Literature Review of related studies & Hypotheses of the study
The review of related studies is an important aspect of any research. The present chapter provides a brief review of literature (both conceptual and empirical) relating to the main themes under consideration. It also provides a framework for establishing the importance of the study. Literature reviews should comprise the following elements: (1) An overview of the subject, issue or theory under consideration, along with the objectives of the literature review; (2) Division of works under review into categories (e.g. those in support of a particular position, those against, and those offering alternative theses entirely); (3) Explanation of how each work is similar to and how it varies from the others; (4) Conclusions as to which pieces are best considered in their argument, are most convincing of their opinions, and make the greatest contribution to the understanding and development of their area of research (Cooper, 2010).

Review of related studies avoids duplication of work that has already been done and it helps the investigator to study the different sides of the problem. The review material collected is presented herein under categories which are given below:
Organizational culture

Quality of work life

Job attitude

Personal effectiveness

Organizational culture and Quality of work life

Organizational culture and Job attitude

Organizational culture and Personal effectiveness

Quality of work life and Job attitude

Quality of work life and Personal effectiveness

Job attitude and Personal effectiveness

Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Job attitude

Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Personal effectiveness

Organizational culture, Job attitude and Personal effectiveness

Quality of work life, Job attitude and Personal effectiveness

Organizational culture, Quality of work life, Job attitude and Personal effectiveness
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

The Organizational culture literature is vast, as culture has been a core defining element of sociological and anthropological studies of organizations for over five decades. Organizational culture has been defined in various ways and from different scholarly disciplines. But most definitions share the common assumptions that for organizational culture to truly exist, it must be learned, shared and transmitted to be valid. The first systematic attempt to investigate organizational culture began in the 1930’s, during the final phase of the Hawthorne studies.

Hofstede (1980) published a cross-cultural report exploring the differences in thinking and social action that exist among members of 40 countries, between 1968 and 1972, and called it ‘national culture’. He argued that people carry mental programs developed early in the family during early childhood and reinforced in schools and organizations, and they contain a component of national culture. Though providing a starting point for understanding national cultures, the study has come under criticism for using a comparative logic in a heterogeneous setting at a time when quantitative comparisons of organizational cultures within a single cultural context were seen as unfounded.

Then Schien (1983) emphasized the role of the founders and stated that organizational culture will always reflect the complex interaction between the assumptions and theories that the founders bring to the group initially and what the group learns subsequently from its own experiences. He also explained the importance of time and dynamics of change, of how the values came initially from the founders and, as the group learned while experimenting with behaviors over a period of time, culture was developed. It is thus implied that culture will change as environment goes through unpredictable times. The model that emerges is one of shared solutions to problems
which work well enough to begin to be taken for granted—to the point they drop out of awareness.

Wilkins and Ouchi (1983) called culture a ‘clan’ and stated that goal congruence and presence of a general paradigm in the interest of the collective helps clan control to govern organizations efficiently under conditions of ambiguity, complexity, and interdependence of transactions. Market and bureaucracy form of governance would be more efficient where the level of complexity or uncertainty is relatively low or moderate. Organizational culture can be a source of sustained competitive advantage if it is valuable, rare and imperfectly imitable.

Smircich (1983) suggested a cultural view of organizations in which a dominant culture shapes the meaning of significant symbols in the organizations. In addition, Ott (1989) reported that organizations could have subcultures that interlock, overlap, and partially coincide and sometimes conflict with the organizations’ dominant culture. This study focused on both organizational culture and occupational culture. Both can play an important role in the accounting communication process.

Reynolds (1986) adopted a more utilitarian perspective and argued that statements about organizational culture should reflect differences related to industries, technical or task requirements and that to expect the same cultural systems to foster success in all industries seems inaccurate. Given the multidirectional nature of the concept, Meyerson and Martin (1987) identified three perspectives of organizational culture research: ‘integration’, ‘differentiation’ and ‘fragmentation’. The integrationist perspective positions culture as an integrating mechanism, the normative glue; differentiation emphasizes that different groups in organization embrace different and even
incompatible beliefs, values and assumptions; fragmentation perspective acknowledges that ambiguity is an inevitable aspect of organizational life and organizational situations exist in which it is not appropriate to identify consistency of values and basic assumptions.

Schein (1990) analyzed organizational cultures from perspectives of culture strength and culture type. The researcher concluded that the strength and type of culture are critical to the organization's success and survival. Executive leaders should put their energies on developing a strong organizational culture that supports the following activities: managing change, achieving goals, coordinating team work and customer orientation in organization. These activities will contribute to organizational effectiveness. Denison (1990) noted that successful organizations, over time, are likely to possess a strong, well-defined culture. Cameron and Freeman (1991) investigated the relationship between three dimensions of organizational culture (congruence, strength, and type) and organizational effectiveness. The researchers found that the type of culture (i.e., clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, or market) was a greater determinant of organizational effectiveness than was either congruence or strength. Golden (1992) suggested that the organizational culture must support activities linked to the mission of the organization.

Marcoulides and Heck (1993) proposed a new model wherein organizational culture is hypothesized to consist of three interrelated dimensions: a socio-cultural system of the perceived functioning of the organization's strategies and practices, an organizational value system, and the collective beliefs of the individuals working within the organization, possibly explaining why some organizations are not performing at desired levels of productivity. Culture may be understood as ‘The way we do things around
here’ or ‘the way we think about things around here’ (Williams, Dobson & Walters, 1994).

Weese (1995) conducted a study to investigate the concepts of transformational leadership and organizational culture with Big Ten and Mid-American Conference university recreation programs. The researcher concluded that high transformational leaders possess strong organizational cultures and carry out culture-building activities, especially the customer orientation function, to a greater extent than other leaders do.

Detert, Schroeder and Mauriel (2000) presented another synthesis on organizational culture in terms of eight dimensions of organizational culture on the basis of truth and rationality in the organization, the nature of time and time horizon, motivation, stability/change innovation, personal growth, orientation to work, task, and co-workers, isolation vs. collaboration, and responsibility and orientation and focus—internal and/or external and how these dimensions corresponded to the values and beliefs of total quality management. Daymon (2000) applied a multi-perspective analytical framework to explore organization members' experiences as they adjusted to, and strove to shape, working life in a new television station. They suggested that culture formation is a fluid, ongoing process whereby cohesion, division and ambiguity continuously intertwine.

Connell (2001) studied the influence of firm size on organizational culture and employee morale in six Australian workplaces and found that organization size affected a number of variables. Small firms were found to have positive culture and high employee morale, consultative management style and organizational effectiveness.
Sadri and Lees (2001) defined the concept of corporate culture and showed how it affects organizations (both positively and negatively). Corporations that have been successful in establishing and fostering positive cultures were profiled. The authors found that an effective culture must be aligned with employee values and be consistent with the environment in which the organization operates. While it is best to establish a positive culture with which employees can identify during an organization’s infancy, it is possible to change an existing culture. Such change is best accomplished by modeling desired behavior at all levels of management and by planning events that foster frequent interactions among cross-functional employees. They concluded that a positive culture can provide a significant competitive advantage.

In a study by Hellawell and Hancock (2001), fourteen academic middle managers (at the level of Dean, Associate Dean, and Head of Department) were interviewed about their perceived roles and the concept of organizational culture and collegiality. Collegiality consists of a shared decision-making process and a set of values agreed upon by university hierarchies. Collegial governance allows the academic community to work together to find the best answers to issues facing the university. Overall, most participants agreed that in order for a university to flourish and positively adapt to change, collegiality is imperative. However, at the lower levels of the organization (Head of Departments), the majority of the respondents felt that collegiality was still viewed as the norm in interpersonal relations even where there were obstacles to it. As they viewed the various levels up the hierarchy, however, the interviewees felt that collegiality decreased. One of the problems leading to this effect was logistics; in a large university, it is difficult for faculty academic staff to communicate and work together to design and deliver courses when they are either scattered across a large building or in different buildings altogether. Therefore, it was suggested that
modifications be made to house faculty and staff of similar departments together in order to form a more cohesive and shared group consensus when dealing with change. Also faculty boards and higher hierarchical university members (Deans, Associate Deans, Boards of Trustees, etc.) should meet in a regular fashion in order to operate collegially.

Ogbonna (2002) performed a ten year, two phase study of UK Food retailing sector and suggested that industry macro-cultures may have impact on both the performance of individual firms and the management of organizational culture. Rashid, Sambasivan and Rahman (2004) studied the influence of organizational culture on affective, cognitive and behavioral attitudes towards organizational change in Malaysian manufacturing industries. Findings showed that different types of organizational culture had different levels of acceptance of attitudes toward organizational change.

Although there was no consensus on the definition of organizational culture, most authors agreed that organizational/corporate culture referred to something that is holistic, historically determined (by founders/leaders), related to things anthropologists study (like rituals and symbols), socially constructed (created and preserved by the group of people who together form the organization) and difficult to change. Anthon (2004) stated culture is the set of values, beliefs and understanding shared by an organization’s employees and that it ranks among an organization’s most powerful component. Taylor (2004) referred to what is created from the messages that are received about how people are expected to behave in the organization. Schein (2004) argued that culture has a multi-layered “onion”-like quality comprising basic assumptions (unconscious, unquestioned, guide reactions), values (about what is important), norms (to guide behavior in particular settings) and behavioral artifacts
Review of Literature

(externally visible symbols) including rules, procedures and appearance of the organization. Wagner (2005) defined culture as an informal, shared way of perceiving life and membership in the organization that binds members together and influences what they think about themselves and their work.

Wurtz (2005), explored and identified the strategies used by High-Context cultures in utilizing the Internet—a largely Low-Context medium—for communication and marketing purposes. It was hypothesized that individuals in High-Context cultures are more likely to adopt the visual effects offered by the Internet to convey their messages efficiently than their Low-Context counterparts. How might High-Context cultures make the most of the potentials offered by the Internet generation of today? Assuming that visual communication is a high priority in the design of High-Context websites, how do the visual methods used on websites vary according to the communication styles in different cultures? Using Hall's High- and Low-Context dimensions as the main parameters, an exploratory analysis of McDonald's websites identified five different strategies by which visual communication is used to support High-Context communication traits. Researchers like Rad, (2006), and Hall (1990) also have found three levels of organizational culture viz. high (strong), medium and low (weak).

Bryson (2008) addressed the issues of time and perspectives which underlie the contested nature of culture by explaining the dynamics of organizational change through dominant, residual and emergent culture with a case study in New Zealand setting. Taormina (2008) looked into the theories regarding leadership, organizational culture, and organizational socialization and how they can influence organizational culture in Chinese organizations. Chalofsky (2008) linked work-life programs with
organizational culture and suggested that organizational culture is the essence of workplace community.

Lucas and Kline (2008), in a Canadian case study, tried to understand the influence of organizational culture on group dynamics of organizational change and learning. Certain group and cultural phenomena, when manifested, had a significant influence on group members’ response to organizational change and their capacity to learn.

Kriemadis, Kotsov os and Alexopoulos (2008) examined the level of awareness of organizational culture of hotel managers in middle and upper level hotel units in Greece. No significant differences were found among managers of middle and upper level hotel units for the general awareness of organizational culture. Further results revealed significant differences only for the ‘customer orientation’ factor. Their conclusion was that cultures are never the same within an organization, as organizations and their people differ.

Zheng and Yang (2009) in a recent framework proposed that an organization goes through its life-stages of start-up, growth, maturity and revival and organizational culture evolves through corresponding mechanisms of inspiration, implantation, negotiation, and transformation. This framework also contributes to the literature on the dynamic view of culture and suggests that human resource development professionals need to be perceptive of the life stages of their organizations and intentionally leverage different cultural mechanisms to respond to critical organizational needs.

Fralinger, Olson, Pinto-Zipp and DiCorcia (2010) explored the concept of culture at the University level and determined whether changes in environmental conditions impacted student perceptions of departmental culture. The conclusion is that continual
improvement of organizational culture at the University level may lead to better preparation of students and higher productivity faculty and staff.

Asmawi and Avvari (2011) have identified elements of culture that are conducive to research and development (R&D), spotting the existing dimensions of organizational culture in Malaysian R&D organizations. The measures for this study were originally developed for the sole purpose of capturing cultural aspects in R&D organizations in the Malaysian context. These measures were developed based on the relevant issues discovered from exploratory case studies and nine categories of cultural values identified from the literature. A sample of employees (n=198) from 45 R&D organizations took part in this study. Factor analysis was adopted to uncover common underlying dimensions (factors) of the organizational culture construct. The findings suggested that the organizational culture construct in R&D organizations might best be represented through a structure of eight factors. The eight factors are teamwork and knowledge sharing, empowerment and recognition, conformity and impediments to R&D, risk-taking, customer orientation, autonomy, social networking, and organizational design. Despite some methodological issues that arose from this study, this model has the potential to become a management instrument to measure the underlying culture in R&D organizations. R&D managers can deploy this model to establish the baseline level of research culture in their respective units and thus provide the foundation for management initiatives to drive R&D activities. This model can also be used as benchmarking parameters when an R&D organization intends to evaluate various aspects of its organizational culture in relation to others that are considered to be leaders in the industry.
Gender and Organizational Culture

Often overlooked in studies of organizational culture is the potential influence of gender on culture (Mills, 1988) and the fact that most organizational cultures have been shaped predominantly by men (Marshall, 1993). Gherardi (1994) pointed out that gender is a social dynamic, and therefore, it is natural to assume that an organization is gendered. She also stated that gender can be usefully used in the study of an organizational culture because it makes us ask how we consider gender in a particular organizational setting and when we assume a particular organizational role. According to Klenke (1996), organizations tend to reinforce the value system of the dominant gender. In cultures predominantly shaped by men, there is an emphasis on hierarchy, independence, and top–down communication (Connelly & Rhoton, 1988).

In cultures primarily influenced by women, there is likely to be more emphasis on interpersonal relationships and the sharing of power (Helgesen, 1990). Several authors have suggested that organizational cultures that emphasize a humane orientation (Grant, 1988), the sharing of power (Connelly & Rhoton, 1988), equal opportunity (Loring & Wells, 1972; Powell, 1993), and an orientation toward performance-based criteria for advancement (Rosener, 1990) are typically associated with women’s advancement in the organizations.

With regard to the role of business owner, and/or manager, recent research has linked gender and organizational culture by drawing attention to the masculine organizational culture as a likely explanation for the persistence of the glass ceiling phenomenon (Vianen & Fischer, 2002).
From these studies it is clear that Organizational Culture as a concept has achieved great importance in organizational studies across various contexts. Organizational Culture has been conceptualized in different forms and has been found to relate to several other phenomena of organizations, both as an antecedent and as a consequence. It has also been found to be related to the individual level, organizational level and inter-organizational level.

**QUALITY OF WORK LIFE**

To have a good understanding of the concept of Quality of Work Life (QWL), one must look into the evolutionary stages of the idea. Even if the expression QWL is relatively new, the reality it represents is not of recent origin. The concept of QWL was the subject of considerable interdisciplinary research in the 1970s. The International Council on the Quality of Working Life was formed in 1973 and it published a series of books on various aspects of QWL. In the late 1990s and early 2000s interest in QWL has manifested itself in investigations into work and family balance, work-life balance, workplace stress and emotions at work. QWL basically is all about employee involvement, which consists of methods to motivate employees to participate in decision-making. It helps to build a good environment and good relationships. A number of researchers and theorists have been paying attention to the meaning of the QWL concept and have tried to identify the kinds of factors that determine QWL.

QWL has been well recognized as a multi-dimensional construct and it may not be universal. The key concepts captured and discussed in the existing literature include job security, better reward systems, higher pay, opportunity for growth, and participative groups, among others. Thus, QWL is defined as the favorable conditions
and environment of a workplace that support and promote employee satisfaction by providing them with rewards, job security and growth opportunities.

Hackman and Oldham (1974) drew attention to what they described as psychological growth needs as relevant to the consideration of QWL. Several such needs were identified: Skill variety, Task Identity, Task significance, Autonomy and Feedback. They suggested that such needs have to be addressed if employees are to experience high QWL.

In contrast to such theory based models, Taylor (1979) more pragmatically identified the essential components of QWL such as basic extrinsic job factors of wages, hours and working conditions, and the intrinsic job notions of the nature of the work itself. He suggested that a number of other aspects could be added, including individual power, employee participation in the management, fairness and equity, social support, use of one’s present skills, self development, a meaningful future at work, social relevance of the work or product and effect on extra work activities. Taylor suggested that relevant Quality of working life concepts may vary according to organization and employee group. Warr, Cook and Wall (1979), in an investigation of QWL, considered a range of apparently relevant factors, including work involvement, intrinsic job motivation, higher order need strength, perceived intrinsic job characteristics, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, happiness, and self-rated anxiety. They discussed a range of correlations derived from their work, such as those between work involvement and job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation and job satisfaction, and perceived intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction. In particular, they found evidence for a moderate association between total job satisfaction and total life satisfaction and happiness, with a less strong, but significant association with self-rated anxiety. Thus, whilst some authors
have emphasized the workplace aspects of QWL, others have identified the relevance of personality factors, psychological well being, and broader concepts of happiness and life satisfaction.

Mirvis and Lawler (1984) suggested that QWL was associated with satisfaction with wages, hours and working conditions, describing the “basic elements of a good quality of work life” as safe work environment, equitable wages, equal employment opportunities and opportunities for advancement.

Gani (1993) in his study stated that the core of the QWL concept is the value of treating the worker as a human being and emphasized changes in the socio-technical system thorough improvement in physical and psychological working environment, design and redesign of work practices, hierarchical structure and the production process brought with the active involvement of workers in decision-making.

Robbins (1998) defined QWL as a process by which an organization responds to employee needs by developing mechanisms to allow them to share fully in making the decisions that design their lives at work.

Lochan (2000) dealt with the QWL of the bus drivers and the factors that lead to an imbalance, causing high probability of road accidents. A qualitative study was conducted with the help of fifteen bus drivers from four different Pune Municipal Corporation bus depots in India. In-depth interviews were conducted and through naturalistic observation method data was collected. Analysis of the data was done through the coding process. Some suggestions were also made so that the quality of work life of the drivers could be improved, thus ultimately leading to a better transport service to the citizens and a reduction in the rates of accidents.
Some have argued that QWL might vary between groups of workers. For example, Ellis and Pompli (2002) identified a number of factors contributing to job dissatisfaction and quality of working life in nurses, including: poor working environments, resident aggression, workload, inability to deliver quality of care preferred, balance of work and family, shift work, lack of involvement in decision-making, professional isolation, lack of recognition, poor relationships with supervisor/peers, role conflict and lack of opportunity to learn new skills. Bearfield (2003) used 16 questions to examine the quality of working life, and distinguished between causes of dissatisfaction in professionals, intermediate clerical staff, sales and service workers, indicating that different concerns might have to be addressed for different groups.

Roan, Amanda, Diamond and Chris (2003) examined the QWL of young workers in the retail and hospitality industries in Australia. In the 1990s workers in Australia were increasingly subjected to negative work pressures. Irregular work patterns, work intensification, and the transformation of the notion of career, often in the name of 'flexibility' were increasingly common. This period was also characterized by scant regard for the quality of working life of young people in entry-level employment, which is often portrayed as a transition stage prior to their admission into the full-time core workforce. They explored the experiences of twenty-two young people at the beginning of their careers in the hospitality and retail industries, with reference to three QWL elements: hours’ flexibility, work-life balance and career potential. Qualitative evidence revealed a variety of experiences but, on balance, suggested a negative quality of working life and limited commitment to their current industry. In conclusion, they
suggested that these industries must pay more attention to QWL issues in order to attract and retain quality staff.

Kanagalakshmi and Devei (2003) examined whether the work related factors and demographic factors have any relationship with the perception of quality of work life and also tried to explore the relationship between quality of work and quality of life in the textile industries located at Tirunelveli. The work related factors were combined in six categories: working environment, welfare measures, safety measures, supervision, participation in decision-making and intercommunication. The results held that demographic factors and work related factors have significant relationship with perception of quality of work life. Quality of Life is the extent of relationships between individuals and organizational factors that exist in the working environment. It is a strong focus on providing a work environment conducive to satisfy individual needs. In fact, it is assumed that if employees have more positive attitudes about the organization, their productivity increases and, everything else being equal, the organization should be more effective.

Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) defined work-family balance as the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in and equally satisfied with his work role and family role. They stated that work-family balance is generally thought to promote well-being. Imbalance, in particular work imbalance, arouses high levels of stress, detracts from quality of life and ultimately reduces an individual’s effectiveness at work. Indeed the concept of work-life balance has become more apparent in contemporary literature relating to QWL.
Rosser (2004) conducted a study to examine the quality of midlevel leaders' work life, satisfaction, morale and their intentions to leave. The study included 4,000 mid-level leaders who were randomly selected from a total national population of 11,300 from both public and private institutions within five Carnegie classifications (e.g., Doctoral/research-extensive and intensive, Baccalaureate - General and Liberal arts) across the United States. Three separate mailings yielded 2,000 responses for a 50 percent return rate and 1966 useable surveys. Midlevel leaders were defined as academic or non-academic support personnel within the structure of higher education organizations (e.g., directors and coordinators of admissions, registrars, institutional researches, computing and technology, human resources, alumni affairs, student affairs, placement and counseling services, financial aid, planning and development). This national study proposed: (1) to examine those demographic characteristics and work life issues that may have an impact on the perceptions of midlevel leaders' morale, satisfaction and intent to leave; and (2) to demonstrate the role satisfaction and morale on midlevel leaders' intentions to stay or leave their current position or career. The findings indicated that individual perceptions of midlevel leaders' professional and institutional work life were powerful variables that had an impact on their satisfaction, morale, and turnover intentions.

The modern definition by Serey (2006) of QWL is quite conclusive and best meets the contemporary work environment. The definition is related to meaningful and satisfying work. It includes (1) an opportunity to exercise one’s talents and capacities, to face challenges and situations that require independence and initiative and self-direction, (2) an activity thought to be worthwhile by the individuals involved, (3) activity in which
one understands the role the individual plays in the achievement of some overall goals and (4) a sense of taking pride in what one is doing and in doing it well.

Rethinam and Ismail (2008) examined the Constructs of QWL: A Perspective of Information and Technology Professionals. The study suggested that many factors determine the meaning of quality of work life, one of which is work environment. A group of workforce that is greatly affected in QWL as a result of dynamic changes in work environment is information technology (IT) professionals. They reviewed the meaning of QWL, analyzed constructs of QWL based on models and past research from the perspective of IT professionals in Malaysia and many other countries. The constructs of QWL discussed were health and well-being, job security, job satisfaction, competency development, work and non-work life balance. They concluded that QWL from the perspective of IT professionals is challenging both to the individuals and to the organizations.

Kandasamy and Ancheri (2009) conducted a qualitative study in an attempt to identify QWL dimensions expected in the working environment of a hotel. Eighty-four students and 64 employees from three hotel management institutes and three hotel organizations from Mangalore city in India participated through a purposeful sampling frame. Data were collected using interviews, focus group discussions and open-ended questionnaires, and analyzed in line with grounded theory method. The content analysis of the data yielded eight dimensions of QWL.

Reddy and Reddy (2010) analyzed the QWL of employees: emerging dimensions and they reviewed the meaning of QWL, examined the dimensions of QWL, practices of QWL, techniques for improving QWL and judgment methods of QWL in an organization. The dimensions of QWL included health and well-being, job security,
job satisfaction, competence development and the balance between work and non-work life.

Saklani (2010) attempted to capture the QWL expectations of non-managerial employees in organizations belonging to different sectors of the Indian economy. He also endeavored to assess the degree to which QWL in their perceptions is available in work organizations. On the basis of the results of the study, it was contented that economic considerations continue to be of paramount significance to non-managerial employees in their QWL. This hypothesis is amply supported by Important Factor Information Schedule (IFIS) derived from the responses obtained from a sample size of 102 respondents drawn from 18 different organizations. However, contrary to the observations made by researchers in the past, many environmental factors (both physical and nonphysical) and issues pertaining to human relations to satisfy needs of the lower order no longer appear to occupy the pride of place in their opinions. Further, on the basis of results of univariate analysis carried out with the help of t-test as inferential statistics, he suggested that the overall existence of QWL in organizations is more than the ‘average’ standard as measured on a five point Likert-type Summated Scale. Finally, there seems to be a substantial scope for improvement in non-managerial motivation in a number of areas as depicted by a marked mismatch in employee expectations and perceived QWL existence in organizations in India.

Bharathi,Umaselvi and Kumar (2011) conducted a study of the college teachers’ quality of work life. The universe of the study included 12 colleges located within the Tiruchirappalli city limit and 1279 college teachers who were working during May 2008 – February 2009. A sample of 239 respondents was collected from the universe.
They concluded that there is a significant association between quality of work life total and quality of life in teaching environment total.

Sharma and Jain (2011) quantified the effects of QWL on employees. They gained an insight into current working life policies and practices, as well as work-life balance issues of employees. The most notable factors that influence Quality of Work Life are Adequate and Fair Compensation, Safe and Healthy Working Conditions, Opportunity to Use and Develop Human Capabilities and Opportunity for Career Growth. QWL should provide for the balanced relationship among work, non-work and family aspects of life. In other words, family life and social life should not be strained by working hours including overtime work, work during inconvenient hours, business travel, transfers, vacations, etc.

These reviews indicate that QWL approach considers people as ‘assets’ to the organization rather than as ‘costs’. People perform better when they are allowed to participate in managing their work and making decisions. QWL initiatives can provide certain positive experiences for staff, especially when they promote the opportunity to socialize and build connections with co-workers and help to fulfill employee needs for humour, and balance. In fact, QWL is the shared responsibility not only of the management and employees, but also of the society.

**JOB ATTITUDE**

Job attitudes research is arguably the most venerable and popular topic in organizational psychology. The need to measure, understand, and improve employee attitudes is essential for organizations of today.
Campbell (1971) examined whether similarities of job attitudes among workers are more closely associated with the nature of the job itself or with the nature of the supervision received. Comparisons of attitude similarity between 155 pairs of workers were made for 4 classes: workers having the same job, the same supervisor, both, or neither. Comparisons were made between class means to assess the relative association of job and supervision with attitude similarity between workers. Overall results showed shared supervision to be significantly associated with attitude similarity, while shared job was not significantly associated. The investigator hoped that the results might aid organizations in improving overall job satisfaction or in explaining organizational issues such as high turnover.

Shore, Cleveland and Goldberg (2003) have shown the importance of employee age relative to coworker age in determining attitudes, performance, and career-related opportunities. They used chronological and subjective measures of employee and manager age to determine whether employee age relative to the manager has an impact on these same outcome variables. One hundred and eighty-five managers and 290 employees completed the survey. The strongest and most consistent age effects were observed for interactions between the chronological ages of employee and manager. Both the magnitude and pattern of the employee–manager age interactions varied by self- and manager-rated outcome measures of work attitudes, performance and ability assessments and developmental experiences.

Saari and Judge (2004) identified three major gaps between HR practice and the scientific research in the area of employee attitudes in general and the most focal employee attitude in particular—Job satisfaction: (1) the causes of employee attitudes,
(2) the results of positive or negative job satisfaction, and (3) how to measure and influence employee attitudes.

Sidani and Jamali (2010) explored the meaning of work in the Egyptian context through an assessment of work beliefs and work attitudes. They present a review of the relevant literature that evaluated the meaning of work in different countries. The review also elucidates recent research efforts that have tried to shed some light on the meaning of work in Middle-Eastern contexts. Data were collected from 201 Egyptian white-collar workers. Work beliefs and some job attitudes were assessed. Results indicate the prevalence of the humanistic work-belief system. Job satisfaction was positively correlated with the humanistic work-belief system and negatively with the Marxist work-belief system.

A good attitude does not necessarily come naturally, but requires work and focus. It is a decision that one makes daily (Ray, 2010). Having a positive attitude can result in better psychological and physical well-being. People who have a negative attitude tend to get sick more frequently, have higher levels of depression and even have a higher risk of heart disease. The reasons for this are unclear, but people with a positive attitude may be more able to deal with the harmful effect of stress on the body, or they may follow healthier lifestyles (Mosel, 2010).

Bal and Kooij (2011) examined the influence of age on the relation between psychological contract-breach and the development of job attitudes. Based on affective events, social exchange, and lifespan theory, they hypothesized that (1) psychological contract breach would be related negatively to job attitudes, and (2) that age would moderate these relations. The hypotheses were tested by means of a meta-
analysis of $k = 60$ studies, using Weighted Least Squares estimation. Their results supported both hypotheses for the outcomes trust and organizational commitment. However, for job satisfaction the moderating influence of age was in the unexpected direction. The relations between contract-breach and trust and organizational commitment were indeed stronger for younger workers, whereas the relation between contract breach and job satisfaction was stronger for older workers.

**Job Satisfaction**

Evidence has indicated that the job satisfaction of identical twins reared apart is statistically similar (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal & Abraham, 1989). Although this literature has had its critics (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989), an accumulating body of evidence indicates that differences in job satisfaction across employees can be traced, in part, to differences in their disposition or temperament (House, Shane & Herold, 1996). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggested that disposition may influence the experience of emotionally significant events at work, which in turn influences job satisfaction. Similarly, Brief (1998); and Motowidlo (1996) have developed theoretical models in an attempt to better understand the relationship between dispositions and job satisfaction. Ray (1992) concluded that the mental health of teachers was positively correlated with job satisfaction and attitude towards pupils.

One of the surest signs of deteriorating conditions in an organization is low job satisfaction (Devi, 1993). Job Satisfaction is the favorableness or unfavorableness with which employees view their work (Bruneberg, 1976). It signifies the amount of agreement between one's expectations of the job and the rewards the job provides. Job satisfaction is concerned with a person or a group in the organization. If each person is highly satisfied with his job, it is considered group job satisfaction.

Takalkar and Covert (1994) measured job satisfaction in an Indian corporation. They suggested that the structure of job satisfaction in India was a modification of an eight oblique factor model proposed by Spector (1985).

Ronit (2001) studied 'The Influence of Leadership Style on Teacher Job Satisfaction'. This study disclosed the effects of principals' leadership style (transformational or transactional), principals' decision-making strategy (autocratic versus participative), and teachers' occupation perceptions on teacher satisfaction from the job. More specifically, it attempted to find out how much of the variation in teachers' job satisfaction can be attributed to their perceptions of their occupation, as compared to their perceptions about their principals' leadership style and decision-making strategy. A quantitative questionnaire using Likert-type scales was administered to 930 teachers in Israeli schools, of whom 745 responded. Path analysis was used to explain teacher job satisfaction by the exogenous variables. The most salient finding was that teachers' occupation perceptions strongly affected their satisfaction. Principals' transformational leadership affected teachers' satisfaction both directly and indirectly through their occupation perceptions.
Research specifically pertaining to job satisfaction amongst teachers has recently begun to receive much attention owing to the decrease in popularity and status of the teaching profession as a whole (Gendin & Sergeev, 2002), as well as to the high teacher turnovers recorded in many countries over the past few decades (Buckley, Schneider & Shang, 2005; Kotterman, 2000).

Recent research has confirmed that employee empowerment climate in groups is associated with higher levels of individual job satisfaction (Seibert, Silver & Randolph, 2004). Overall job satisfaction is probably the most researched attitude in organizational behavior.

Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) studied job satisfaction among school teachers in Cyprus. The research report examined job satisfaction and motivation among teachers in this small developing country in the Eastern Mediterranean. An adapted version of the questionnaire developed by the "Teacher 2000 Project" was translated into Greek and used for the purposes of this study that had a sample of 461 K-12 teachers and administrators. The findings showed that, unlike in the other countries in which this questionnaire was used, Cypriot teachers chose this career because of the salary, the hours, and the holidays associated with this profession. The study analyzed how these motives influenced the level of satisfaction held by the Cypriot teachers.

A study of the Indian situation has confirmed the positive interrelationship between job satisfaction, job performance, and job motivation. Discontentment with working life is likely to affect the workers’ job adjustment and also their social, emotional and domestic life. The rate of absenteeism increased down the ladder of hierarchy, with managers having the lowest absence rate, technical workers having the highest absence rate and supervisors occupying the intermediate position. Absenteeism was positively
correlated to job satisfaction and to the feeling of insecurity. Also, absenteeism was negatively correlated with achievement motivation. A satisfied worker has a positive attitude towards his work and will try to avoid being absent from work. However, absenteeism would be less among those who are satisfied than those who are dissatisfied with their jobs. There was a significant relationship between both males and females and also among both white collared and blue collared workers. However, the relationship is slightly affected by the marital status of working women who sometimes remain absent or attend work late due to unavoidable domestic engagements (Admin, 2006).

Crossman and Harris (2006) examined the job satisfaction among secondary school teachers in different types of secondary school. The results indicate a significant difference in the overall job satisfaction scores of teachers by type of school. Teachers in independent and privately-managed schools exhibited the highest satisfaction levels while those in foundation schools exhibited the lowest. No significant difference in satisfaction was found when the data were analyzed by age, gender and length of service.

George, Louw and Badenhorst (2008) undertook an exploratory study on the role of extrinsic and intrinsic factors in determining job satisfaction among urban secondary-school teachers in Namibia. Biographical variables pertaining to the teachers' gender, age, marital status, school resources, teaching experience, academic qualifications, and rank were investigated to determine whether these had any significant relevance, or made any notable contribution, to the level of job satisfaction experienced. Also, the correlation between burnout and job satisfaction was investigated to determine the extent to which these two factors are related. A sample of 337 secondary-school
teachers randomly selected from 17 government schools, in the Windhoek region of Namibia, voluntarily participated in the study. Results showed significant levels of dissatisfaction pertaining to intrinsic factors of work and, more especially, those factors relating to school area and rank. A significant correlation between levels of burnout and job satisfaction was found, particularly in respect of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, which were shown to correlate with low levels of job satisfaction.

Pillay (2009) compared and contrasted satisfaction levels of nurses in both public and private sectors. This was a cross-sectional survey of professional nurses conducted throughout South Africa using a pre-tested and self-administered questionnaire. Univariate and bivariate statistical models were used to evaluate levels of satisfaction with various facets of work and to elicit the differences in satisfaction levels between different groups of nurses. A total of 569 professional nurses participated in the study. His conclusion was that Private-sector nurses were generally satisfied, while public-sector nurses were generally dissatisfied. Public-sector nurses were most dissatisfied with their pay, the workload and the resources available to them. They were satisfied only with the social context of the work. Private-sector nurses were dissatisfied only with their pay and career development opportunities. He concluded that improving work environment so that it provides a context congruent with the aspirations and value-systems of the nurses is likely to increase their job satisfaction and consequently exert a positive effect on individual, organizational and health outcomes.

Sharma (2010) conducted a study and it found that internal and external locus of control of an employee influences the satisfaction level of an individual. This study investigated the relation between job satisfaction level and personality trait of 40 Indian
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officers. The results indicated that officers having internal locus of control are more satisfied than officers having external locus of control.

**Job Commitment**

Billingsley and Cross (1992) studied Predictors of Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Intent to Stay in Teaching: A Comparison of General and Special Educators. The primary purpose of this study was to identify variables that influence commitment and job satisfaction among both general and special educators. A second purpose was to determine the extent to which these commitment and satisfaction variables influence the teachers' intent to stay in teaching. A questionnaire using primarily present measures was sent to a random sample of 558 special educators and 589 general educators in Virginia. Completed questionnaires were received from 83% of both samples. Cross validated regression results suggested that work related variables, such as leadership support, role conflict and ambiguity and stress were better predictors of commitment and job satisfaction than demographic variables.

Berg, Kalleberg and Appelbaum (2003) examined whether a high-commitment environment would positively impact work-family balance, in part through its effect on organizational commitment. In their study, a high-commitment environment was defined as one that provides intrinsically rewarding jobs, supportive supervisors and high performance work practices (which are more likely to include family friendly practices). They found affective commitment did partially mediate the relationships between high-commitment organizational practices and work-family balance.

Work environment factors helped to shape the job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction and organization commitment were inversely linked to
turnover intent. Reducing turnover intent will be a beneficial outcome for employees, coworkers, clients, administrators, and society. Turnover is harmful to correctional organizations. In fact employee turnover can have devastating effects on correctional facilities. Excessive turnover wastes recruiting and training dollars. In addition, high turnover rates may also directly affect the security of the institution as well as the safety of both staff and inmates (Lambert & Hogan, 2009).

Recent research on organizational commitment has been conducted in different countries. Al-Meer (1989) found that the Asians working in Saudi Arabia were more committed to their organization than with the Westerners and the Arab workers. Cole, Kalleberg and Lincoln (1993) revealed that the American workers displayed higher affective commitment than did the Japanese workers. The reasons for these differences need to be explored. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are two important work attitudes that the management can strive to improve among its employees. And these two attitudes are strongly related. Both affective and normative commitment is related to job satisfaction. Increasing job satisfaction is likely to increase commitment as well.

Commitment is an attitude, a psychological frame of mind which motivates people to work towards certain goals. So for a commitment to exist in a person he must have a positive attitude. Negative attitude is one of the major reasons for non-committal approach (Khan, 2007).

**Job Involvement**

Brown (1969) suggested that satisfying personal relationships are likely to be associated with involvement. Buchanan (1974) concluded that social interaction plays a
role in determining employee loyalty commitment. Sheldon (1971), referencing Kornhauser (1962), Becker and Carper (1956), Kanter (1962), and Becker (1960), concluded that “there has been agreement that social involvements produce commitment”. These authors, however, concerned themselves with commitment to or involvement with the organization rather than involvement with the job.

Yadav and Halyal (1999) investigated the influence of job involvement on family and marital satisfaction. Purposive sampling was used to obtain a sample of 500 male college teachers, who had at least five years of marriage and teaching experience, at least one child and an un-employed wife. The Job involvement scale, Family involvement scale, the Job satisfaction scale and Marital satisfaction scale were administered to all the subjects. Psychological identification with job and family was positively correlated with job and marital satisfaction. Job involvement and family involvement were positively related to each other, having an additive interaction influence on job satisfaction and marital satisfaction.

**Gender studies related to Job Attitude**

There is a relatively large body of literature on the differences in job attitudes between men and women; however, most of the research has focused on a single job attitude variable, such as job satisfaction (deVaus & McAllister, 1991; McNeily & Goldsmith, 1991) or organizational commitment (Aven, Parker & McEvoy, 1993), with a few examining a limited number of these variables together (Kaldenberg, Becker, Zvonkovic, 1995). A number of early studies reported that female employees are less satisfied with their jobs than their male counterparts (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). In a study of gender and continuance commitment, Wahn (1998) suggested that women may have higher organizational commitment because they perceive fewer job
alternatives than their male counterparts. That is, if women believe that they have fewer opportunities for employment in other organizations, they will have higher levels of commitment to their current organizations than do men.

Lavinga (1974) took a sample of 1600 and found that female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers. The findings of Muthaiah (1981) and Dixit (1984) confirm the same. In the studies of Virachari (1987), Gupta (1980) and Rebay (1988), primary and secondary school teachers and college teachers were investigated. Bhandarkar and Rebay (2010) found a positive relation between age, experience and job satisfaction. There was no significant difference between sex or level of education and job satisfaction. Regarding pay and supervision the teachers were dissatisfied. Gupta (1980) stated that marital status, age and experience were not associated with job satisfaction. Rebay (1988) confirmed that not only gender, marital status, age and qualifications but also the location of the schools had no relationship with job satisfaction. But at the same time experience and salaries of the teachers had a significant relationship with job satisfaction.

While studying job satisfaction of graduate teachers in Coimbatore, Sekar and Ranganathan (1988) found that most of the teachers were satisfied with the nature of their work, personnel policies, salary and personal achievement, relationship with superiors and colleagues and working conditions in schools. But, curiously enough, caste, place of work and mother tongue were significantly related to job satisfaction. Male graduate trained teachers, single-family teachers, more experienced and government school-teachers were more satisfied than others. Age and marital status had no relationship with job satisfaction; but economic and political values were found to be correlates of job satisfaction.

Scott, Swortzel and Taylor (2005) tried to determine what demographic factors were related to the level of job satisfaction of Extension agents. The study followed a descriptive correlational design. A modified version of the Job Diagnostic Survey developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980) was sent to 195 extension agents. Based on 143 usable responses, significant relationships were found between the job satisfaction constructs and the demographic factors of gender and race. When considering the extension agents’ current position, a significant difference was noted between area agents and 4-H agents regarding how each group rated satisfaction with co-worker relations.

According to Hunjra, Chani, Aslam, Azam and Rehman (2010) the male and female workers have significantly different levels of job satisfaction. Pereira (2010) found that demographic variables (gender, age, civil state, antiquity, academic qualifications and professional group) had a differentiated moderator effect over job satisfaction, organization based self-esteem and work related stress.

Heponiemi, Kuusio, Sinervo and Elovainio (2011) examined whether there are differences in job-related attitudes and well-being among physicians working in private sector and public sector. In addition, they examined whether psychosocial factors (organizational justice and job control) could mediate these possible differences in different sectors. A random sample of Finnish physicians included 1522 women and
1047 men aged 25–65 years. Outcome variables were job satisfaction, organizational commitment, psychological distress, work ability and sleeping problems. Job control and organizational justice were measured using established questionnaires. A series of regression analyses was performed and the meditational effects were tested following the procedures outlined by Baron and Kenny. Physicians working in private sector had higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and lower levels of psychological distress and sleeping problems when compared with physicians working in public sector. Private physicians also had higher levels of organizational justice, which acted as a mediator behind more positive attitudes and better well-being in private sector. Private physicians had higher levels of job control but it did not act as a mediator. Their conclusion was that Private physicians feel better than public physicians and this is partly due to higher organizational justice in private sector. They suggested that, Public health care organizations should invest effort to increase the fairness in their organizations and management and pay more attention towards improving the well-being of their employees, which can possibly increase the attractiveness of public sector as a career option.

In the light of the above theoretical and empirical framework, job attitude may be considered as one of the most important factors that can enhance efficiency. A good attitude in the workplace fosters a good work ethic and maximizes human potential. Having employees with good attitudes also makes the work environment more enjoyable and promotes happiness, constructive endeavors, fulfilling relationships and self-actualization.
PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Personal effectiveness means making the most of all personal resources at our disposal - our personal talents, energy and time - relative to what's most important to us. It involves planning and prioritizing available means by using interpersonal skills to help build effective working relationships with others and reduce personal stress. It is also the ability to make a positive and energetic impact on others by conveying ideas and information clearly and persuasively.

Competence is viewed as an ability, capacity or skill to perform a specific task. Wanger and Morse (1975) probably for the first time, made an attempt to study competence of managers. Later a number of other researchers conducted studies on competence in work or job context (Odewahn & Petty, 1980; Sekaram & Wagner, 1980; Boyatzis, 1982; Shukla, 1988).

Harrison and Pelletier (1987) examined the measures of role performance: personal achievement, job satisfaction, recognition from superiors, contribution to organizational objectives, sense of organizational objectives, sense of organizational responsibility, reward equal to performance and expectations, use of education and experience and sense of self-fulfillment. High levels of bureaucratization exact a toll in the form of perceptions of generally low organizational effectiveness among members of the organization. Also, in a highly bureaucratic organization, perceptions of heightened role performance contribute to perceptions of greater organizational effectiveness and a marked improvement in actual performance throughout the department. Immediate improvement in organizational performance across the board can be achieved by transforming the various measures of bureaucratization into...
avenues of opportunity leading toward even higher levels of perceived role performance.

Slater (1990) assessed the effects of personal effectiveness: assertiveness training for nurses. The approach recognizes and utilizes the skills and resources within a group, through a process of enabling rather than teaching.

Creed, Peter, Anthony, Nicholls and Pat (1998) reviewed the general area of occupational skills/personal effectiveness training for unemployed people, and reported the outcomes for individuals attending 'typical' courses in Australia. Also reported were outcomes for unemployed people who attended specially devised training, based on the cognitive behavioral (Beck, 1976) and learned optimism (Seligman, 1998) intervention approaches that were aimed at improving well-being, confidence and coping abilities. Variables assessed included individual well-being (e.g., psychological self-esteem), confidence (e.g., self-efficacy), attitude-to-work (e.g., work-commitment), training climate and labor market outcomes such as return-to-work. More positive outcomes were identified for unemployed people attending the specially devised programs. The authors argued that training targeted at unemployed people must be based on sound theoretical principles to produce measurable long-term benefits.

Campbell (2000) estimated the influence of personal characteristics on effectiveness of construction site managers. He identified a set of 26 personal characteristics that influenced their effectiveness. These characteristics were tested for correlation with effectiveness using a non-results-based effectiveness index. A questionnaire survey was completed by 61 site managers for this purpose. The results suggested that of 26 identified personal factors believed to be important, the only ones which may actually
be related to effectiveness are: involvement in continuing professional development, number of firms worked for, use of addictive substances, education level and membership in professional bodies, job satisfaction, motivation level, career aspiration, stress level, leadership style and the need to work. The findings will assist those recruiting, retaining or promoting site managers to make a more informed judgment of key factors influencing effectiveness.

Worthington (2002) used an ordered probity model to examine the impact of student characteristics and perceptions of the teaching evaluation process on student ratings. The results indicated that expected grade, ethnic background, gender and age had a significant influence on student ratings. A primary student-based influence on teaching evaluation performance would appear to be the perceived potential outcome of the evaluation in terms of tenure, promotion and salary decisions, and improvements in teaching and staff allocation. The impact of student perceptions and characteristics was also found to vary across the various dimensions of teaching performance with the potential bias being highest for evaluation questions relating to overall performance, and lowest for questions relating to formative assessment and deep learning outcomes.

Ravi (2003) studied the relationship between the results of the school and the efficiency of the principal as an administrator and as a teacher. Descriptive casual comparative design was employed for the study. Qualitative and quantitative approaches were followed. A sample of 91 principals was taken from 200 schools in Coimbatore District, using probability sampling method for the study. A questionnaire was used to collect the data from schools. Findings of the study: (1) it is found that there is a significant difference in the efficiency of a principal based on educational qualifications. (2) It is observed that there is a significant difference in the performance
of a principal as administrator based on the experience. (3) Teachers with more than 21 years experience proved to be better and shared good results as principals. (4) More P.G. teachers in the schools seemed to enhance the efficiency of the principal. (5) There is no significant relationship observed between efficiency of the Principal as an administrator and as a teacher as far as results are concerned. (6) Socio-economic status did not influence the efficiency of the principal. (7) Efficiency of a principal as a teacher in rural areas seemed to be reasonably better than in the urban areas.

Noorjehan (2005) claimed that the students of high effective schools are more adjusted than the students of average and low effective schools. Students of high effective schools are involved more in school activities than the students of average and low effective schools.

Acikgoz (2005) conducted a study of teachers’ characteristics and their effects on students’ attitudes. He administered a questionnaire in the Turkish mono-lingual setting and the research was done as an extension of earlier studies to provide feedback to Turkish teachers. A total of 181 students: 9, 10 and 11 graders, of four different state schools, answered a questionnaire and three open-ended questions aimed at assessing their attitude toward their perceptions of teacher characteristics (professional, pedagogical, and personal), as well as to learning. The teacher questionnaire (TQ) was used. It was proposed by the study that being fully equipped with pedagogical and professional characteristics would not be adequate to establish a positive, learnable and teachable classroom climate. The teacher should also be aware of his /her personal characteristics and how they are important to students if an ideal educational atmosphere is to be created. The results might illuminate the ways of generating a better learning atmosphere through self-assured and self-esteem students.
Srivastava and Sinha (2007) identified the relationship between certain individual level variables and managerial effectiveness variables. Secondly, the study further examined the underlying dimensions of “managerial effectiveness variables”, which may be relevant to the organizations in the present global scenario. The individual level variables were values, needs, maturity and locus of control, work ethic, self-monitoring, learned helplessness, self-awareness, self-limiting behavior and self consciousness. Managerial effectiveness was conceptualized in terms of competence, satisfaction, conflict resolution, need fulfillment, value realization, self-concept and recognition. Factor analysis and canonical correlations were sought to answer the research questions. Factor analysis results revealed the underlying dimensions of the variables under study. Canonical correlations revealed that a positive significant relationship existed between these two.

Bruno and Lay (2008) conducted a study which sought to evaluate the personal values profile, the predominant leadership styles, the leadership effectiveness, the relationship between personal values, balance and leadership effectiveness of a group of Brazilian executives. In order to evaluate the personal values profile a closed instrument of the rank order type was developed and applied. To verify the relationship between personal values, balance and leadership effectiveness, the linear regression method was used computing the linear correlation coefficient between the before mentioned variables, involving 400 executives. The study showed that the executives had an imbalance in their personal values profile, with predominance of economic and theoretical values. Additionally, the study uncovered a lack of flexibility regarding the leadership styles, presenting styles of selling and sharing ideas as dominants. The study also showed that the leadership effectiveness of the involved executives was at a
moderate level. Finally, the research pointed out a high positive relationship between personal values, balance and leadership effectiveness and, furthermore, it showed a better balance of personal values, if one considered only the part of the sample involving executives working in organizations which presented better results in the three previous years (50 executives).

According to Maheshwari (2008) a psychologically androgynous group was found to be most personally effective on the dimensions of self-disclosure, benefit from feedback and perceptiveness or sensitivity to others' feelings. Also, a significant correlation existed between psychological androgyny and personal effectiveness with regard to the other sex-role orientations. Moreover, androgynous sex-role orientation predicted personal effectiveness.

Bess and Todd (2009) determined the personal characteristics of administrative team members and how these personal characteristics impacted the administrative efficiency of an administrative team focused on positively impacting school performance. Forty-one Indiana public school corporations participated in the study and a total of 186 team members submitted completed responses to the administrative team survey. This survey was developed by the researcher to measure administrative team effectiveness utilizing the self-rating of the six administrative team practices of planning, implementing, monitoring, communicating, advocating and supporting. Personal characteristics were based upon the Big Five personality traits of extraversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness and agreeableness. These traits and also administrative tenure within the current school corporation formed the model of predictor variables. Based on the significant findings of the data analysis of the research, the following conclusions were made: (1) numerous positions make up a public school corporation administrative team.
These team members were members of professional organizations, though they were not heavily involved in these organizations. (2) Administrative team members rated themselves above average on each of the five personality traits. This was true for the sample and for each administrative position with greater than ten respondents. (3) The model of all predictor variables did have a significant effect on the administrative practice of implementing. No additional predictive effects were found for the other administrative practices. (4) The personality trait of conscientiousness had a significant predictive effect on the administrative practices of implementing and planning. (5) The personality trait of extraversion had a significant predictive effect on the administrative practice of implementing. (6) The administrative practices carried out by those in the positions of principal, assistant principal, superintendent and assistant superintendent were significantly affected by individual personality traits. (7) The personality trait of emotional stability was ranked second lowest for the sample, and for positions with greater than ten respondents, emotional stability was the lowest ranked of all traits and for all five positions.

Throughout the review of literature the key to personal effectiveness is the prioritizing and scheduling of work so that not only deadlines are met but also time is saved to concentrate on those matters that are most important, resulting in a higher quality outcome. Successful people channel their strengths and talents to achieve this outcome which, with time, self-monitoring and personal commitment, can become a habit, which consequently inspires an effective individual to take more responsibility within the organization.
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND QUALITY OF WORKLIFE

Quality of Work Life (QWL) is a set of methods, approaches or technologies that enhance the work environment, making it more productive and satisfying. QWL has been defined as “the quality of relationship between the employees and the total working environment” (Davis, 1983). It is concerned with the overall climate of work and its impact on work and people as well as on organizational effectiveness. Elevation of the quality of work life would help the employees’ well being and thereby the well being of the whole organization. It develops the working conditions that are excellent for both the employees and the organization.

Gifford, Zammuto and Goodman (2002) examined the relationship between hospital unit culture and nurses quality of work life. They found that turnover rates for hospital nurses have been increasing in recent years, which is partially a result of increasing pressure on nurses from higher productivity expectations in a managed care environment. Improving nurse retention is a difficult challenge to managers since the bureaucratic cultural norm of hospitals, with its hierarchical structures, rules and regulations, and heavy emphasis on measurement of outcomes and costs, may not be the culture most conducive to enhancing nurses' job satisfaction and commitment. Accordingly, this study investigated the relationships between unit organizational culture and several important job-related variables for nurse retention in the labor and delivery units of seven hospitals. Data analysis showed that unit organizational culture does affect nurses' quality of work life factors and that human relation cultural values are positively related to organizational commitment, job involvement, empowerment, and job satisfaction, and negatively related to intent to turnover. These findings suggest that although increasing recruitment of nurses and improved compensation and benefits
strategies may offset hospital nurse shortages in the short term, improving quality of work life may be a more practical and long-term approach towards improving hospital nurse retention.

Helfrich, Li, Mohr, Meterko and Sales (2007) assessed an organizational culture instrument based on the Competing Values Framework. The Competing Values Framework (CVF) has been widely used in health services research to assess organizational culture as a predictor of quality improvement implementation, employee and patient satisfaction, and team functioning, among other outcomes.

Anbarasan, Vanmathy and Nikhil (2010) explored the QWL perceptions among the sales executives in pharmaceuticals, banking, finance and insurance sectors. Survey data was collected from 100 sales representatives in various locations of Mumbai, using a self-designed and validated questionnaire. Results showed that while sales people were aware of their job requirements and committed to their work, their working environment was not conducive to support them, leading to their lower perceptions on Quality of Working Life.

The socio-technical system advocates an organizational design which ensures high Quality of work life. Most of the organizations are interested in enhancing their employees’ QWL and generally try to instill the feelings of security, equality, pride and prestige. For this purpose procedures and policies are framed to make the work less routine and more rewarding for the employees. These procedures or policies provide autonomy, recognition, good working conditions and conferring awards in appreciation of work done (Padala & Suryanarayan, 2010).
Quality of work environment is an essential element of quality of work life. The management can normally ensure such an environment in the following ways: Continuous, committed and concerted housekeeping, safety provisions and promotion, welfare amenities up-keep and environment, and occupational health and medical services. Safety culture is an essential ingredient of the quality of work life. The environmental factors like sanitation, drinking water, rest shelters, ventilation and lighting facilities and even the choice of the colours of paint for the walls do affect the quality of work life, and these factors require continuous improvements. The work culture that is able to fulfill the employees’ personal needs is considered to provide a positive interaction effect, which will lead to an excellent Quality of Working Life.

**ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND JOB ATTITUDE**

Organizational culture refers to the beliefs and values that have existed in an organization for a long time, and to the beliefs of the staff and the foreseen value of their work that will influence their attitudes and behavior. It is therefore essential to understand the relationship between Organizational culture and the Job attitude of the employees.

Finnegan and Solomon (1981) assessed the job satisfaction of Americans working in windowed or windowless environments. It is generally agreed that physical settings affect feelings and attitudes. However, there appears to have been little systematic research on the effect of windowless environments. On the assumption that windows are potential sources of stimulation, aesthetic interest, and information about the outside world (i.e., time of day, weather, etc.), it was hypothesized that American workers in a windowless environment would have more unfavorable attitudes toward their jobs than would those with windows.
Ritchie (2000) stated that the organizational culture does have a positive effect on employee attitudes. A strong culture creates a feeling of belonging and increases job satisfaction and commitment. The organizations can have a positive effect on the creation and internalization of the organizational culture. Rewarding behavior is essential to the process of having the employees view their value systems as similar to those of the organizations. Reward systems must adequately meet and satisfy the basic needs for individual survival. In addition, rewards confirm that the individual has done the "right" thing and that there is a positive outcome for doing the "right" thing in the company.

Daulatram (2003) empirically investigated the relationship between organizational culture types on job satisfaction in a survey of marketing professionals in USA. Job satisfaction was positively related to clan and adhocracy types of culture type and negatively to market and adhocracy.

Organizational culture has been found to be useful in understanding organizational variables like job satisfaction, work related attitudes like organizational commitment, individual’s sense-making, self-efficacy and collective efficacy (Harris, 1994; Bloor & Dawson, 1994; Maignan & Ferrell, 2001; Walumbwa et al., 2005).

Simmons (2006) examined the relationship between staff perceptions of organizational culture and their work-related attitudes in assisted living. Data were collected from 317 staff in 61 facilities using self-administered questionnaires. Staff who had more favorable perceptions of organizational culture reported greater job satisfaction, coworker satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Among the dimensions of organizational culture, perceptions of teamwork had the strongest influence on
satisfaction with coworkers, and perceptions of organizational morale had the strongest influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Those who want to improve staff attitudes should focus on creating organizational cultures that promote teamwork and high organizational morale.

Aarons and Sawitzky (2006) found that organizational climate partially mediates the effect of culture on work attitudes and staff turnover in mental health services. The study examined full and partial mediation models of the effects of culture and climate on work attitudes and the subsequent impact of work attitudes on staff turnover. Multilevel structural equation models supported a partial mediation model in which organizational culture had both direct influence on work attitudes and indirect influence on organizational climate. Work attitudes significantly predicted one-year staff turnover rates. These findings support the contention that both culture and climate impact work attitudes and subsequent staff turnover.

Zazzali, Alexander, Shortell and Burns (2007) investigated organizational culture and physician satisfaction with dimensions of group practice. The respondents were fifty-two medical groups to 12 integrated health systems from across the U.S., involving 1,593 physicians (38.3 percent response rate). Larger medical groups and multispecialty groups were over-represented compared with the U.S as a whole. Group-level predictors: group (i.e., participatory) culture was positively associated with satisfaction with staff and human resources, technological sophistication, and price competition. Hierarchical (i.e., bureaucratic) culture was negatively associated with satisfaction with managerial decision-making, practice level competitiveness, price competition, and financial capabilities. Rational (i.e., task-oriented) culture was negatively associated with satisfaction with staff and human resources, and price
competition. Developmental (i.e., risk-taking) culture was not significantly associated with any of the satisfaction measures. In some of the models, a group with a single-specialty (compared with a primary care group) and a group with a higher percentage of male physicians were positively associated with satisfaction with financial capabilities. Physician-level predictors: individual physicians' ratings of organizational culture were significantly related to many of the satisfaction measures. In general, older physicians were more satisfied than younger physicians with many of the satisfaction measures. Male physicians were less satisfied with data capabilities. Primary care physicians (versus specialists) were less satisfied with price competition. Some dimensions of physicians’ organizational culture were significantly associated with various aspects of individual physician satisfaction with group practice.

Joo and Lim (2009) reported that the personal characteristics (proactive personality) and contextual characteristics (organizational learning culture and job complexity) improve intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment of the employees. Employees exhibited the highest organizational commitment when they perceived higher learning culture and higher job complexity. They were also more intrinsically motivated when they showed higher proactive personality and perceived higher job complexity. The perception of their job complexity partially mediated the relationship between organizational learning culture and organizational commitment and the relationship between proactive personality and intrinsic motivation. In addition, proactive personality moderated the relationship between organizational learning culture and organizational commitment.

Tsai (2011) investigated the relationship between organizational culture, leadership behavior and job satisfaction. A cross-sectional study was undertaken that focused on
hospital nurses in Taiwan. Data was collected using a structured questionnaire; 300 questionnaires were distributed and 200 valid questionnaires were returned. Correlation analysis was used on the relationships between organizational cultures, leadership behavior and job satisfaction. Results showed that organizational cultures were significantly (positively) correlated with leadership behavior and job satisfaction, and leadership behavior was significantly (positively) correlated with job satisfaction.

Lemons and Parzinger (2011) studied the psychological congruence: the impact of organizational context on job satisfaction and retention of women in technology. Their model suggested that leaders can have a significant impact on an organization’s culture and climate. The atmosphere created by the established norms and perceptions of policies and procedures can impact an individual’s level of job satisfaction and intentions to leave the organization. The model also suggested that gender schemas might have a moderating effect on the relationship between culture and the two outcome variables.

This review of literature reveals that culture within an organization is crucially important, in determining the job attitude of the employees. By communicating and promoting the organizational vision to the subordinates, and by getting their acknowledgement of the vision, it is easy to influence their work behavior and ethics.

**ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

Certain organizational cultural attributes contribute to the shaping of future courses of action, the core of team building, achieving change, and understanding the goals and strategies of the business. Knowledge management and organization culture can direct
day-to-day behavior, support structural and process changes, and create the climate required for successful implementation of innovation strategy.

Fey and Denison (2000) extended the literature on organizational culture and effectiveness by examining a set of foreign-owned firms operating in Russia. Beginning with an existing model of organizational culture and effectiveness, the paper presented two linked studies. The first study was a survey of 179 firms designed to test the applicability of the model in the Russian context. The second study was a report of four case studies designed to ground the empirical results in the Russian context and identify areas where the model was to be extended or reinterpreted.

Walls, Nardi, von Minden and Hoffman (2002) investigated the perceptions of novice student teachers, post-student teachers and experienced teachers with regard to the characteristics of effective and ineffective teachers. Themes emerging from the respondents’ descriptions were: ability to create an appropriate emotional environment, skill in creating an effective learning environment, teacher motivation, emphasis on activities that actively involved the students and classroom techniques and grading. They concluded that student perception of departmental culture would positively coincide with the overall mission, goals and objective of the department and University.

Arshad (2003) conducted a study focused on an in-depth understanding of organizational culture of secondary schools, its components and various related models along with the conceptual clarity of organizational effectiveness and their interrelatedness. It further attempted to elaborate the relationship between the organizational culture and effectiveness in the secondary schools. The strategy of this study was to get input from school heads and teachers for identification of organizational culture,
measurement of organizational effectiveness of schools and to explore their relationship. The conclusions of the study indicated that adaptive culture and constructive culture were the most common culture styles of secondary school, which indicated that organizational culture of secondary schools, is quite congenial. The results showed that attributional and situational factors in adaptive and unadaptive culture schools had almost no influence on their effectiveness. Furthermore, the results indicated that schools having adaptive and unadaptive cultures differ significantly in their mean effectiveness, with adaptive culture to have better mean effectiveness score. Likewise the secondary schools having constructive culture style, passive/ defensive style and aggressive/ defensive styles significantly differ on their mean effectiveness score, with constructive culture style to be the most effective. Results of the study further showed that all the twelve culture styles: humanistic-encouraging culture style, affiliative culture style, approval culture style, conventional culture style, dependant culture style, avoidance culture style, oppositional culture style, power culture style, competitive culture style, perfectionist culture style, achievement culture style and self-actualizing culture style, differ significantly on mean effectiveness score, with humanistic-encouraging style, affiliative culture style, self-actualizing culture style and achievement culture style schools to be more effective than others.

Bartell (2003) reported that the university environment is a rapidly changing and demanding operation, both externally and internally. Some major external or environmental components facing today’s universities include mass education, state funding reduction, distance learning and capital equipment cost. These components influence the effectiveness of academic programs, delivery systems and internal relationships. Because of the vast complexity of external factors, many university stakeholders (administrators, professors, etc.) are ineffective organizational operators.
Rapid external demands often require frequent adaptation and institutional change in order to implement strategies for increased productivity.

Sinha and Rai (2004) were concerned with the relationship between the transformational leadership of superiors and competencies of managers in banking organizations, and the role of self-control as a moderating variable of the relationship between competencies and performance, in the case of the service (banking) organizations which in particular were perceived to be functioning under a weak work culture. Leadership as it is and the Transformational Leadership in particular is considered as a key variable affecting performance in organizations by several contemporary researchers. While leadership has a direction-giving and coordinating role, the importance of certain characteristics of the subordinates cannot be undermined in making the leader's efforts succeed. The competency of the subordinates is one such variable. Further, the competencies of the role incumbents are likely to contribute to the performance. However, self-control i.e., the ability to keep emotions under control and to restrain negative actions when tempted, faced with opposition or hostility from others, or working under conditions of stress, is likely to enhance the positive impact of competencies on performance.

Lee and Yu (2004) investigated the relationship between corporate culture and performance in Singaporean firms and also demonstrated empirically that a set of replicable cultural dimensions exist across organizations, and suggested that culture can be measured with repeatable, easily administered instruments that permit systematic comparisons. Cultural Strength and innovation were found to be significantly correlated with the sum insured in insurance industry; supportiveness was found to be related to growth in net profits in manufacturing industry and team orientation and task
orientation were significantly correlated with staff turnover rates in hospitals. Some cultural dimensions were affected by industry membership while others were not.

Denison, Lief and Ward (2004) examined organizational culture in family and non-family firms and how it related to performance. It became increasingly clear that family business sustainability and accomplishment were rooted in something deeper, something beyond superficial explanation, and it was their ‘positive’ culture. Sirmon (2004) proposed a model of cultural differences and international alliance performance to explain the ambiguous findings regarding the influence of national cultural differences on alliance performance.

Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) studied the perceptions of organizational culture, leadership effectiveness and personal effectiveness across six countries. They described perceptions of facets of organizational culture related to leadership and personal effectiveness, and examined them using archival data from Canada, Hong Kong, New Zealand, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Organizational culture was strongly perceived as being related to both leadership effectiveness (explaining 40% of the variance) and personal effectiveness (24% of the variance). Aspects of organizational culture that promote employee fulfillment and satisfaction were uniformly viewed as positively related to leadership and personal effectiveness. The perceived relationship across samples was stronger between organizational culture and leadership effectiveness than between organizational culture and personal effectiveness.

According to O’Connell, McNeely and Hall (2008) adaptability is a key competency for career success. Individual adaptability is associated with the accrual of human
capital, the organization of the work environment, and the characteristics of individuals. A number of factors are particularly strongly related to personal adaptability: gender, employability, education and management support. By understanding the variety of factors that are intrinsic to individuals, those that can be developed within individuals, and work environment design, it seems possible to foster the development of personal adaptability in the workplace.

Basically, organizational culture is the personality of the organization, and will drive the employees’ productivity and company performance levels. Culture is comprised of the assumptions, values, norms and tangible signs (artifacts) of organization members and their behaviors, and leadership (Kefela, 2010).

Lim (2011) explored the positive organizational cultures that have been linked to increased staff alignment, resulting in enhanced organizational effectiveness, heightened consensus regarding strategic direction, increased employee productivity, and advanced levels of employee commitment. Only when a critical mass of their employees has taken ownership and responsibilities for the needed changes, can an organization assure a competitive advantage in today's challenging marketplace.

Reena and Jayan (2012) designed to investigate the impact of Organizational Culture on Personal Effectiveness. Moreover this study could shed light on the level of influence of organizational culture on the educational sector consisting of the engineering college teachers of Kerala. A simple random sampling method was used and about 390 sample responses were collected. Organizational Culture Inventory and Personal Effectiveness Inventory were administered to the respondents. Data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics and One-way ANOVA, to test the formulated hypothesis and the significance and reliability of the findings. Results revealed that
Organizational Culture had a significant impact on Personal effectiveness and its dimensions like Personal Focus, Personal growth, Team effectiveness, Customer focus, Relationships and Personal adaptability. Employees with a higher organizational culture significantly scored higher personal effectiveness than employees with moderate and low organizational cultures. Generally speaking, a higher level of organizational culture leads to a higher level of personal effectiveness.

Hence this review of literature proves that an enlightened organizational culture is bound to have almost a miraculous effect on personal effectiveness, growth, and well-being. Happy people are always more productive and effective than disgruntled minds.

QUALITY OF WORKLIFE AND JOB ATTITUDE

Quality of work life is a comprehensive program designated to improve the employees' satisfaction. It is a way of thinking about people, work and organization and creates a sense of fulfillment in the minds of the employees and contributes toward greater job satisfaction, improved productivity, adaptability and the overall effectiveness of an organization.

Kleinfeld and McDiarmid (1986) studied the Job Satisfaction of Alaska's Isolated Rural Teachers with their work life. This study examined the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among 304 teachers randomly selected from small isolated schools in rural Alaska. These teachers were highly satisfied about their relationship with students and their pay benefits. Large numbers of teachers were dissatisfied, however, with community amenities, their students' academic progress, and especially school district management. The conclusions of the study stated that Alaska's rural teachers...
expressed satisfaction with their pay and benefits and discontent with the hardships of living in isolated native villages without sufficient amenities.

High union responses are required in the QWL program like job redesign, upward communication, team based-work configurations and quality circles which will improve employee satisfaction and commitment. Union goals for employees include job security, dignity on the job, a safe and healthy work environment while union organizational goals include strengthening membership identification with the union, building solidarity, and developing organizational cohesiveness. Emphasis must be laid on labor education program for unions and union members on issues surrounding workers’ participation program in order to create a meaningful QWL (Ellinger & Nissen, 1987). Bernadin (2007) has also reported that Labor-management relationship plays an important role in enriching QWL.

Baba and Jamal (1991) listed what they described as typical indicators of quality of working life, including: job satisfaction, job involvement, work role ambiguity, work role conflict, work role overload, job stress, organizational commitment and turn-over intentions. They also explored reutilization of job content, suggesting that this facet should be investigated as part of the concept of quality of working life.

Igbaria, Parasuraman and Badawy (1994) assessed the job involvement of 464 professionals and managers in the Information Systems (IS) field and investigated the role of involvement in influencing the quality of work life. Results showed significant variations in the level of job involvement displayed by IS employees and differential patterns of their relationships with low, moderate, and high levels of job involvement. The findings indicated that involvement serves a complex moderator role in the pattern of relationships of work experiences, and of job characteristics with career expectations.
and career outcomes. It has both linear and non-linear relationships with several of the study variables. While in some cases, high levels of job involvement tend to enhance the beneficial effects of work experiences on the quality of work life; in others such involvement tends to heighten the negative effects of role stressors.

Heskett, Sasser and Schlesinger (1997) proposed that QWL, which is measured by the feelings that employees have toward their jobs, colleagues and companies, would ignite a chain effect leading to an organization’s growth and profitability in the end.

According to Danna & Griffin (1999) Quality of Working Life is not a unitary concept, but is to be seen as incorporating a hierarchy of perspectives that not only include work-based factors such as job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay and relationships with work colleagues, but also factors that broadly reflect life satisfaction and general feelings of well-being. They viewed QWL as a hierarchy of concepts that includes life satisfaction (top of the hierarchy), job satisfaction (middle of the hierarchy) and work specific facet satisfaction such as satisfaction with pay, co-workers and supervisor.

Quality of Working Life differs from job satisfaction in that job satisfaction is construed as one of the many outcomes of Quality of Working Life (Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel & Lee, 2001). Quality of Working Life does not only affect job satisfaction but also satisfaction in other life domains such as family life, leisure life, social life, financial life and so on. Therefore the focus of QWL is beyond job satisfaction. The study involved the effect of the workplace on satisfaction with the job, satisfaction in non-work life domains and satisfaction with overall life, personal happiness and subjective well-being. Furthermore, VanDerDoef and Maes (1999) regarded job satisfaction as an outcome variable of Quality of Working Life. Brooks and Gawel (2001) distinguished between job satisfaction and QWL by stating that conventional
job satisfaction research focused on the employees’ likes and dislikes, and found the
solution to problems as something for management to “fix”. Quality of Working Life
research, on the other hand, focuses on the provision of opportunities for employees to
make meaningful contributions to their organizations. According to Kerce and Booth-
Kewley (1993), Job satisfaction is a simple way of conceptualizing Quality of Work
Life. It does not by itself reflect the impact of the work environment on the employees.
While survey-based research on job satisfaction has found that workers are generally
satisfied with their jobs, researchers using the case study have frequently found that
workers are angry, unhappy, and bored.

Carr, Schmidt, Ford and Deshon (2003) in their study used Ostroff’s (1993) taxonomy
to organize dimensions labeled as workplace climate and then used meta-analytic
techniques to test a path analytic model. The results suggested that there are 3 higher
order facets of climate (affective, cognitive, and instrumental) that affect individual
level outcomes of job performance, psychological well-being and withdrawal through
their impact on organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Nagalakshmi (2006) did a project on “Employee Attitude towards the Organization in
Lakshmi Machine Works Limited” and suggested that the Management/HR department
should change the procedures and approaches to improve the employees’ positive
attitude towards them by participation from them. Attitudes change from person to
person. In an organization, the functions and procedures followed by the management/
HR department should be accepted and negative attitudes, if any, must be identified at
an earlier stage. Relationship of the employees with the HR department may be
enhanced to reduce negative attitude among the employees in general, which will lead
to prosperity of the company through profits and that of the employees through enhanced quality of work life.

The relationship of job satisfaction with work life quality is another aspect of working life that is often investigated by researchers. Job satisfaction is one of the central variables in work and is seen as an important indicator of working life quality (Aryee, Fields & Luk, 1999; Cohen, Kinnevy & Dichter, 2007).

Chan, Wai, Wyatt, and Thomas (2007) examined Quality of Work Life (QWL) in China in terms of how their work lives satisfy eight basic needs of employees and how the satisfaction of each individual need in their work life affects their job satisfaction, affective commitment, turnover intention, life satisfaction and general well-being. A total of 319 responses to a questionnaire were collected from eight organizations in Shanghai, China. Based on the need satisfaction theory and spillover theory in the QWL literature, hypotheses were derived and tested. Results confirmed the hypotheses regarding the relationship between perceived QWL and all the dependent variables. Multiple regression analyses confirmed the levels of satisfaction of six different individual needs as significant predictors of the five dependent variables. According to the study, esteem need satisfaction is the most important for life satisfaction and turnover intention while four needs (esteem, actualization, economics and family, and health and safety) predict general well-being. Knowledge and health and safety need predict affective commitment. Three needs (economics and family, health and safety, and knowledge) are important for job satisfaction. Being recognized and appreciated for one’s work is found to be a strong predictor of how employees feel.

Huang, Lawler, and Lei (2007) examined the impact of quality of work life on auditors' career and organizational commitment in Taiwanese public accounting firms,
and how those commitments, in turn, affect turnover intention. They indicated that different dimensions of QWL result in distinctive effects on organizational and career commitments and turnover intentions.

Need satisfaction (or QWL) is positively related to organizational identification, job satisfaction, job involvement, job effort, job performance and negatively related to personal alienation (Efraty & Sirgy, 2008). Lee, Singhapakdi and Sirgy (2008) conceptualized the QWL construct in terms of employee satisfaction with two sets of major needs: lower- and higher-order needs. Lower-order needs comprise health/safety needs and economic/family needs. Higher-order needs involve social needs, esteem needs, self-actualization needs, knowledge needs, and aesthetic needs. The results from a survey of marketing professionals largely supported the construct validity and predictive validity of the QWL measure. As expected, QWL has a positive influence on esprit de corps, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment among marketing managers.

Saad, Juhdi and Samah (2008) examined the employees’ perception of their work-life quality in the International Islamic University of Malaysia. Two fifty one employees in the university participated in this study. Ten variables to measure Quality Work Life (QWL) were examined, namely support from organization, work-family conflict, relationship with peers, self competence, impact on job, meaningfulness of job, optimism on organizational change, autonomy, access to resources and time control. All these variables were tested for relationship with job satisfaction. The test indicated that each of the QWL variables on its own is a salient predictor of Job Satisfaction. However, 7 QWL variables are no longer significant predictors for job satisfaction when all the 10 QWL variables are entered into the regression equation. Using multiple
linear regressions, only 3 QWL variables (meaningfulness of job, optimism on organizational change and autonomy) are significantly related to Job Satisfaction.

Pandit, Nirali, Pant and Rashmi (2010) studied the factors affecting the quality of work life of nurses in private and government hospitals of Gujarat and the impact of quality of work life (working conditions) on individual job satisfaction level. A comparative study of the quality of work life of nurses prevailing in a private and a government hospital of Gujarat was also undertaken. The findings throw light on some new quality of work life factors that play a significant role in determining work-life balance of nurses in these hospitals and have a positive effect on their individual job satisfaction. Moreover, comparison of private and public hospitals shows that the difference in job satisfaction levels among hospitals is also related to the extent to which work-life enhancing facilities are provided by a hospital.

Daud (2010) investigated the relationship between quality of work life and organizational commitment amongst the employees in Malaysian firms, and the results showed that there was a relationship between QWL and organizational commitment.

Tamini, Yazdany and Boyd (2011) studied the relationship of quality of work life with organizational commitment and job burnout between government and private bank employees in Zahedan city. The sample size consisted of 216 employees (108 government bank employees and 108 private bank employees) who were selected through accessible sampling method. Quality of work life, organizational commitment and job burnout scales were applied to collect the data. The results of Pearson correlation revealed that quality of work life had significant positive correlation with affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, overall scores of organizational commitment and personal accomplishment but quality of work
life had significant negative correlation with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The results of multiple regression showed that continuance commitment and depersonalization together explained 68.8% of the variance in quality of work life in government bank employees. Organizational commitment was a significant positive predictor for quality of work life while depersonalization was a significant negative predictor for quality of work life in government bank employees. Moreover, results demonstrated that continuance commitment explained 73.9% of the variance in quality of work life in private bank employees and it was a significant positive predictor for quality of work life.

From the review of literature it is clear that QWL enhances the working life experiences of organizational members, thereby improving the job attitude and motivation for achieving organizational goals. QWL basically is all about employee involvement, which consists of methods to motivate employees to participate in decision making. This helps in building good relationships and in enhancing the employees’ psychological outlook.

**QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

Quality of work life is seen as the extent to which workers are able to satisfy important personal needs through their experiences within the organization, not only in terms of material matters, but also in terms of self-respect, contentment, an opportunity to use their talents, make a contribution and a chance for personal growth (Dessler, 1981).

QWL is a set of methods, approaches or technologies which improve the work environment in order to make it more productive and satisfying (Nadler & Lawler, 1983). Here QWL refers to methods which attempt to serve both individual needs and
organizational effectiveness and is considered in the light of specific changes and methods that could be instituted in companies to enhance employee identification and a sense of belonging and a feeling of pride in their work.

Jensen and Fagen (1997), making a present day approach to the quality of work life, advocated that work should be made more meaningful, that employees need to develop personal skills, that they should participate in the management process and that the control for any system should be voluntary rather than mandatory.

Employees who enjoy their work and feel happy make a very positive judgment about their quality of work life. This enjoyment and/or happiness, is the outcome of cognitive and affective evaluations of the flow experience (Diener, 2000). When employees are intrinsically motivated, they will continuously be interested in the work they are involved in, therefore being fascinated by the tasks they perform.

Men and women should be able to experience work and personal lives, not in conflict or as separate, but as integrated. To foster this integrated perception, it is important to view work and personal life as interdependent, equally valued activities (Bailyn, Drago & Kochan, 2001). Jackson and Van der Wielen (2002) have attempted to integrate work and personal life by examining home and personal lives to see how work can be blended into them. Their research examines work/life in diverse ways including integration, redefining home to integrate work, and breaking up or changing the workday to take time for personal activities.

During the last decades there has been a tendency to focus research on QWL more from the perspective of the employees and the fulfillment of their needs. Therefore QWL
must be considered in light of the whole person if one is to understand and impact the QWL for an individual (Kotze, 2005).

QWL efforts are systematic efforts by organizations to give workers a greater opportunity to affect the way they do their jobs and the contributions they make to the organization’s overall effectiveness (Rao, 2011). Quality of work life also aims at narrowing down the gap between professional and personal life of the employers and workers. So, Quality of work life is an area that has gained much attention from researchers and management experts all over the world. An organizational culture or quality of work-life exists in all companies. The work-life balance must be maintained effectively to ensure that all employees are running at their peak potential and free from stress and strain. A happy and healthy employee will give better turnover, make good decisions and positively contribute to the organizational goal. An assured good quality of work life will not only attract young and new talent but also retain the existing experienced talent.

**JOB ATTITUDE AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

The development of any organization depends mainly on the level of satisfaction of the employees which may enhance their job attitude and personal efficacy.

Locke’s value theory offers an important perspective on job satisfaction (Locke, 1969), since it links a belief/value system to the experience of, and commitment to, attaining job satisfaction. When people perceive and experience what they are doing as fulfilling, their commitment and productivity increase. This, according to Locke, constitutes job satisfaction.
Rao (1989) claimed that ‘the quality or effectiveness of teachers is associated with their satisfaction with their profession, and their satisfaction with their values. Fontana (1986) stated that ‘if a teacher is too rigid or has a doctrinaire belief that his methods are right and those of any one who disagrees with him are wrong, then he will be depriving his students of a range of possible learning experiences, to their disadvantage and to his own'. Thus, it is clear that an effective and competent teacher will achieve the desired learning outcomes, provided he is satisfied with his profession.

The link between job satisfaction and job performance has a long and controversial history. Researchers were first made aware of the link between satisfaction and performance through the Hawthorne studies (Naidu, 1996). Since the Hawthorne studies, numerous researchers have critically examined the idea that "a happy worker is a productive worker". Research results of Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) have found a weak connection, approximately 0.17, between job satisfaction and job performance. On the other hand, research conducted by Organ (1988) discovered that a stronger connection between performance and satisfaction was not found because of the narrow definition of job performance. He believed that when the definition of job performance includes behaviors such as organizational citizenship (the extent to which one's voluntary support contributes to the success of an organization) the relationship between satisfaction and performance will improve. Judge, Thoreson, Bono and Patton (2001) discovered that after correcting the sampling and measurement errors of 301 studies, the correlation between job satisfaction and job performance increased to 0.30. It is important to note that the connection between job satisfaction and job performance is higher for difficult jobs than for less difficult jobs (Saari & Judge, 2004).
A number of researchers have linked satisfaction with personal effectiveness and stated that for some role incumbents, intrinsic needs may be more important than extrinsic needs and job satisfaction results when organizations provide their employees with specific outcomes that they value, expect to receive and consider equitable (Cox, 2003; Kanungo, 1986).

Naik (1990) found that ad hoc teaching assistants of the M.S. University, Baroda, were satisfied with their jobs mainly because of their favorable attitude towards the teaching profession, financial consideration and the facilities which they were getting for further studies; marital status, age, experience and gender did not affect their level of job satisfaction; leadership qualities of heads of institutions promoted job satisfaction, and group goals and objectives were essential parameters in determining the job satisfaction of teachers. Sex, experience and background variables had no bearing on job satisfaction.

Das and Mital (1994) investigated the moderating effects of production feedback and standard, singly or jointly, on the relationship between worker satisfaction and productivity. Results indicated no substantial correlation between worker satisfaction and productivity.

The study conducted by McCormick (2000) is a notable one. The study was conducted to examine the relationship between the three Job attitudes and ‘career adaptability’ among employed members of the library and information science profession from Virginia and Maryland. The study employed a demographic survey developed for the purpose. Career adaptability was observed to have statistically significant relationship with satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with the job in general and organizational commitment.

Suryanarayana and Luciana (2010) explored teaching competency and teacher job satisfaction among secondary school teachers. According to them the teaching-learning process cannot be undertaken in a vacuum; it is a positively directed action, for which teachers are to be endowed with teaching competency.

Chu, Cheng- Hsu and Yao-Feng (2011) investigated the work status of contract versus full-time nurses at a public hospital in Taiwan and examined the impact of status on work-related attitudes, organizational citizenship behavior, and job performance. Study findings included the following: (a) organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and job performance correlate positively with one another; (b) no significant difference between contract and full-time nurses was found in terms of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior and self-rated job performance; (c) organizational citizenship behavior exhibited a mediating effect between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance. Conclusion of the study was that supervisors gave higher job performance ratings to full-time nurses than to contract nurses.
The reviews reveal that the success of every organization depends on the employees’ job attitude and resultant performance. A person with a high level of job attitude holds positive and happy feelings about the job. Effective organizations are made up of people who have the requisite knowledge, skills, right mindset and attitudes.

**ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, QUALITY OF WORKLIFE AND JOB ATTITUDE**

If organizations are setting up policies for maintaining a work-life balance, they are going in for innovative methods to keep their employees happy and satisfied. Such conditions are likely to affect not only their physical but also their psychological and social well-being. QWL enhances the working life experiences of organizational members, thereby improving commitment and motivation for achieving organizational goals. An organization’s culture also determines the way in which employees are rewarded. Management tends to focus on a dominant source of motivation, such as pay, status, or opportunity for personal growth and achievement.

Mentz (2001) conducted a study to determine the Quality of Work life of teachers on farm schools in South Africa. The sample consisted of 60 teachers in 15 farm schools. Findings indicated that teachers in rural schools were generally satisfied with circumstances and enjoyed teaching; they were satisfied with classroom size, physical facilities and teacher student relations.

A study conducted in Malaysia by Rose, Beh, Uli and Idris (2006) concluded that the most important predictor of QWL is organizational climate, followed by career achievement, career satisfaction and career balance. Some of the elements that are relevant in determining an individual’s quality of work life would include the task, the physical work environment, social environment within the organization, administrative
system and relationship between life on and off the job. The sample consisted of 475 executives from the electrical and electronics industry in the free trade zones in Malaysia for both the multinational corporations (MNCs) and the small-medium industries (SMIs). The selection of respondents using stratified random sampling technique involved a complete list of industrial firms registered with Malaysian Industrial Development Authority (MIDA). Three exogenous variables were studied. The result indicated that the three exogenous variables are significant: career satisfaction, career achievement and career balance with 63% of the variance in QWL. The respondents appeared to be satisfied in respect to the level of QWL (49.5%), career achievement (70.3%), career satisfaction (63.8%), but less so for career balance (36.6%). These findings contributed to an understanding of ways by top management in attempts to attain a career fit between the needs of the employees and the needs of the organization.

Van den Berg and Martin (2011) determined the relationship between organizational trust and quality of work life. Two hundred sales representatives in four regions, of a marketing company participated in the electronic survey. The results of the analysis confirmed a positive relationship between the managerial practices and organizational trust, and a weaker relationship between the personality constructs and organizational trust. Dissatisfaction with working life is a problem, affecting almost all employees during their working career, regardless of position or status. Although many managers seek to reduce job dissatisfaction at all organizational levels, including their own, they sometimes find it difficult to isolate and identify all of the attributes, which affect and influence the quality of working life. Some researchers have proclaimed that the success of quality of work life program will depend on the ability of the organization
to reinforce high levels of trust. Quality of work life is assumed to affect various organizational factors such as job effort and performance, organizational identification, job satisfaction and job involvement.

Reena and Jayan (2012) investigated Organizational culture and Quality of work life as the predictors of Job attitude of the engineering college teachers of Kerala. The participants were 457 engineering college teachers. The analysis was designed to specifically examine the relative contribution of each of the independent variables to the dependent variable through step-wise regression analysis. Stepwise regression analysis showed that $R^2$ increased from 0.263 to 0.400 with addition of each of the six variables that contributed significantly to the predictors of Job attitude. From the final regression equation it could be seen that the different predictor variables Well-being, Work and life balance, Relationship with co-workers and authorities, Job security Organizational Glue and Organizational Leadership were positive indicators of the Job attitude of the individual, although there was a theoretical significance in showing that each variable in itself had a significant impact on Job attitude.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Most of the organizations are interested in enhancing their employees’ QWL and generally try to instill the feeling of security, equality, pride and prestige among its employees. For this purpose procedures and policies are framed to make the work less routine and more rewarding for the employees. These procedures or policies provide autonomy, recognition, good working conditions and conferring awards in appreciation of work done. According to Balu (2001), Quality of Work Life encompasses various aspects relating to (1) Working Environment and (2) Employee Motivation.
Chouhan (2011) throws light on organizational culture and its impact on engineering and management education of Rajasthan. He analyzed the importance of healthy organizational culture, improvement of employees and organizational affectivity and efficiency. He also proposed various ways of building an innovative organizational culture and stressed the importance of quality of work life. This study can help organizations to pay more attention and be more focused to maintain a good organizational culture. In the contemporary world it is important to create a climate that frees the best in the people.

Young, Young-Hee and Ruggiero (2011) investigated correlates and predictors of organizational effectiveness, focusing on organizational culture and quality of work life in Korean University Hospitals. Convenience sample of 145 nurses responded to a self-administered questionnaire. They claimed that there were significant correlations between organizational culture, quality of work life, and organizational effectiveness. R square was 44.7% in the hierarchical multiple regression model, explaining and predicting organizational effectiveness. They concluded that intact organizational culture and quality of work life for nurses will undoubtedly lead to improved organizational effectiveness. Without efficient and effective nursing care, desired patient outcomes cannot be achieved.

Reena and Jayan (2011) reviewed the existing literature on the relationship between organizational culture and the quality of work life (QWL) and how it encourages the employees to find meaning and purpose in their life. This paper further argues that certain organizational cultural attributes add to the shaping of the behavior, productivity, and personal effectiveness. Basically, organizational culture is the
personality of the organization, and it transforms the employees’ attitudes, performance
and well-being.

**ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, JOB ATTITUDE AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

A growing organization cannot neglect its human side. Employees are the real fortune
makers who make the organization a strong and growing unit. It becomes necessary for
management to nurture the spirit of oneness and to develop an organizational entity

Effective organizations empower their people, build their organizations around teams
and develop human capability at all levels (Becker, 1964; Lawler, 1996; Likert, 1961).
Executives, managers, and employees are committed to their work and feel that they
own a piece of the organization. People at all levels feel that they have at least some
input into decisions that will affect their work and that their work is directly connected
to the goals of the organization (Spreitzer, 1995).

Kumar (2011) examined the moderating effects of organizational culture in the
relationship between P-O fit and work attitudes such as job satisfaction, and
organizational commitment in the national culture context. Results from a sample of
173 managerial-level employees from 7 organizations in India suggest that
organizational culture either strengthens or weakens the positive relationship between
P-O fit and work attitudes depending upon its alignment with national culture. In the
Indian cultural context, it is found that people and control-oriented organizational
cultures that are isomorphic with national culture weaken the relationship between P-O
fit and work attitudes. Whereas creation and market-oriented cultures that are non
isomorphic with Indian national culture strengthen the positive relationship between
Person-organization fit and work attitudes. Results of this study have implications in employee selection, socialization and organizational culture management.

Shahzad et al. (2012) found that organizational culture has deep impact on the variety of organizations process, employees and its performance. They also described the different dimensions of the culture. Their research showed that if employee are committed and having the same norms and value as per organizations have, can increase the performance toward achieving the overall organization goals.

QUALITY OF WORK LIFE, JOB ATTITUDE AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

For an organization, job satisfaction of its workers means a work force that is motivated and committed to high quality performance. Increased productivity—the quantity and quality of output per hour worked—seems to be a byproduct of improved quality of working life.

Love and Singer (1988) examined possible differences between male and female police officers in occupational self- efficacy, psychological well-being, general and specific job satisfaction as well as job involvement. Altogether 103 male and 75 female officers responded to a battery of questionnaires designed to measure the dependent variables. The results showed that compared to their male counterparts, female police officers had lower self- efficacy ratings in police duties dealing with violent offenders and riot situations. No gender differences were found in any of the other measures of psychological well-being, general and specific job satisfaction as well as job involvement.
A study was designed by Hossain and Islam (1999) with a view to investigating the overall Quality of Working Life, job satisfaction and performance of the Govt. hospital nurses in Bangladesh. Significant correlation was found between Quality of Work Life and job satisfaction. Quality of Work Life had the highest contribution to performance. Morning shift nurses perceived higher Quality of Work Life and job satisfaction than the night shift nurses.

In an attempt to establish an inevitable linkage between the Quality of Work Life and the industrial relations processes, Mankidy (2000) observed that the more positive the Industrial relations processes, the greater the possibility of improved Quality of Work Life. Positive Industrial Relations should ensure better wages, flexible hours of work, good work environment, employment benefits, career prospects, job satisfaction, meaningful employee involvement and decision-making, leading to better Quality of Work Life. The study concluded that the improved Quality of Work Life would naturally help to improve the family life of the employees and would also improve the performance of the organization.

Reena and Jayan (2012) examined the role of Quality of Work Life (QWL) on Job attitude and Personal Effectiveness. The Quality of Work Life facilitates the employees’ job satisfaction, performance and personal effectiveness. A better Quality of Work Life improves the well-being of the employees as well as the organization’s growth. The sample consisted of 457 engineering college teachers in Kerala. From Karl Pearson’s coefficient of correlation it was evident that there exists a high positive correlation between the variables of Quality of work-life, Job attitude and Personal effectiveness. And all the variables have a high positive correlation with one another and thus relatively depend on each other. The results also indicated that the high levels
of quality of work life groups have significantly higher scores in the personal effectiveness dimensions of Personal Focus, Personal growth, Team effectiveness, Relationships, and Personal adaptability than the moderate and low quality of work life groups.

**ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, QUALITY OF WORK LIFE, JOB ATTITUDE AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

Culture is the critical foundation which shapes the employees’ behavior and the quality of their work life. Effective organizations empower and engage their employees and develop human effectiveness at all levels. The fast changing organizational scenario and a more and more competitive behavior are sending strong signals for enhancing quality of work life, productivity and performance. Quality of Work Life is a common concern, not only to improve life at work, but also life outside work. Quality of Work Life denotes the experienced “goodness” of working in the organizational settings.

Recognition of employees’ performance increases their morale and stimulates an urge to excel at the work place, spreading cheer to the families and enhancing their social status. Photographs of good performers displayed at felicitation functions, publicity in house journals, letters of appreciation - all these increase the morale of the individual and team efforts to boost the quality of work.

Research findings suggest that job satisfaction is not a static state but is subject to influence and modification from forces within and outside an individual i.e. his personal characteristics and the immediate working environment (Baran, 1986).

Etuk (1989) successfully investigated the job satisfaction of the junior library staff of the University of Calabar, Nigeria. The study aimed to examine the factors that
influence the work attitude of the junior staff of the library. Data was gathered by a questionnaire from 30 selected samples from the staff. The major factors taken into account for investigating their job satisfaction were job security, pay, extent of fairness of the management, working conditions, making use of individual talent, participation in decision-making, recognition and praise one gets from one’s boss etc. The analysis of the data revealed that most of the members of the junior staff were not satisfied with their pay, working condition, facilities to improve their talents etc. It suggested improved interactions between the subordinates and supervisors, and involvement of junior staff in planning and decision-making.

Lau, Wong, Chan and Law (2001) defined QWL as the favorable working environment that supports and promotes satisfaction by providing employees with rewards, job security and career growth opportunities. Indirectly the definition indicates that an individual who is not satisfied with reward, may yet be satisfied with job security and to some extent would create the career opportunity provided by the organization for his personal as well as his professional growth.

Sharma (2005) studied the job satisfaction of the physical education teachers working in Himachal Pradesh schools. He compared the job satisfaction of three groups of physical education teachers having good, average and poor sports facilities with respect to the following factors: work conditions, salary, security, promotional policies, institutional plan and policies, authority, their competence and functioning. The random sample of 210 high school physical education teachers from all the districts of Himachal Pradesh was collected. The tools were used to collect data like ‘Job Satisfaction’ Questionnaire (English) and a check-list was prepared according to seventh five year plan national sport policy. The statistical technique chi-square was
used for the analysis of the data. Findings showed that the majority of the teachers were satisfied with their job according to the job satisfaction components. They were satisfied with their work, work condition, salary, security, promotional policies, institutional plan and policies, relationship with their co-workers, functioning of authorities (head) and their competence.

According to Chouhan (2011) organizational culture is the major player that influences the working style and art of employees. Work culture in some organizations plays the role of mentor or creator but in some others it plays the role of destroyer. Work culture has a significant influence on the attitudes, behaviors and values of the organizational members. In the contemporary world every organization is trying to provide the finest work culture to enrich the work life as well as the quality life of the employees.

This review of literature indicates that Culture helps the organization to accomplish what it desires to achieve. The corporate culture as a management program has great inspirational force to motivate employees to improve their own and organizational performance. No organization can succeed for long if it has not understood its intellectual climate and its employees’ attitudes. To enhance personal effectiveness in the work place, people need to have a high self-esteem, motivation and drive to fulfill their personal aspirations, and realize their full potential and career goals. It is important to learn to assess one’s personal strengths and weaknesses; and adopt a proper set of values and work attitudes to support the organization’s mission and goals. ‘Attitude determines altitude’, as the organizational maxim does well suggest. QWL can produce a favorable work environment which is beneficial for developing and maintaining good mental health and personal effectiveness. Personal effectiveness
cannot be forced on another. Rather, it is brought about by individuals who transform themselves and become the catalysts for individual and institutional changes. It is the role which we set to the society and to the next generation.

**HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY**

To examine the relationships between Organizational culture, Quality of work life, Job attitude and Personal effectiveness and its variables, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses will be tested.

1. There will be significant relationships between the variables of Organizational culture, Quality of work life, Job attitude and Personal effectiveness.

1.1. There will be significant interrelation between dimensions of Organizational culture.

1.2. There will be significant interrelation between dimensions of Quality of work-life.

1.3. There will be significant interrelation between dimensions of Job attitude.

1.4. There will be significant interrelation between dimensions of Personal effectiveness.

1.5. There will be significant relation between Organizational culture and Quality of work life.

1.6. There will be significant relation between Organizational culture and Job attitude.

1.7. There will be significant relation between Organizational culture and Personal effectiveness.

1.8. There will be significant relation between Quality of work life and Job attitude.
1.9. There will be significant relation between Quality of work life and Personal effectiveness.

1.10. There will be significant relation between Job attitude and Personal effectiveness.

To examine the predictor relationships between Organizational culture, Quality of work life, Job attitude and Personal effectiveness and its variables, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses will be tested.

2. There will be significant predictor relationships between Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Job attitude on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

2.1 Variables of Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Job attitude shall be used to predict Personal effectiveness.

2.2 Variables of Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Job attitude shall be used to predict Personal focus.

2.3 Variables of Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Job attitude shall be used to predict Personal growth.

2.4 Variables of Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Job attitude shall be used to predict Team effectiveness.

2.5 Variables of Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Job attitude shall be used to predict Relationships.

2.6 Variables of Organizational culture, Quality of work life and Job attitude shall be used to predict Personal adaptability.
To examine the interactions between the classificatory factors of Organizational culture and Job attitude on Personal effectiveness and its variables, the following hypothesis will be tested.

3. There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Organizational culture (Low, moderate, high) and Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

To examine the interactions between the classificatory factors of Quality of work life and Job attitude on Personal effectiveness and its variables, the following hypothesis will be tested.

4. There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Quality of work life (Low, moderate, high) and Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

To examine the interactions between the classificatory factors of Organizational culture, Job attitude and the classificatory factors of demographic / Job related variables (Qualification, Age, Sex, Marital status, Salary, Type of organization) on Personal effectiveness and its variables, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses will be tested.

5. There will be significant interactions between Organizational culture (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and the classificatory factors of demographic/Job related variables (Qualification, Age, Sex, Marital status, Salary, Type of organization) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.
5.1 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Organizational culture (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Qualification (B.Tech, M.Tech/M.Sc/M.C.A, Ph.D) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

5.2 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Organizational culture (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Age (20-29yrs, 30-39yrs and 40-65 years) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

5.3 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Organizational culture (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Sex (male/female) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

5.4 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Organizational culture (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Marital status (married/unmarried) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

5.5 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Organizational culture (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Salary (below 20000, 20000-30000, 30000-above) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

5.6. There will be significant interactions between Organizational culture, Job attitude and Type of organization (Central government Institutes, State government colleges, Aided colleges, Self-financing colleges) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

To examine the interactions between the classificatory factors of Quality of work life, Job attitude and the classificatory factors of demographic / Job related variables
(Qualification, Age, Sex, Marital status, Salary, Type of organizations) on Personal effectiveness and its variables, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses will be tested.

6. There will be significant interactions between Quality of work life (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and the classificatory factors of demographic / Job related variables (Qualification, Age, Sex, Marital status, Salary, Type of organization) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

6.1 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Quality of work life (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Qualification (B.Tech,M.Tech/M.Sc/M.C.A,Ph.D)on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

6.2 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Quality of work life (Low, moderate, high) and Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Age (20-29 years, 30-39 years, 40-65 years) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

6.3 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Quality of work life (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Sex (male/ female) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

6.4 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Quality of work life (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Marital status (married /unmarried) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

6.5 There will be significant interactions between the classificatory factors of Quality of work life (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Salary (below 20000, 20000-30000, 30000-above) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.
6.6 There will be significant interactions between Quality of work life (Low, moderate, high), Job attitude (Low, moderate, high) and Type of organization (Central government Institutes, State government colleges, Aided colleges, Self-financing colleges) on Personal effectiveness and its variables.

To examine the moderator effect of Organizational culture/ Quality of work life and Job attitude on Personal effectiveness, the following hypothesis will be tested.

7. Organizational culture/ Quality of work life shall be used to moderate Job attitude and Personal effectiveness.