code, waiting on customer, or driving a truck. Job requires interaction with co-workers and bosses, following organizational rules and policies, meeting performance standards, living with working conditions that are often less than ideal, and the like. This means that job satisfaction is an employees' assessment of how satisfied or dissatisfied he or she is with his or her job in a complex summation of a number of discrete job elements.
From the above discussion it is concluded that there is no definition of job satisfaction which covers all the dimensions of job satisfaction. Different academicians have different view regarding job satisfaction. The meaning of job satisfaction is varies individual to individual and organization to organization. Pay, working conditions, management policies, relationship with working people etc, are the dimensions of job satisfaction. By analyzing the above definition or literature, it can be said that job satisfaction is basically a varying attitudinal ability of the individuals, against the environment in which they are performing and adjusting themselves according to the situational changes. Company policies, supervision, salary, interpersonal relationship and working condition all should be arranged in such a manner that provides maximum satisfaction to the workers. By creating such an environment that promotes job satisfaction, employees can be developed in such a way that they are motivated, productive and fulfilled (Syptak, Marshand and Ullmer, 1999).

1.7 CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

“Organization Effectiveness is the extent to which an organization achieves its goals within the limited constraint of resources.” (L.M PRASAD, 2008). To inquire into effectiveness is to ask how well an organization is doing, relative to some set of standards. During the 1950’s and early 1960’s the topic was neglected because of a lack of theoretical justification (Hannan & Freeman, 1977). As a result, the concept of Organizational effectiveness was raised when contingency theorists began to argue that some types of organisational structure were better suited than others to certain tasks or environments (Scott, 1987). It is argued by several contingency theorists, such as Pennings (1975), that Organizational effectiveness is a determinant as well as a consequence of organisational structure. Organizational effectiveness has become one of the most complex and controversial areas of organisational research. Organizational effectiveness deals with values and preferences that cannot be determined by objective means. Only a few studies have attempted to provide a definition of organizational effectiveness E (Mohr, 1971), including Seashore and Yuchtman (1967), who viewed effectiveness as the ability of the organization to exploit the environment in the acquisition of critical resources, and Price (1968), who defines effectiveness as the degree of goal achievement. In addition, there is also disagreement over which domain of organisational activity represents the legitimate
focus of attention for effectiveness studies (Cameron, 1981b:525) and over the appropriate level of analysis for measuring the construct. Despite the differences in opinion amongst Organizational effectiveness researchers, it is necessary that an understanding of Organizational effectiveness is acquired by the organization the "...ultimate dependent variable in organisational research" (Cameron & Whetton, 1983:2). Pearson (1960) has referred to the organizations as the social system with a "specific purpose". According to him, the examples of organizations are government agencies, business firm, universities, trade associations, hospitals and trade union. The other terms often used to designate organizations are “complex organizations, formal organizations, bureaucracies, and large scale organization”. According to Robbins (1998), an organization is a consciously coordinated, social entity, with a relatively identifiable boundary, that functions as a relatively continuous basis to achieve common goal or set of goals. Schermerhooon (1989) has defined organization as a collection of individuals or group which performs with the facilities necessary for its execution, that the duties so performed provide the best channels for efficient, systematic, positive and coordinated efforts (Sheldon, 1930). Stoner and Freeman (1994) have referred organizational structure as the way in which the organizational activities are defined, organized and coordinated. He has further defined the organization as the group of two or more people who work together in a structured way to achieve a specific goal or a set of goals. Families and communities are the examples of social system. Organizational Effectiveness is more comprehensive than is reflected by mere good performance, and productivity of members or the financial success of the organization. Organizational Effectiveness reflects how effectively an organization can discharge its obligations with respect to all its constituents in its internal and external environment i.e. shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, government agencies and the general public (S.K. Gupta and Joshi, 2008). Organizational Effectiveness, also called as organizational success or growth, is defined and conceptualized in different ways, and no unanimity is found in different approaches. Thus, various terms are often used interchangeably, such as efficiency, productivity, profitability, organizational growth to denote organizational effectiveness. This inconsistency mainly arises because of discrepant conception of organizational effectiveness (L.M. Prasad 2008).
**Effectiveness and Efficiency:** - Peter F. Drucker (1967) has suggested the few concepts of efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency means doing things right i.e. the ability to minimize the use of resources in achieving organizational objectives. Whereas effectiveness is doing the right things i.e. the ability to determine appropriate objectives. Efficiency is an input –output concept. An efficient manager is one who achieves output, or results with minimum out put (labour, material, and time) Effectiveness in contrast, involves choosing right goals. In fact Drucker (1964) says, effectiveness is the key to organizational success. Ducker also observes that the greatest temptation to work is on doing better and better”. According to Scott (1998:344-346), organisational effectiveness can be viewed from three broad perspectives, the rational, natural and open system perspectives. Under a rational system model, organizations are viewed as instruments for the attainment of goals; an organization is thus viewed to be effective if it has clearly defined and attainable goals. The natural system model, on the other hand, views organizations as collectivities that are capable of achieving specified goals but are engaged in other activities required to maintain themselves as a social unit. An organization is deemed to be effective if the satisfaction and morale of its participants are high. The open system perspective views organizations as being highly interdependent with their environments and views organisational effectiveness as the ability of an organization to exploit its environment in the acquisition of scarce and valued resources as well as how best it is able to adapt to its environment. The organisational effectiveness is a multifaceted phenomenon. To evaluate performance, criteria must be selected and then work compared to developed standards (Scott . 352).

1. Setting standard:- Cyert and March (1963) use an aspiration level perspective and argue that organizational goals are a function of previous goals, experience with these previous goals, and other organization's experience with these previous goals. Thompson (1967) says that the appropriate effectiveness criteria depends clarity of the standards and cause-effect relationships.

2. Selecting Indicators:- There are three basic types of indicators— those based on outcomes, on processes, and on structures (Scott p. 353).

3. Outcomes:- Outcomes focus on materials or objects on which the organization has performed some operation (Scott p. 353). These are the most common effectiveness measurements, but can be the most difficult to define and measure and are not immune to ambiguity and measurement error.

Though they are in some respects a more pure measurement of organizational performance, they are an assessment of conformity of a given objective. Substituting process criteria for outcome criteria can compromise service in some situations.

"Structural indicators assess the capacity of the organization for effective performance" (Scott p. 357). These include organizational features (equipment age or type) or participant characteristics (degree attained, licensing, etc.). Structural indicators form the basis for accreditation reviews and licensing systems. The concept of organisational effectiveness relies on the systems theory. Two main conclusions of systems theory are: (1) that effectiveness criteria must reflect the entire input-process-output circle, not simply output, and (2) that effectiveness criteria must reflect the interrelationships between the organization and its outside environment. Thus organisational effectiveness is an all-encompassing concept that includes a number of components. The managerial task is to maintain the optimal balance among various components. According to systems theory, an organization is an element of a larger system, the environment. With the passage of time, every organization takes, processes, and returns resources to the environment. The ultimate criterion of organisational effectiveness is whether the organization survives in the environment. Survival requires adaptation, and adaptation often involves predictable sequences. As the organization ages, it will probably pass through different phases. Some writers suggest that an organization passes through a life cycle. It forms, develops, matures, and declines in relation to environmental circumstances. Today, the personal computer industry is on the rise and the steel industry is declining. Marketing experts acknowledge the existence of product-market life cycles. Organizations also seem to have life cycles. Consequently, the appropriate criteria of effectiveness must reflect the stage of the organization life cycle. Managers and others with interests in the organization must have indicators that access the probability of the organizations’ survival. In actual practices, managers use a number of short-run indicators of long-run survival. Among these indicators are measurements of productivity, efficiency, accidents, turnover, absenteeism, and quality, rate of return, morale, and employee satisfaction. Any of these criteria can be relevant for particular purposes. For simplicity, we will use three criteria of short-run effectiveness as representative of all such criteria. They are production, efficiency, and satisfaction. Two other criteria complete the time dimension model: adaptiveness and development. These criteria reflect effectiveness in the intermediate time period. Many research studies have been
conducted in an attempt to measure Organizational effectiveness by using different criteria. Typically, organizations have been viewed as rational entities in the pursuit of goals (Etzioni, 1964; Perrow, 1970), as coalitions reacting to strategic constituencies (Pfeffer & Salanick, 1978), as information processing systems (Galbraith, 1973), as meaning-producing systems (Weick, 1978) and so on. Accordingly, the lack of agreement on all these issues has led to argue for a moratorium on traditional Organizational effectiveness studies (Hannan & Freeman, 1977). Cameron (1980:67-68), offers a similar perspective and highlights that evaluators of organisational effectiveness have used four major approaches. The first approach defines effectiveness in terms of how well an organization accomplishes its goals. A second approach to effectiveness is the system resource approach which judges effectiveness on the extent to which an organization acquires needed resources; the more of the needed resources an organization can obtain from its external environment, the more effective it is. A third approach to effectiveness focuses on the internal processes and operations of the organization. Effective organizations are those with an absence of internal strain. The fourth approach is the strategic constituency’s approach which defines effectiveness as the extent to which all of the organization's strategic constituencies are at least minimally satisfied. The lack of consensus on definition has led to the suggestion that the whole construct of Organizational effectiveness is "enigmatic" and that "effectiveness should be treated as representing an unmapped terrain where different approaches and models add to the completeness of the map, and debates about the accuracy of one viewpoint versus another are put aside" (Cameron, 1984), implying that the study of effectiveness should be consistent with the "appropriate model of effectiveness, including its criteria set, with the appropriate circumstances" (Cameron, 1986a:542-3). Different authors have given different attributes used for assessing organizational effectiveness. (Adaptation to the external environment; monitoring of the internal environment; and achieving objective; collaboration, revitalization; integration; capacity to test reality; and sense of identity. Stability; integration; voluntarism; and achievement ,profitability and growth , integration; and goal-attainment, environmental orientation; optimum allocation of resources.; employee satisfaction; contribution to society and the community Flexibility to environmental changes; flexibility to internal changes; maintenance; and absence of organisational strain., efficiency; political effectiveness; growth; storage; survival; and control over the environment ,optimal balance of integration and
differentiation, flexibility; and productivity, productivity; morale; adaptation; conformity; and utilization, open communication; flexibility; creativity; and psychological, optimization of resources; acquisition and maximization of bargaining position with respect to the environment; Argyris (1970) Bennis (1969) Caplow (1964); Child (1974, 1975) Duncan (1973); Etzioni (1960). Freidlaner & Pickle (1968); Katz & Kahn (1966); Lawrence & Lorsch (1967) Mott (1972); Price (1968) Schein (1970; Seashore & Yuchtman (1967). In the time dimension model, criteria of effectiveness are typically stated in terms of the short run, the intermediate run, and the long run. Short-run are those referring to the results of actions that conclude in a year or less. Intermediate-run criteria are applicable when you judge the effectiveness of an individual, group, or organization for a longer time period, perhaps five years. Long-run criteria are those for which the indefinite future is applicable. Five general categories of effectiveness criteria, beginning with those of a short-run nature have been given below. 1. Production: Production reflects the ability of the organization to produce quality of output. The measures of production include profit, sales, market share, students graduated, patients released, documents processed, clients served, and the like. These measures relate directly to the output that is consumed by the organization's customers and clients. 2. Efficiency: Among the measures of efficiency are rate of return on capital or assets, unit cost, scrap page and waste, downtime, occupancy rates, and cost per patient, per student, or per client. Measures of efficiency must inevitably be in ratio terms; the ratios of benefit to cost or to time are the general forms of these measures. 3. Satisfaction: The idea of the organization as a social system requires that some consideration be given to the benefits received by its participants as well as its customers and clients. Satisfaction and morale are similar terms referring to the extent to which the organization meets the needs of employees. Measures of satisfaction include employee attitudes, turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, and grievances. 4. Adaptiveness: Refers to the extent to which the organization can and does respond to internal and external and external changes. Adaptiveness in this context refers to management's ability to sense changes in the environment as well as changes within the organization itself. Ineffectiveness in achieving production, efficiency, and satisfaction can signal the need to adapt managerial practices and policies. Or the environment may demand different outputs or provide different inputs, thus necessitating change. There are short-run measures of effectiveness, but there are no specific and concrete measures of adaptiveness. Management can
implement policies that encourage a sense of readiness for change, and there are certain managerial practices that, if implemented, facilitate adaptiveness. A manager can invest in employee training programs and career counseling. 5.Development: Another way in which organizations insure their effectiveness over time is through investing resources in ways that prepare them to meet future environmental demands. Even though using resources in this way generally reduces productivity and/or efficiency in the short run, properly managed developmental efforts are often the key to organisational survival. An organization with a single client or product line has little chance of surviving if a competitor achieves a technological breakthrough. As a result, most organizations are willing to invest the resources necessary to develop multiple products and increase their client base. From the standpoint of human resources management, developmental efforts frequently take the form of training programs for managerial and non-managerial personnel. Even though the investment in programs of this type can be high in terms of both training costs and trainee salaries, they generally pay off in the long run. In recent years the focus has shifted from a focus on individual organization members to programs that promote the psychological development of entire organizations. Both development and adaptiveness have to do with organization's responsiveness to environmental change. Development refers to proactive strategies that are focused on building capacity to respond to change in the environment. Organizations can increase their effectiveness in the long run by developing contingency plans and by selecting the correct plan when environmental changes create need to adapt. Time considerations enable to evaluate effectiveness in the short, intermediate, and long run. An organization can have effective in terms of production, satisfaction, and efficiency criteria but an ineffective in terms of adaptiveness and development. Thus, maintaining optimal balance means, in part, balancing the organization's performance over time.

1.8 APPROACHES OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

In spite of the large number of mutually competing and divergent approaches, organizational effectiveness has continued to draw attention of every organization. What makes some organizations more effective than others? This is the most important question in organization's development. The literature on organization effectiveness is full of scalar conclusion, suggestions and prescriptions. Contrary to the research efforts, the field still offers a mirage. It is different to wade through the
available resources, theories, and beliefs; the controversy appears to revolve around two related issues-(1) what criteria are to be used in assessing organizational effectiveness and (2) what factors in the organization 'setting' one likely to influence the effectiveness (Bernard and Reimann, 1975). In an attempt to understand organizational effectiveness, four models of organizational effectiveness given below:-

**Main Models of Organizational Effectiveness**

1. **The Goal Approach**

   An organization is created deliberately to achieve one or more specified goals (Person, 1961). Goal attainment is probably the most widely used criterion of effectiveness. The goal attainment approach states that an organizational effectiveness must be appraised in terms of accomplishment of ends rather than means. It is the bottom line that counts. Defining organizational effectiveness solely in terms of goal attainment result in partial measure of effectiveness. System resource model grew out of this dissatisfaction with goal -based models. Approach, used by Price (1972), and Campbell (1977) states that if an organization achieves its goals than it is effective. For example, an organization had multiple goals. Some of which are quite intangible. Further, often there remained a potential conflict between different set of goals, for examples profitability vs. growth. According to goal approach, the more closely the organizational outputs approximate organizational goals, the more effective the organization is and higher the degree of goal achievement, the greater the organizational effectiveness (Blueston, 1980). As Altschuld and Zheng (1995) said the significance of the goal-based approach for the evaluation of the effectiveness of research organizations and academic establishments is depicted in the accurate and clear measurement of the results. In fact, it is crucial in the vividness of the goals and output measures. There are some basic assumptions for the goal approach. One of them is that there should be a general agreement on the specific goals and the people involved should feel committed to fulfilling them. The next assumption is that the number of goals is limited and achieving them requires certain indispensable resources (Robbins, 2003). The first extensively used approach in organizational effectiveness is the goal approach. Its focus is on the output to figure out the essential operating objectives like profit, innovation and finally product quality (Schermersoon, Hunt, R. N. Osborn, & R. Osborn, 2004). The goal model is suitable
only when these conditions are met. However, this is not usually applicable for those organizations specifically in conditions where they are responsible to the goals and there must be justifications for their large-scale social functions. Yet goal approach, for all of its appeal and apparent simplicity, has problems. These are some of its more widely recognized difficulties: 1. Goal approach is not readily measurable for organizations that do not produce tangible outputs. 2. Organizations attempt to achieve more than one goal. A business firm may state that its goal is to attain maximum profit and to provide absolutely safe working conditions. These two goals are in conflict, because each of these goals is achieved at the expense of the other. 3. The very existence of a common set of “official” goals to which all members are committed is questionable. Because it is difficult to obtain consensus among managers as to the specific goals of their organizations. Despite the problems of the goals approach, it continues to exert a powerful influence on the development of management and organizational behavior theory and practice.

2. The System Resource Approach

The systems resource approach to effectiveness views the organization as an open system. Whereby the organization acquires inputs, engages in transformation processes, and generates outputs. It has been argued that defining the effectiveness of an organization solely in terms of the goals achieved is only a partial measure of effectiveness (Molnar & Rogers, 1976). A systems approach to Organizational effectiveness assumes that the organization is composed of interrelated subsystems (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1985). If any of these sub-systems performs inadequately, it will affect the performance of the whole system. Consequently, effective organizations are those that receive greater resource inputs from their environment. The organizations survival is dependent upon having good relations with its constituencies, as they have the power to disrupt the operation of the organization. For the organization to survive it is necessary that it acquires a steady flow of resources from its environment as they are consumed (Kast & Rosenzweig 1985). Failure to acquire these resources may result in the organization tending toward a state of maximum entropy. The systems perspective examines various variable's such as: relations with the environment to assure continued receipt of inputs and favorable acceptance of outputs; flexibility of response to environmental changes; the efficiency with which the organization transforms inputs to outputs; the clarity of internal
communications; the level of conflicts among groups; and the degree of employee job satisfaction (Robbins, 1990). In contrast to the goal attainment approach, the systems advocates do not negate the importance of specific goals as a determinant of organizational effectiveness (Yutchman & Seashore, 1967). Rather, they question the validity of the goals selected and the measures used for assessing the progress toward these goals. The systems resource approach to organizational effectiveness does not ignore end goals; but views them as one element of a set of complex criteria, that will increase the long term survival of the organization (Yutchman & Seashore, 1967). In essence, the systems approach focuses not so much on specific ends, but on the means needed for achieving these ends. Yutchman and Seashore (1967) suggest that system resource approach provides: (1) the organization is the frame of reference; (2) relations between organizations are a component of its definition; (3) the general framework can be used in different types of organizations; (4) variability of measurement techniques in comparative evaluation is allowed; and (5) guidelines for selecting empirical measures of effectiveness are provided. The limitations of this approach relate to its measurement of means. The critics of systems resource approach suggest that its fundamental limitation is that it focuses on the means necessary to achieve effectiveness rather than organizational effectiveness itself.

3. The Process Approach

The third approach is known as transformation process i.e. to what extent the resources are used to give services or produce goods (Schermerhorn et. al., 2004). By effectiveness, it is meant that the organization is internally healthy and efficient and the internal processes and procedures in that place are quite well-oiled. In an effective organization, there is no trace of stress and strain. The members are completely part of the system and the system itself works smoothly. The relationship between the members is based on trust, honesty, and good will. Finally, the flow of information is on a horizontal and vertical basis (Cameron, 1981). The trend of this approach is to fulfill the objectives by providing timely and sufficient information. The collection of information and communication management is of major importance (Kleijnen, Dolmans, Muijtjens, Willems, & Van Hout, 2009). Organizational effectiveness is generally appreciated in terms of such outputs as profit, growth, turnover, assets, manpower, etc. Researchers have tended to focus on intermediate variables such as employee, satisfaction, employee turnover, productivity and certain characteristics of
organization and management, such as flexibility, adaptability etc. Likert listed twelve measures for ideal state of organization productivity in terms of both quality and quantity, and member satisfaction was the necessary measures. Trust, team work, concerns, leadership, communication etc are some of the measure which helped in attaining ideal effective state of an organization. South (1974) found six factors responsible for effectiveness (technical and overall of the engineers). These were communication, administrative ability, motivation, technical knowledge and ability, and self-sufficiency. Steers (1975) has noted five most widely used measures: (i) overall performance measured by employee or supervisory ratings; (ii) productivity, measured typically with actual output data; (iii) employee satisfaction, measured by self report questionnaire; (iv) profit or rate of return, based on accounting data; and (v) withdrawal, based on archival turnover and absenteeism data. In short, organizations are more effective if they possesse certain internal characteristics to a greater degree, and less effective if they possessed them to a lesser degree Cameron (1981). Finally, Campbell (1977) observs that mean becomes the focus and neglects the end.

4. The Strategic Constituency Approach

Strategic Constituencies Approach The strategic constituency approach of organizational effectiveness proposes that an effective organization is one that satisfies the demands of those constituencies in its environment from whom it requires support for its continued existence (Pfeffer & Salanick, 1978). It is assumed that the organization has a number of constituencies, with different degrees of power, each trying to satisfy its demands. The approach seeks to satisfy only those in the environment who can threaten the organization's survival (Robbins, 1990). Therefore, effectiveness is defined in terms of the degree to which the needs and expectations of the strategic constituencies are met by the organization (Keeley, 1978). Cameron (1981c) states that this approach can be viewed either as a summary measure of the organization's goals or as a series of different weighting's for specific goals for a variety of constituencies. Furthermore, it is assumed that the organization pursues specific goals which are representations of particular interest groups that control the resources necessary for the organization to survive. Robbins (1990:64) states that "no goal or set of goals, that are selected are value free. Each implicitly, if not explicitly, will favor some constituents more than others". Researchers who plan on
implementing this perspective may ask members of the dominant coalition to identify the constituencies they consider to be critical to the organization's survival. If survival is important for an organization, then the most important constituencies that affect the organization's survival should be identified. It is argued by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981; 1983) that by implementing this approach, the impact those strategic constituents have on the organization's operations may be minimized. The task of separating the strategic constituencies from their environment within which they operate is a difficult and problematic task. As the environment rapidly changes, what was a critical goal today may not be so tomorrow (Cameron & Quinn, 1981). Hitt (1988) suggests that different constituents are likely to rate an organization in different ways. Separate constituents may develop vastly different ratings of organizations effectiveness. These constituents may use different criteria or weight the same criteria differently (Hitt, 1988). Although, to overcome this difficulty, Hitt (1988) suggests that constituents ratings must be weighted according to their importance to the organization. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) recommend a methodology for undertaking this task in which managers' judgments of each constituent's importance are captured and combined into an overall model.

5. Competing Values Approach

The competing values approach assumes that there is "no best" criteria that is valued and used in assessing organizational effectiveness (Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1981). In essence, a contingency perspective is undertaken for evaluating Organizational effectiveness. Accordingly organizations can be evaluated in different ways. This approach assumes that people within the organization have diverging goals and therefore cannot arrive at a consensus on which goals take precedence over others (Robbins, 1990). Typically, this is because goals may be based on personal values, preferences, and interests (Robbins, 1990; Scott, 1987). The competing values approach assumes that these diverse preferences can be consolidated and organized into a holistic Organizational effectiveness approach. This approach began with a search for common themes among thirty criteria of Organizational effectiveness (Campbell, 1977). From these criteria Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) identified certain variables that could be coupled together to create three basic sets of competing values. These are as follows: flexibility versus control; these two variables are incompatible dimensions of an organization's structure (Robbins, 1990). Flexibility values
innovation, adaptation and change. Whereas control favour's stability, order and predictability. People versus the organization; these two variables place an emphasis on the wellbeing and development of people in the organization. Whereas the organization is concerned with its own well-being and development. The people-organization is also an incompatible dimension of an organization's structure: the concern for the feelings and needs of the people within the organization versus the concern for productivity and task accomplishment (Robbins, 1990). Means versus ends; these two variables relate internal processes and final outcomes. The former can be considered to be a long term variable and the latter can be a short term variable. This set of competing values can be compared to the goal-attainment approach which focuses on the ends and the systems resource approach which emphasizes on the means. This approach uses both means and ends and therefore overcomes the limitations associated with both the goal-attainment and system resource approaches.

1.9 CRITERIA FOR ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Various approaches to measure organizational effectiveness-goal approach, behavioral approach, system-resource approach, and strategic commitment approach-emphasize different elements in measuring organizational effectiveness i.e. inputs, throughputs, and outputs, ultimately, the end results of an organization serve as criteria. For arising at these end results, intervening variables are important which, in turn, depend on causal variables. Thus these causal variables affect end results through affecting interacting variables. Organization has to set intervening criteria as well as end-result criteria by taking into account-Causal factors:

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<tr>
<th>Causal Factors</th>
<th>Intervening Criteria</th>
<th>End-Result Criteria</th>
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<tr>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Product related</td>
<td>Growth Rate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>Custom Related</td>
<td>Shareholder Value</td>
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<tr>
<td>People Structure</td>
<td>People Related</td>
<td>Social Performance</td>
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Causal Factors:-Causal factors are those which influence the course of development-with an organization and ultimately, its accomplishment. These variables are independent and include only those variables which can be changed by the organization and its management. Since these factors are changeable so management can change these variables according to needs of the organizations's
environment. Since Business environment is dynamic and possess the characteristics of continuous change, so it is required for the management to change their casual factors from time to time. The major causal factors are strategy, technology, people, and structure. Strategy sets the future direction in which the organization will proceed while other factors help the organization to precede in that direction. Intervening Criteria: Intervening criteria are mostly internally focused and are used by the organization to judge whether it will meet its end-result-criteria. Intervening criteria reflects the internal state of the organization. These criteria are based on the organization’s casual variables and, therefore, any change in intervening factors cannot be brought by management independently except by changing causal factors. For example, personnel attitudes and morale, an intervening criterion, cannot be changed unless there is suitable change in organization’s structure and management practices. Intervening criteria are grouped into three categories: Product Related; Customer Related; People Related. The illustrative list of criteria includes:

**Product Related Criteria:** Product quality and performance; product cost and price; new products introduced.

**Customer Related:** Customer service; customer satisfaction; customer loyalty.

**Personnel-Related Criteria:** Attracting and retaining human talent; personnel ability and skills; personnel motivations and attitudes to work.

**End-Result Criteria:** This criterion for measuring organizational effectiveness is externally focused. These criteria for organizational effectiveness conveys ‘what it intended to achieve and what actually it has achieved’ to those who might be interested in the functioning of organization. Thus the organizations shareholders, customers, suppliers, and the society at large interested in the end-result criteria rather have the organization functions internally in achieving its effectiveness. End – result criteria are grouped into four categories: rate of growth, profitability, shareholder value, and social performance.
1. Employee Career Development

It includes growth and processes of employee development. Employee development means to develop the abilities of an employee and organization as a whole. Hence, employee development consists of the overall growth of the employee. And when employee will grow organization would be more flourished and the employee performance would increase (Elena P. 2000). Therefore, there is a direct relationship between Employee Development and Employee Performance. When employees would be more developed, they would be more satisfied with the job, more committed to the job and the performance would be increased. When employee performance will increase, this will lead to the organization effectiveness (Champathes, 2006). Employee Development is one of the most important functions of Human Resource Management. Employee development activities are very important for the employees, as the activities are performed, it indicates that organization cares about their employees and wants them to develop (Elena P. 2000). Many of the organizations are investing in employee development. When
organizations are contributing towards the employee development activities, the employees work hard; utilize their full skills and efforts to achieve the goals of the organizations. Employee development focuses on: self development, self directed learning. Employee development must be recognized by the employees who want to learn or who are willing to learn. When employees are willing to learn, they show their interest in the developmental activities, as a result they are more satisfied with the job which will lead to increase in employee performance (Elena P. 2000). Employee development also depends upon the individual employee, i.e. their how much curiosity to learn. When individual employee wants to learn, he would learn more and more, he would participate in many other activities such as attending seminars, workshops and others training sessions, either on the job or off the job. This indeed would lead to employee development, and employee development would lead to increase in employee performance. No matter how much expertise does a person have if a person or employee is not willing to develop. So employee development is also a personal responsibility of the employees. Employees at all levels need to be involved in the developmental activities whether the upper level employees, middle or lower level employees (Antonacopoulou 1996). Developmental activities includes:-

1. Coaching: -Coaching is an important activity for the employee development. Coaching is not formal. It involves treating employees as a personal partner in achieving both personal as well as organizational goals. When problems are resolved, this will lead to increase in organizational performance as employees would be able to achieve organizational goals. 2. 360 Degree Feedback and Developmental centers':

360 degree feedback and development centers are pre planned and are based on prior defined assessment criteria. As developmental centers are present in the organization or there are many developmental centres outside the organization and are very important as they provide training to the individual employee (Hazucha, 1993). 3. Developmental Appraisal:- Developmental appraisal is an ongoing process for the employee development during the whole year. Basically, it is a compulsory part of the performance management. This appraisal will determine the weak area of employee where employee development is required in order to improve the employee performance(Kirkpatrick, 2006). 4. Investment in Perceived Developmental Activities of the Employees :- The investment in perceived developmental activities of the employee are important in order to increase the employee performance. Investments in perceived developmental activities also provide the organization as a
competitive advantage (Chay et al., 2003). 5. **Competitive Advantage**: Most of the organizations do not consider the employee developmental activities of much value. They only focus on achieving the goals of the organization. They do not care about the development of employees. So, if organizations would focus on employee developmental activities, this would help in enhancing the skills of the employees.

2. **Employee growth/ Development**

It emphasizes on personal development activities of the employees. A structured and supported process undertaken by an individual to reflect upon their own learning, performance and/or achievement and to plan for their personal, educational and career development’ (Jackson, 2001, p.1). The most valuable resource in any organizations is its people. By encouraging developmental activities for individual employees, the department as a whole will benefit from increased motivation, morale and capacity for service. Approved activities may be directly or indirectly job or career related. Any activity, which would enable staff to become more effective in their current position; would prepare them for advancement within the department or would enhance personal development and lifelong learning. The relevance, desirability and timing of participation in developmental activities are determined through work planning and goal setting discussions between an employee and his/her supervisor, with the supervisor having the final approval. This toolkit provides guidance, tools and suggestions on how to go about designing developmental activities in the workplace. Employee development is a collaborative effort between the supervisor and the employee. It balances the employee’s needs and interests with the organization’s goals and objectives - a win-win situation for both. A developmental activity or assignment provides employees with an alternative work experience that allows for ongoing experiential learning. This experience enhances an employee’s knowledge and skills and can range from on-the-job training to details or rotations outside an organization. Growth and development are key motivators for employees. Encouraging and fostering ongoing developmental activities in the workplace will benefit both the employee and the organization. Expanding opportunities for employee growth through job enhancement and enrichment can add depth and breadth to the skills and abilities of the organization. The assignment of additional responsibilities, a commitment to skill development, delegation of new tasks, an opportunity for more authority and autonomy create an engaged value based
workforce. An individual development activity includes cross-training, formal training, internal training, external training, matrix teams, mentoring, on-the-Job training, job enlargement & job enrichment etc. Cross training is training someone in another activity that is related to their current work. It provides more flexibility in managing the workforce to get the job done and it is good for employees too. It lets them learn new skills, makes them more competitive, and can combat worker boredom. Formal training is the first thing that comes to mind when people think of employee development. This is just one small component of the larger developmental plan. All employees are encouraged to take advantage of the training opportunities available internally and externally to enhance their support of goals and their own professional development. Employees may also take advantage of training opportunities provided by other agencies. Matrix teams include work groups, cross functional teams, task forces, problem solving teams, committees, special project teams, etc. They are normally composed of a small number of people from different departments, functions, or organizations, who have banded together to solve a common problem or achieve a goal through collaboration and the sharing of their knowledge and skills. In its simplest form, mentoring is the process of one person helping another to grow and develop. Mentoring occurs in several forms. However, all mentoring relationships fall into one of two categories: formal or informal. Formal mentoring can occur within the context of a structured, office-sponsored program, or it can be self-initiated by the individual mentor. Annually, the department runs a formal mentoring program. Informal and situational mentoring is characterized by a looser structure and less explicit agreement. Informal mentoring is almost always initiated by the individual mentor or protégé. An employee sees a quality in another person that they admire and would like to develop. There are various developmental activities that can take place right in the workplace - from formal and structured on-the-job training to informal, reflective, self-directed activities. Assessment of improvement and progress over a period of time, making it easier to identify problems and intervene and resolve them quickly. This type of training is also productive, as the employees are still working as they are learning. Training "on-the-job" provides an opportunity to get to know staff they might not normally interact with. People only get about 25% of what they use in their jobs through formal learning. The other 75% of learning happens as we creatively adopt and adapt to ever changing circumstances. Employees can take advantage and foster opportunities for informal learning through the use of mentors,
coaches, subject-matter experts, etc. Job responsibilities are stretched in some way. This can either be vertical or horizontal. These can be permanent or temporary. Job Enlargement is the horizontal expansion of a job. It involves the addition of tasks at the same level of skill and responsibility to avoid boredom. Job Enrichment is the addition of tasks that increase the amount of employee control or responsibility. It is a vertical expansion of the job. An employee is assigned or voluntarily undertakes a specific project that promotes the expansion of skills and knowledge through self-directed learning or research and produces a final product that contributes to organizational objectives. A special assignment is a learning strategy in which the employee performs temporary duties on a full or part-time basis. These duties may be performed within or outside the current organization. When employee is nominated in different workshops, and training sessions, the employee attitude and behavior will determine the seriousness in training and development programs. The responsive employee will learn different skills which will increase the employee performance. Employee performance means employee productivity and output as a result of employee development. Employee performance will ultimately affect the organizational effectiveness. Employee development leads to employee performance. Individual Performance of an employee will lead to the organizational effectiveness.

3. Employee and Management Satisfaction

It refers to the evaluation of employees and management satisfaction with job and employment at organization. Evolutions of employee and management satisfaction with the job and employment at organization have been predicted with the help of organizational climate, work culture, employee management relationship. Employment relations are concerned with power and control in the employment relationship and the degree to which management is ‘free’ to make decisions unimpeded. In broad terms, employment relations are concerned with the theory and practice associated with the management and regulation of the employment relationship. In particular, it is concerned with the socio-political dimension of the employment relationship and the distribution of power between management and employees, the incidence and expression of conflict and the social and legislative regulatory framework within which the employment relationship exists. An employment relation is the contemporary term used to refer to what has traditionally been called ‘industrial relations’. As both an academic area of study and a set of
organisational activities, industrial relations has traditionally referred to the management of the relationship between trade unions and management and associated processes including collective bargaining, negotiation and consultation and industrial conflict. The use of the term ‘employment relations’, rather than industrial relations, reflects a range of developments in the political, economic, social and legal context of the employment relationship that have taken place over the last three decades. The advent of new forms of employee management, such as Human resources management, alongside shifting industrial structures to a service-dominated economy, declining trade union power and influence, political antipathy towards the union movement, greater individualization and flexibility in the management of labour and changing social attitudes have created a more diverse employment landscape. Subsequently, employment relations are concerned with the management of both the individual and collective employment relationship, both in union and non-union workplaces and in all industry sectors. Employee ‘voice’ is used to refer to ‘a whole variety of processes and structures which enable, and at times empower, employees, directly and indirectly, to contribute to decision-making in the firm (Box all and Purcell, 2003: 162). On the other hand organizations strongly desire job satisfaction from their employees (Oshagbemi, 2003). Due to important role of human resource on organization performance, they try to keep employees satisfied. Satisfied employees would produce superior performance in optimal time which leads to increase profits. When employees are satisfied with their work, they would be more creative and innovative and offer advances that allow company to evolve positively over time with changes in market conditions. On the other hand, a lack of job satisfaction results in a low level of employee commitment that, in turn, affect performance and the achievement of organizational goals. Farrell and Stamm (1988) draw the conclusion that high employee satisfaction will reduce the happening of the absenteeism, accident, and employee stress, improve employee satisfaction with life and thus increase productivity and profits. Employees, job satisfaction in organizations and institutions has given close attention by researchers since mid-20th century after the emergence of Maslow's theory of Need Hierarchy in 1943...In competitive and unpredictable phenomena, organizations try to keep and enhance their place. Many industries operate in situation, where employees play an important role in the product and service exchange. In service company such as airlines, employees have significant effect on organization performance. Airline companies try to offer high
quality services, maximize customer loyalty, gain higher market share, higher profitability, and finally customer satisfaction which is the ultimate goal of these companies. These companies may reach these long-term and short-term goals with satisfied employees. It means organizations that desire to improve their customer satisfaction must be concerned about internal issues related to employee’s satisfaction and view their employees as customer too (Harter et al., 2002; Wangenheim et al., 2007). Employee’s behavior is critical and poor treatment of customers may directly impact on their image (Hunter, 2006). So, these companies try to increase their employees satisfaction to enhance their performance.

4. Executive Development and Quality of the Employee

It measures the extent of executive attainment and development of employee and aiming at stimulation towards executive development. While "executive", "manager" and "leader" are often used interchangeably, "executive" is commonly used to signify the top organization. Similarly, "development", "training" and "education" are often used as synonyms; however "development" is generally seen as the most encompassing of the three in terms of activities that build skills and competencies. While it is typical to find organizations that have dedicated corporate training & development of people and processes, it is not always the case that an organization will have a dedicated executive development set of activities. In some organizations (typically large multi-nationals), there is a separate executive development team, in other organizations executive development is handled as one of many activities by the larger corporate training group, and in yet other scenarios there is no executive development activity. In contrast to other corporate training & development activities, which have as their core purpose to build tactical skills for employees, executive development plays a different role for the organization. Indeed some executive development is conducted for the purpose of building tactical skills (sometimes referred to as "hard skills" such as business fundamentals- finance, marketing, operations and also "soft skills" such as communication and team building), yet executive development is also used to evaluate future potential future executives as well as a mechanism for the executive team to cascade their strategies, goals, and even elements of the culture to the rest of the management team and ultimately the organization. Executive development not only helps an organization execute its key strategies, it can also help provide input to the strategy creation
process. In this way, executive development is much more strategic than typical
corporate training & development which is used for most of the employees of an
organization. There is a wide range of practices in the field of executive development
today. On the one hand, there are organizations that have for many years, had
thorough executive development functions that conduct a wide variety of high profile
and highly regarded set of activities. Executive development varied from
organization to organization. For some, the development process has and continues
to play a very strategic role in the organization. It is with and through executive
development activities that organizational strategies are formed, communicated, and
reinforced with senior management. In other organizations, development of
executives is seen as an inherently positive activity.

5. **Employee Encouragement**

The organization provides counseling to employees to improve the
performance or behaviour. Performance Counseling is a very important activity that
helps employees to know themselves better. Performance counseling refers to the help
provided by a manager to his subordinates in objectively analyzing their performance.
It attempts to help the employee in: Understanding himself - his strengths and
weaknesses. Improving his professional and interpersonal competence by giving him
feedback about his behavior, setting goals and formulating action plans for further
improvement. Performance counselling is very important for employees to know the
level of their performance and the area in which they need to improve. Performance
counselling is a very useful activity provided both the counsellor and the counselee
take it in the right spirit. It helps the employee as well as the organization to identify
weaknesses and then to formulate strategies to improve the performance. Performance
improvement ultimately helps the organization to meet its goals and objectives. It is
always important to evaluate the performance of the employees periodically to find
out their level of efficiency. Some standard methods have been devised to make
employees understand how far they are from the expected standards so that their
performance can be improved. Those employees who lag behind in certain key
performance areas must be assisted to analyze and improve their performance levels.
Therefore the process of performance appraisal helps to evaluate and improve the
performance of the employees so that they can give their best to achieve the goals of
the organization as well as achieve better career satisfaction. For an effective
Counseling: A climate of trust, confidence and openness is essential for effective counseling. Counseling cannot be effective if the subordinate does not trust his boss. It is necessary that the subordinate should feel free to participate without fear or inhibition as it is a dialogue between supervisor and subordinate and hence should be a two-way communication. The main purpose of counseling is employee development. A good counselor attempts to establish a climate of acceptance, warmth, support, openness and mutuality. This phase involves generating confidence in the employee to open up frankly, share his perceptions, problems, concerns, feelings etc. The subordinate must be made to feel wanted and that his superior is genuinely interested in his development. If an employee feels that others do not cooperate with him, the counselor may ask questions to narrow down the problem to the employee’s relationship with a few individuals. Then the superior may ask questions to help the employee understand what he does (or says) to his colleagues that is making it difficult for him to win their cooperation. Problem identification is a critical step in planning for improvement. To help the employee make a correct diagnosis of the problem, open-ended questions may be asked. An employee whose relationships with colleagues are poor, the superior may suggest “three things to improve his relationship with X?” After helping the employee brainstorm, the superior may also add more alternatives to the solutions already generated. Finally, the superior may render some assistance in helping the employee implement the agreed-upon action plan. Often good counseling sessions fail to produce effective results due to lack of follow-up. Proper feedback system should be there. The purpose of both counseling and feedback is to provide staff with the information, advice and assistance they need to contribute fully to the achievement of organization’s objectives.

6. Employee recognition and identification

Any word or deed towards making someone feel appreciated and valued for who they are and recognized for what they do. Recognition and reward as present in work where there is appropriate acknowledgement and appreciation of employees’ efforts in a fair and timely manner. This includes appropriate and regular financial compensation, as well as employee or team celebrations, recognition of years served, and/or milestones reached. Recognizing and rewarding employees motivates them, encourage them to excel, builds their self-esteem, encourages employees to exceed expectations, and enhances team success. This, in turn, provides staff with more
energy and enthusiasm and a greater sense of pride and participation in their work. In addition, employees who receive recognition are more likely to treat colleagues and customers with courtesy, respect and understanding. Employee satisfaction is essential to the success of any business. A high rate of employee contentedness is directly related to a lower turnover rate. Thus, keeping employees' satisfied with their careers should be a major priority for every employer. While this is a well known fact in management practices, economic downturns like the current one seem to cause employers to ignore it. There are numerous reasons why employees can become discouraged with their jobs. They may be high stress, lack of communication within the company, lack of recognition, or limited opportunity for growth. Management should actively seek to improve these factors if they hope to lower their turnover rate. Even in an economic downturn, turnover is an expense best avoided. Employees want to know that their employers recognize their achievements in the workplace. They need to feel appreciated, as workers and as people. Rewards are based on performance and results. People influence important aspects of organizational performance in a multitude of ways. People conceive and implement the organizational strategy, while the mix of people and systems mostly determine an organization's capabilities. Competencies are required to execute the strategy, and these competencies are primarily a function of the skills and knowledge of an organization's human capital. Therefore, if an organization is to treat its employees as its most important asset, it has to be knowledgeable about what it is that motivates people to reach their full potential (Lawler, 2003). It is not easy though to know all the things that motivate people in life or at work. Traditionally, individual performance in organizations has centered on the evaluation of performance and the allocation of rewards. Organizations are starting to acknowledge planning and enabling individual performance which is critical to organizational performance. Strategic success for the organization lies in focusing attention at all levels on key business imperatives, which can be achieved. The planning process is one of the primary elements of the total reward system. It is the process that impacts performance between pay checks and provides the basis on which individuals results are measured. It is the bonding agent in programmes that direct rewards to true performance. The primary focus of reward and recognition programs is how organizations define their reward schemes and communicate this in a manner that employees clearly understand the link between reward and performance (Flynn, 1998). Rewards and recognition programmes create
environments especially where jobs provide intrinsic-rewards i.e. good feelings or inner satisfaction that people get from doing the work itself. Yet in many organizations, recognition is reserved for an elite few and rewards are defined solely in terms of wages and salaries. Effective recognition enhances employee motivation and increases employee productivity all of which contribute to improved organizational performance (Deeprose, 1994). Baron (1983) argues that there is a close relationship between rewards and job performance. If successful performance does in fact lead to organizational rewards, such performance could be a motivational factor for employees. Under such conditions, they can see that their efforts result in rewards. Consequently, they may be motivated to exert higher levels of effort on the job. The notion of rewarding employees for "a job well done" has existed when piece-work systems were first implemented (Schiller, 1996, 89). Piece-work systems simply involve plans which directly associate the employee's level of pay to their output levels. The traditional merit program is based on performance appraisals which employers evaluate to determine whether or not the employee deserves an increase in pay. This type of merit program could be seen within both the public and private sectors organizations. MacLean (1990) argues that in general, employers are losing money with the traditional merit programs used during this period. Under the traditional system, a "meritorious" employee received a permanent pay increase that affects basic salary. If the performance of that employee declines, the agency will lose money. Because both public and private employers began to lose faith in the traditional merit programs, they realized they "needed to develop new guidelines for assessing how well services were being delivered to citizens" (Brosz & Morgan, 1977: 7) thus justifying the emergence of performance-based rewards. So merit programs lost their appeal in the 1990's (Lisa, 1997). Today many organizations and companies are implementing incentive programs, which recognize employee's efforts and reward them accordingly in a multitude of ways. Incentive programs have been in existence since the beginning of the nineteenth century. Since then the idea of what an incentive program is for both the employer and the employee has changed. Incentive programs used to be simply a method of payment, meaning the more one produces the more one makes. Today the definition of an incentive program has broadened to include not only a way of paying employees but a way of reducing costs for the employer, while at the same time rewarding the employee for making the extra efforts. In the last decades, a number of countries have adopted pay-for-performance
strategies in order to modify the traditional salary scales. In the past, rewards generally referred to pay and for many years, rewards programs were viewed primarily as a necessary evil to attract and retain competent employees. Attitudes towards rewards programs, and awareness of their strategic value, are now changing. Increasingly, schools are also realizing that a properly designed and executed total rewards strategy can be a powerful driver of teachers’ performance (Owen 2003). An organization’s reward system is meant to provide and maintain appropriate types and levels of pay, benefits and other forms of rewards. The reward system in an organization consists of its integrated policies, processes, and practices for rewarding its employees in accordance with their contribution, skills, competences and market worth, according to Harvey-Beavis (2003). This implies that performance- based reward corresponds closely with employees’ actual experiences. Distinctions in performance-based reward programs are found in the skills assessed and the rewards provided. This process is crucial to business success, and the ability of the organization to attract and retain top performers and critical-skill employees, in an increasingly competitive environment. Managers can employ different strategies to reward employees, but that it is important that managers keep in mind that different strategies would have a different motivational effect on different people. To get optimum results from a motivational strategy, the manager has to realize and understand issues, which requires recognition of each individual’s unique values, beliefs and practices. Important to consider is that different motivation strategies may affect an employee in different ways at different points in time because conditions, needs and personal objectives are not static but in constant state of flux (Lawler, 2003).

7. **System Openness and Community Interaction**

This parameter points out the emphasis placed in interaction with adoption and service in the external environment. The general environment includes those sectors that may not have a direct impact on the daily operations of a firm but will indirectly
influence it. The general environment often includes the government, sociocultural, economic conditions, technology, and financial resources sectors. How does the environment influence an organization? The patterns and events occurring across environmental sectors can be described along several dimensions, such as whether the environment is stable or unstable, homogeneous or heterogeneous, concentrated or dispersed, simple or complex; the extent of turbulence; and the amount of resources available to support the organization. These dimensions boil down to two essential ways the environment influences organizations: (1) the need for information about the environment and (2) the need for resources from the environment. The environmental conditions of complexity and change create a greater need to gather information and to respond based on that information. The organization also is concerned with scarce material and financial resources and with the need to ensure availability of resources. Each sector can be analyzed relative to these three analytical categories. Organizations must cope with and manage uncertainty to be effective. Uncertainty means that decision makers do not have sufficient information about environmental factors, and they have a difficult time predicting external changes. Uncertainty increases the risk of failure for organizational responses and makes it difficult to compute costs and probabilities associated with decision alternatives. Characteristics of the environmental domain that influence uncertainty are the extent to which the external domain is simple or complex and the extent to which events are stable or unstable. Environmental uncertainty represents an important contingency for organization structure and internal behaviors. An organization in a certain environment will be managed and controlled differently from an organization in an uncertain environment with respect to positions and departments, organizational differentiation and integration, control processes, and future planning and forecasting. Organizations need to have the right fit between internal structure and the external environment. Organizations can use a variety of techniques to establish favorable linkages that ensure the availability of scarce resources. Linkages provide control over vulnerable environmental elements. Strategic alliances, interlocking directorates, and outright ownership provide mechanisms to reduce resource dependency on the environment.
8. **Ability to Acquire Resources**

Criterion indicates the ability of the organization to acquire resources from external environment such as good employees, financial support etc. Resource acquisition is a crucial point since resources with value, rareness, inimitableness and non-substitutability can create sustainable competitive advantages and have a great impact on performance (Foss 1996). Both the employees’ personal networks and the organization’s networks are the core resources of the firms. The motives and outcomes of acquisitions, comparing market power based on greater size, target mismanagement stemming from poor implementation of acquisitions, global efficiency based on greater size, strategic reconfiguration based on expansion to new markets, and resource appropriation based on acquiring the skills of the target. Analyses confirm the importance of acquisitions in creating value both for firms and society through dynamic processes of businesses’ and capabilities’ reconfiguration. Business acquisitions raise real concerns from both strategic and public policy views. Strategically, unsuccessful acquisitions often divert management attention from competitive activities to unproductive attempts to merge organizations. From a public policy perspective, acquisitions that result in power, target destruction or resource appropriation can harm rather than improve economic welfare. Therefore, determining whether post-acquisition activities and outcomes tend to improve or harm competitive strength is a critically important issue in both corporate strategy and public policy. Acquisition policy is a key area in which firms requires such guideposts concerning what different countries will accept and encourage. Policy makers and managers throughout the world face critical choices concerning acquisitions policy. By having access to resources, a firm's ability to take risks, to innovate and to be proactive is enhanced. As a result, the abundance of resources in the environment would seem to have an impact on the firm's entrepreneurial orientation. A manager can only know his or her environment via his or her perception, and then the manager's or owner's perception of environmental munificence may be a key determinant of entrepreneurial orientation.

9. **Organizational Health**

This refers to the benevolence, viability and reliability in the internal processes and practices in the organization. Organizational health is defined as an organization’s ability to function effectively, to cope adequately, to change appropriately, and to
grow from within. Organizational health consists of the following ten dimensions: Goal focus - the ability of persons, groups, or organizations to have clarity, acceptance, support, and advocacy of school-wide goals and objectives; Communication adequacy - that state when information is relatively distortion free and travels both vertically and horizontally across the boundaries of an organization; Optimal power equalization - the ability to maintain a relatively equitable distribution of influence between the leader and members of his/her work unit; Resource utilization - the ability to coordinate and maintain inputs, particularly personnel, effectively with a minimal sense of strain; Cohesiveness - the state when persons or groups have a clear sense of identity, are attracted to membership, want to stay, and are willing to influence and to be influenced; Morale - that state in which a person, group, or organization have feelings of security, satisfaction; well-being, and pleasure, Innovativeness - that ability to be and allow others to be inventive, diverse, creative, and risk-taking; Autonomy - that state in which a person, group, or organization have the freedom to fulfill their roles and responsibilities;; Adaptation - that ability to tolerate stress and maintain stability while changing to meet the unique needs of their stakeholders; Problem-solving adequacy - an organization's ability to perceive problems and to solve them with minimal energy. Organisational health refers to an organisation's ability to achieve its goals based on an environment that seeks to improve Organisational performance and support employee well-being". Organisational health recognises the linkages between employee health and wellbeing, and organisational performance and effectiveness. It goes further than workplace health programs, and takes a holistic view. Organisational health acknowledges that for an organisation to perform effectively needs 'healthy' individuals, teams, and organisational strategies. It is about having effective processes, policies, and systems that are committed to by its leadership, and which support its managers and staff. Organizational health is a continuous and dynamic process. People are a valuable asset in every organization. Distracted, disengaged, disempowered, stressed employees cannot easily provide creative, innovative business solutions that drive organizational success and competitive staying power. Modern definition of organizational health or well-being includes two critical components i.e. performance of the organization and health of the employees. Any organization that maximizes the integration of workers and personal goals and company objectives for profitability and productivity are as healthy organizations. Well-being at the workplace
requires understanding of the way in which worker's health is affected by organizational exposures as well as by promoting practices.

In a nutshell, organizational effectiveness is basically a multidimensional concept. Basically, organizational effectiveness is an abstract concept and is difficult for many organizations to directly measure. Instead of measuring organizational effectiveness directly, the organization selects proxy measures to represent effectiveness. Proxy measures may include such things as number of people served, types and sizes of population segments served, and the demand within those segments for the services the organization supplies. Different dimensions have been used by different scholars time to time for measuring organization effectiveness. Changing employee's attitudes is key to effective organizations. Employees' emotions about work can adversely affect organizational success. Workers who are not fully committed to their work may be hampering organizational success. Disengaged employees may adversely affect coworkers with their negative attitudes. Changing employees' attitudes from negative to positive enhance organizational success.

It is very difficult to define all these variables under study on umbrella. Human attitude is the most dynamic thing. As the situation changes it automatic and immediately changes. So it is very difficult to motivate and satisfy all individual towards organizational goals. The present study also study two job attitudes i.e. job involvement and job satisfaction of bank employees and their impact on organizational effectiveness. Economical changes are very rapid by their nature. In those circumstances it is very difficult to define all these variables. This term basically is a combination of lot of things. Job involvement is situation that has been arises from the combination of personal, organizational necessities Which automatic develop a sense of contribution against the remunerations or other rewards. If an individual feels that his /her needs or expectation are fulfilled by parent organization automatically a senses of satisfaction has been developed. In practical life it very difficult or if one can say it is not possible to define satisfaction. Because expectations has no end. However what makes an individual satisfied or dissatisfied does not dependents on the nature of job only, but also on the expectations that individuals have of what their job should provide. So it is necessary for the every organization to maintain an equilibrium point which is inclined more towards working employees of organizations where the needs and expectations of both has been matched. This
combined approach leads to the achievement of organizational objectives. In the present study job involvement has been studied with the help of twelve dimensions i.e. job longing, work underload, emotional involvement, persistence, planfulness, energy expenditure, task completion sensitivity, responsiveness of extra work, job devotion, job saliency, job concern and time consciousness. Whereas job satisfaction has been studied with the help of six dimensions i.e. job, management, personal adjustments, social relations on-the-job and off-the-job. While organizational effectiveness has been studied with the help of nine dimensions i.e. employee carrier development, employee growth/development, employee and management satisfaction, executive development and quality of employee, employee encouragement, employee recognition identification, system openness and community interaction, ability to acquire resources and organizational health.
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