INTRODUCTION

Fast changing world and face of various economies have generated a lot of complexities in the business environment. Stiff competition, innovation and research are the key factors that govern success in modern organization. ICT revolution has changed the face of various economies. The evolution of business from need based production to mass production further changed the boundaries and dimensions of business resulting into a global village from national or regional. The change and development also go side by side. For any effective and successful organization, there is a great need of job satisfaction, a congenial and healthy organizational climate and constructive behavioural aspects amongst workforce. The need is to create an equation between the context of an organization and the behaviour of its members.

Job satisfaction is acquiring an increasingly important role in modern society in which man spends most of his time at his job. Basically considered to have been undertaken for payment received in lieu of it, a job has lately been recognized as a source of intrinsic satisfaction to the incumbent. Job satisfaction is important to the employee as well as to the employer. Katz (1954) rightly remarked, "It is important to know the nature and degree of gratification and deprivation in job performance itself." Substantial evidence existed to show that job satisfaction is one of the job variables which to some degree effects the probability of resignation (Jurgenson,1947; Brayfield and Crockett ,1955; Herzberg et al ,1957; Ross and Zander ,1957; Vroom, 1964; Lawler and Porter, 1967; Hulin ,1968; Wild, 1970; Ronan, 1970) and absenteeism (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955; Vroom ,1964; Korman, 1971). This fact should make knowledge of job satisfaction a good tool for the employer to use in taking preventive action. Greater job satisfaction is likely to lead eventually to more effective functioning of the individual and the organization as a whole. In fact, working life is to be evaluated not simply in terms of the amount of goods turned out, the productive efficiency and the profit it brings, but also in terms of satisfaction that the participants derive from it.

Usually work is approached from three perspectives. All these are important for job satisfaction but one is often the priority. If a person approaches work as a job, he focuses primarily on the financial rewards. In fact, nature of the work may hold little interest for him. What’s important is the money. If a job with more pay comes his way, he will likely move on. If a person approaches work as a career, he is
interested in professional growth. He wants to climb the career ladder as far as possible or be among the most highly regarded professionals in his field. A person is motivated by the status, prestige and power that come with the job. If a person approaches job as a calling, he focuses on the work itself. He works less for the financial gain or career advancement than for fulfillment which the work brings.

All types of work are not inherently satisfying. People engaged in the work which is not satisfying in itself naturally look for satisfaction from sources external to it. But job satisfaction does promote happiness, success and efficiency in one’s professional activity. The satisfied worker is in general a more flexible and better adjusted who has the capacity to overcome the effect of an environment. He is more realistic about his own situation and goals. The worker dissatisfied with one’s job is in contrast often rigid, inflexible, unrealistic in his choice of goals, unable to overcome environmental obstacles and is generally unhappy and dissatisfied. If one has to be happy in his life, he must be satisfied and happy in his profession, in turn, he must choose it wisely. Prestige, power, salary, leisure and other features of a job are no doubt important. But these features become meaningful only to those who value them. The value given by an individual to a particular feature of a job is in turn determined by his personality, social and psychological background. This is implied in the proposition of Thompson (1947) that jobs differ in their attractiveness from person to person depending upon the need pattern or value system of the individual. Job satisfaction consists of total body of feeling about the nature of job promotion, nature of supervision etc. that an individual has about his job.

**IMPORTANCE OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction has been the centre of concentration for researchers over three decades. The reasons for such concentration are manifold:

1. **Job satisfaction affects the mental health**

   Dissatisfaction with one’s job may have especially volatile spillover effects on many other things such as family life, leisure activities etc. Many unresolved personality problems and maladjustments arise out of person’s inability to find satisfaction in his work. Both, the scientific study and casual observation, provides ample evidence that job satisfaction is important for the psychological adjustment and happy living of individual. A classic study by Kornhauser (1965) provided empirical
evidence for the relationship between job satisfaction and mental health. In fact, job satisfaction and life satisfaction are inextricable bound.

2. **Job satisfaction affects the physical health**

People who are satisfied with their job and life, are likely to live longer. The logic behind such result is that people with greater satisfaction tends to have greater income and more education and thus coincidently enjoying greater benefits, which promotes longevity. On the other side of the coin, it is contended that chronic dissatisfaction with work represented stress, which, in turn, eventually take its toll on the organization. Emotional stress, as physicians contend has been implicated as a contributory factor in the genesis of hypertension, coronary artery disease, digestive ailments and even some kinds of a cancer. Therefore, job satisfaction is essential to maintain physical health also.

3. **Spreads goodwill about the organization**

People who feel positive about their work life are more apt to voice ‘favourable sentiments’ about the organization to the community at large. When the goodwill of the company goes up, new qualified and dynamic entrants show their interest in joining the organization. The organization thus will be in a position to enjoy the talent of people as job satisfaction fosters a pervasive residue of public goodwill towards the organization.

4. **Job Satisfaction affects the stay with the organization**

A happy and satisfied individual can find it easy to live within the organization as well as outside it. On the contrary, a chronically upset individual makes organization’s life vexation for others with whom he interacts.

5. **Job Satisfaction reduces absenteeism and turnover**

The calculable costs-employee turnover and absenteeism are sufficient to accept the importance of job satisfaction. Higher job satisfaction reduces labour turnover and absenteeism, and the managers are compelled, if they are unconvinced about the merits of job satisfaction, to give priority, and adequate weightage to job satisfaction. A serious consequence of job dissatisfaction can be the employee turnover.

If the sum total of influence of these factors give arises to feelings of satisfaction, the individual has job satisfaction. Every profession has got certain aspects conducive for job satisfaction. At the same time it has other aspects that lead to dissatisfaction. Teaching profession is no exception. If it is possible to isolate the
factors of dissatisfaction, attempts can be made either to change the dissatisfying conditions or to reduce their intensity so as to increase the holding power of the profession.

ROLE AND IMPORTANCE OF TEACHER

Indian Education Commission (1966) described teacher as one of the most important factors contributing to the national development. He is the pivot around which all the educational programs, such as curriculum, syllabus, textbooks, evaluation, etc revolves. The best system of education may fail to achieve the desired ends in the absence of sincere, competent, professionally aware and dedicated teachers. National Policy on Education (1986) rightly stated, “No people can rise above the level of its teachers”. A teacher imbibes, interprets and disseminates the relevant items of culture and traditions of the past, he creates new knowledge, promotes innovations, critically appraises the past and its traditions and cultures, sifts the grain from the chafe, strengthens social and economic fabrics of the nation. Education is basically the influence which the teacher exerts on the students entrusted to his care. Effective teachers are required in the classroom because even the best curriculum and most perfect syllabus remain ineffective in the absence of a good teacher. Saiyidain (1950) made the role of teacher quite illustrative when he said that the teacher had to patiently cut, out of a crude and unshaped stone, a thing of beauty. His role, today, more than ever, has become exceedingly crucial in the national attempt to bring about several positive changes in the society, national progress and national integration. It is increasingly realized by all those who are concerned with education of children that the standard of education in schools and colleges has considerably fallen. In any scheme of improvement of the teaching and standards in schools and colleges, it is the teacher who has a key role to play. Unless and until, he is a fully competent person, greatly interested and involved in his work and does his job satisfactorily, all other efforts that are taken to effect any improvement in the field of teaching are bound to fail.

The Secondary Education Commission (1952) emphasized the importance of the teacher and his responsibilities. The commission was categorical about the need for improving his status, salary, service conditions, and about providing facilities for the pursuit of knowledge and performing his duties satisfactorily. In creative work like teaching, job satisfaction remains the ‘sine-qua-non’ and plays a very significant
role in attracting and retaining the right type of persons in the profession. Teachers shape the destiny of children. They have to play diverse roles, which they can only play, if they have desirable behaviour as well as satisfaction in life. According to Lavingia (1979), “A teacher who is happy with his life, finds satisfaction in his life and plays a pivotal role in the upliftment of the society”. Such a teacher can do justice to his work and is supposed to be an acclaimed and highly accepted personality among students as well as in the society.” Hence, only a friendly, enthusiastic, satisfied, secure and well-adjusted teacher can contribute to the well-being of his pupils. The teaching profession, according to Daniels (1973) inherently entailed certain well-known, self obvious and implicit obligations, commitments and expectations from its members. The society bestows its trust on all the professionals to rise to the demands of the profession. In order to perform his role of paramount and vital significance effectively, a teacher should be professionally aware of the professional demands and obligations placed on him by the profession as well as the society. Further, the role of teachers in influencing the future of our advancing national development is becoming increasingly important. Development of the country requires a high rate of production and fullest possible utilization of both human as well as material resources.

Now-a-days, there is, however, a general feeling that the teachers are not satisfied with their jobs. There seems to be growing discontentment towards their job as a result of which standard of education is falling. Teachers are dissatisfied in spite of different plans and programs, which have been implemented by the Government to improve their job satisfaction. Much has been said about the need for maintenance of equality of pay in professions requiring similar basic qualification and skills. Yet, it is unfortunate that the teachers are in no way comparable to others like doctors, lawyers, engineers, etc. the facilities, status and incentives in this profession are so low that many of the talented do not think of becoming teachers but seek positions elsewhere in the world of work. However, many are said to be taking up teaching profession as a career not because they are interested in it but because they are not able to get any better employment. It is opined many who have taken up teaching, repent over their choice and would be, too, willing to change their job in favour of some other lucrative ones, if any opportunities are available. A dissatisfied teacher is loss not to himself but also to the entire society and spells disaster to the country’s future. Dissatisfaction of the individuals, whatever may be the profession in which they are engaged, results
in professional stagnation and deterioration. It is just suicidal if it occurs in the teaching profession. Lack of public recognition of the teachers in this country is a very sore point. Teachers of today suffer from neglect, indifference and insecurity. A lot is always expected from the teacher, but with so little recognition and insufficient facilities. Under such circumstances, it is essential that the proper understanding concerning satisfaction emanating from the job be obtained

**JOB SATISFACTION: - CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Job satisfaction is a combination of two words, ‘Job’ and ‘Satisfaction’. The word ‘Job’ refers to the collection of tasks, duties and responsibilities which as a whole is regarded as the established assignments to an individual employee. It also includes occupational activity performed by an individual in return for a monetary reward while satisfaction is a word which is not easy to define. Satisfaction means the fulfillment of a need or desire. Others describe satisfaction as a complex of feelings, emotions and sensations. Satisfaction increases the efficiency and the work orientation of the employee. Satisfaction is an essential factor in any profession. Unless a person is satisfied with his job, it is very difficult for him to carry on his duty honestly and efficiently. Job satisfaction consists of liking the work in which involved and acceptance of pleasures and aspirations connected with that work.

The term ‘Job Satisfaction’, however, lacks adequate definition (Hertzberg *et al*, 1957) as well as a satisfactory theory about its meaning. The difference in a broad spectrum of views seems to be caused firstly by the varied nature of jobs that individuals perform; secondly, the attempts to conceptualize job satisfaction in a variety of ways by different disciplines like Psychology, Sociology, Education and Management etc., and finally, the variety of methods employed by various researchers to study job satisfaction. It is widely accepted as the psychological aspect of effective functioning in any profession. The credit of this thought goes to Hoppock (1935) who commented that there were many opinions about job satisfaction but there were few studies undertaken in this field. For him, Job satisfaction is a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say, “I am satisfied with my job”. Thus, Job Satisfaction is a favourableness with which employees view their work.

According to Bullock (1952), Gilmer (1966) and Schulz (1973), Job Satisfaction is an attitude which results from balance and summation of many specific
likes and dislikes experienced in connection with the job. This attitude manifests itself in an evaluation of the job and of the employing organization. Siegel (1962) pointed out those factors which psychologically satisfy the worker and which usually lie in the job but also quite often lie outside the job. He called such factors as intrinsic and extrinsic to the job. While noting differences in theoretical viewpoints on job satisfaction, Katzell (1964) remarks that the term has been used interchangeably with job morale, vocational satisfaction and job attitude by various authors, to describe almost the same thing (Kretch and Crutchfield, 1948; Pelz, 1951; Kahn and Morse, 1951; Mann, 1953; Herzberg et al, 1959; Ganguli, 1964). On the other hand, Hull and Kolstad (1942); Harrell (1964); Blum (1965); Blum and Naylor (1968) and Siegal (1969) are clearly of the view that job satisfaction and job morale are not the same thing and cannot be used interchangeably. Strong (1958) stated preference for using job satisfaction with reference to the individual and morale with reference to the group. Crites (1969) aptly distinguished between job attitude, job satisfaction, vocational satisfaction and morale. He observed, “If it is some specific aspect of the job, such as duties and tasks or working conditions, then the concept which is defined would be job attitude. If it is the overall job in which the individual is presently employed, then the concept would be job satisfaction. If it is the type of work in which the individual has gained experience in several jobs or has been trained, then the concept would be vocational satisfaction. And, if the referent includes the workgroup and/or employing organization, as well as job or vocational satisfaction, the concept would be morale.” Without placing much premium on the balancing of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, Blum (1965) and Blum and Naylor (1968) considered job satisfaction as a generalized attitude of the individual resulting from many attitudes in three areas, namely, specific job factors, individual characteristics and group relationship outside the job. Smith et al (1969) however, suggested that job satisfaction is the employee’s judgment of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs. He also indirectly refers to a fit between what the job demands from the job-doer in terms of his/her needs – material and non-material. Schultz (1973), too, referred to job satisfaction as a set of attitudes that employees have about their jobs and described it as the psychological disposition of people towards their jobs, that is, how they feel about the work. This involves a collection of numerous attitudes or feelings.
In a slightly different vein, Evans (1969) and Wanous and Lawler (1977) talk of overall satisfaction which, according to them, is the sum of job facet satisfaction across all facets of a job, namely, work, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision and co-workers. In terms of equation, this view reads as

\[
\text{Job satisfaction} = \frac{\text{Facets}}{\sum(JFS)}
\]

Wherein job satisfaction equals to overall job satisfaction and JFS stands for job facet satisfaction. Job satisfaction has also been conceptualized in terms of need fulfillment when summed across job facets because a particular kind of work provides ample opportunities to an individual to satisfy his physiological, social and psychological needs.

Schaffer (1953) explained that overall satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which the needs of an individual can be actually satisfied in a job. The stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfillment. Smith (1955) suggests that job satisfaction is the employee's judgment of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs.

Guion (1958) explained job satisfaction as the extent to which the individual’s needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives satisfaction as stemming from his total job situation. Satisfaction with one’s job, in turn, is a function of the degree of need satisfaction derived from or experienced in the job (Mc Cormich and Tiffin, 1965). Lofquist and Davis (1969) stated that job satisfaction is the individual’s assessment of the degree and fulfillment of the requirements by the work environment.

Explaining job satisfaction in terms of discrepancy scores, Ross and Zander (1957) and Morse (1953) defined job satisfaction as a function of the difference between the amount of work role and the strength of a related desire or motive.

Porter (1962) explained job satisfaction as the difference between responses to “How much is there now?” item and responses to “How much should be there?” item, when responses to these items are asked for in the context of job facets or needs. The difference between these two types of items is computed and the difference is summed across the job facets to yield a measure of job satisfaction. Putting it in a different way:

\[
\text{Job satisfaction} = \sum (\text{should be} - \text{is now})
\]
Lofquist and Davis (1969) also explained satisfaction in terms of discrepancy. According to them, satisfaction is defined in need fulfillment terms as a correspondence between the reinforcer's system of the work environment and the individual's needs. When operationalizing this definition, the subjects are asked to respond in terms of the difference between what they would like to receive and what they actually receive. Locke (1969) argued the use of a discrepancy equation and believed that satisfaction is the result of a comparison between fulfillment ("is now") and desires or ideals ("would like") and that only unfulfilled desires can cause dissatisfaction. In his studies, he sometimes used a "should be" item and at other times, asked to think in terms of an ideal standard or "would like" item.

It is important to distinguish between the "should be – is now" and the "would like–is now" approaches. These approaches suggest two comparisons which an individual can ask himself if his present job provides equitable outcomes (Adams, 1963, 1965; Homans, 1961; Patchen, 1961) for the inputs it require. This is an equity comparison and can be measured by the discrepancy between the "should be" and "is now" items. In the second comparison, an individual can ask himself if his present job comes close to his ideal job or desired job. This comparison can be measured in a discrepancy of importance rating as a weight between "would like" item and "is now" item. He, however, objects to the use of importance weight on theoretical grounds, saying that importance is already included in and reflected by satisfaction ratings. In this framework, the importance of a job facet determined the degree of effect produced by a given amount of discrepancy between fulfillment and desires. Hence, Locke (1969) believes that multiplying by importance is redundant. His view is supported by Mobley and Locke (1970). The need to further verify the influence of the perceived importance of job facets on overall job satisfaction has been stressed by Landy and Trumbo (1980). Katzell (1980) conceptualizes job satisfaction as "an employee's own evaluation of his or her job in terms of supervision, co-workers, pay, promotion and the work itself. This evaluation is actually a comparison between the employee's expectations about these job related factors and his or her actual experiences on the job."

Vroom (1964) proposed a model in which overall job satisfaction corresponds to a valence for a job. The valance of an outcome for a person is defined as the strength of its positive and negative affective orientation towards it, which all explains as:
Job satisfaction = \( \frac{\text{Facets}}{\sum(\text{imp} \times \text{is now})} \)

The importance of a job facet corresponds to Vroom's valence for the job outcome. One may distinguish between the valence of an outcome to a person and its value to that person. An individual may desire an object but derive little satisfaction from its attainment or he may strive to avoid an object which he later finds to be quite satisfactory.

According to Kochan (1978), Job Satisfaction is the whole matrix of job factors that make a person like his work situation and is willing to head for it without distaste at the beginning of his work day. This means that job satisfaction includes two aspects: living and enjoying the job and going to one's job with head erect and smiles. Derek (1981) defined job satisfaction as the extent to which each person in each organization obtains satisfaction from the processes and content of his work. According to Specters (1995), “Job Satisfaction is liking of one’s job and finding fulfillment in what you do. It combines an individuals feeling and emotion about their and how their job effect their personal lives.” Brown (1996) noted that some employers have found that satisfying or delighting employees is a prerequisite to satisfy or delight customers, thus protecting the “bottom line”. No wonders, Andrew Carnegie in the early 1900’s, (as quoted in Brown, 1996, P.123) was quoted as saying:

*Take away my people, but leave my factories, and
soon grass will grow on the floors of factories.*

*Take away my factories but leave my people and
soon we will have new and better factories*.

Brief (1998) wrote, “If a person’s work is interesting, pay is fair, promotional opportunities are good, supervisor is supportive and co-workers are friendly, then a situational approach leads one to predict that she/he is satisfied with her/his job”. In simple words, if the pleasures associated with one’s job outweigh the pains, there is some level of satisfaction. The Harvard Professional Group (1998) sees job satisfaction as the keying radiant that leads to recognition, income promotion and the achievement of other goals that lead to a general feeling of fulfillment.

Job satisfaction has been defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job (Locke, 1976); an affective reaction to one’s job
(Cranny, Smith and Stone, 1992); and an attitude towards one’s job (Brief, 1998). Weiss, H.M. (2002) had argued that no doubt, job satisfaction is an attitude but points out that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affects (emotion), beliefs and behaviours. Hence, Job satisfaction is an attitude towards job taking into account feelings, beliefs and behaviours. According to Taneja (2003), “Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which a person is pleased or satisfied by the content and environment of his work or is displeased or frustrated by inadequate working conditions and tedious job content.” It implies an attitude or internal state which is associated with the work an employee currently does (Bush and Middlewood, 2005). Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences (Noone and Quick, 2006). According to Sharma and Ghosh (2006), “Job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by situational factors of the job as well as the dispositional characteristics of the individual. It is defined as the positive emotional response to the job situation resulting from attaining what the employee wants from the job. This implies that job satisfaction can be captured either by one dimensional concept of global job satisfaction or a multi dimensional faceted construct of job satisfaction capturing different aspects of job satisfaction that can vary independently.”

Accordingly, a new meaning to job satisfaction was given. “Find meaning in your work, even if your job is un-challenging, or menial, finding meaning will make it much more bearable, if indeed that is how you feel” (that your work is unbearable). There are three levels of meaning that we as workers can obtain from our work.

- No meaning. Work makes no sense to you.
- Work has meaning because it supports you and your family.
- Work has meaning in itself because you are contributing something great or you are making the world a better place to live.

The important thing here is that to some of us, work has no meaning, or the difference is that some people understand the meaning of their work, and sadly some don’t. Once we have found our own meaning for work, then we are on the right track towards happiness.

In the above definitions, the consensus is on job satisfaction being a generalized attitude. Job satisfaction, however, results from an individual’s perception of how well or how badly the job and the conditions surrounding it have been fulfilled or are capable of fulfilling his needs.
One's judgment and evaluation as to the pros and cons, the positive and negative aspects of a situation are invariably involved. Thus, by putting these various elements together it can be stated that job satisfaction is a reintegration of the effect and attitude produced by an individual’s perception of the fulfillment of his needs in relation to his work and the situation surrounding it. In fact the various answers that one gets to the question "How do you like your job"? reveals the operation of a balancing process, the weighing up of pluses and minuses, the positive and negative aspects of the job and for arriving at a total assessment of satisfaction.

It is, however, observed that satisfaction is not to be taken as something final and static which remains there once the process of evaluation is over. It is something which is in a state of flux, either consciously or otherwise, as long as one stays on the job. One may even cogitate about it after one has left the job. Since the needs of the individual are constantly in fluid state, job satisfaction is not a permanent attitude nor is it merely momentary. It is a relatively enduring state which undergoes a change with the changing needs of the individual, the capacity of the work situation in fulfilling these needs and the individual's own perception of the situation.

THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

The behaviour of the individuals and their organizations is an extremely complex phenomenon. Fortunately, the field of management had systematically accumulated documented body of knowledge which could be presented in the form of theories of job satisfaction in organizational setting including educational institutions.

Several theories have been propounded concerning the dynamics of job satisfaction and its general impact upon worker’s behaviour. A brief mention of some important theories seems appropriate:

1. Need Hierarchy Theory

Job satisfaction has been primarily based upon the gratification of needs: the stronger the needs, the more closely does job satisfaction depend on its fulfillment. Maslow (1943) proposed classification of needs in their order of prepotency, namely, physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and the need for self-actualization, the implication of which have been useful to understand behaviour in work environments, indicating thereby, that the satisfied worker has a greater probability of attaining self-actualization and mental health than the discontented and motiveless employee. In this regard, Maslow (1943) developed a model in which
basic, low-level needs such as physiological requirements and safety must be satisfied before higher-level needs such as self-fulfillment are pursued. In this hierarchical model, when a need is mostly satisfied, it no longer motivates and the next higher need takes its place. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is depicted in figure 1.1

One way of defining motivation is to talk in terms of a particular state of the individual, a state of imbalance or disequilibrium as defining a motivated person. The person is motivated to correct any such imbalance, that is, he seeks some way of obtaining relief. Thus, one might talk of a motivational cycle as a process having three distinct parts:

1. Need or motive i.e., a state of psychological or physiological imbalance.
2. Response of motivated behaviour i.e., an action directed towards alleviating the imbalance.
3. Goal that which has to be obtained to reduce the imbalance, the object of the motivated behaviour.

Psychologists interested in motivation have spent considerable time discussing different types of needs. Maslow (1943) has proposed an interesting theory concerning human needs and their effect upon human behaviour. He suggests that human needs may be classified into five different groups or classes.

**Physiological Needs**

Physiological needs are basic needs required to sustain life, such as:

- air
- water

**Safety Needs:**

- Living in safe area
- Medical Insurance
- Job security
- Financial rewards

**Social Needs:**

- Need for friends
- Need for belonging
- Need to give and receive love

**Esteem-Needs:**

- Self-respect
- Achievement
- Attention
- Recognition
- Reputation

**Self-Actualization Needs:**

- Truth
- Justice
- Wisdom
- Meaning

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**Figure 1.1 Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs**

One way of defining motivation is to talk in terms of a particular state of the individual, a state of imbalance or disequilibrium as defining a motivated person. The person is motivated to correct any such imbalance, that is, he seeks some way of obtaining relief. Thus, one might talk of a motivational cycle as a process having three distinct parts:

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**Physiological Needs**

Physiological needs are basic needs required to sustain life, such as:

- air
- water
According to Maslow's theory (1943), if such needs are not satisfied then one's motivation will arise from the quest to satisfy them. Higher needs such as social needs and esteem needs are not felt until one has met the needs basic to one's bodily functioning.

**Safety Needs**

Once physiological needs are met, one's attention turns to safety and security in order to be free from the threat of physical and emotional harm. Such needs might be fulfilled by:
- Living in a safe area
- Medical insurance
- Job security
- Financial rewards

According to Maslow's hierarchy, if a person feels that he or she is in harm's way, higher needs will not receive much attention.

**Social Needs**

Once a person has met the lower level of physiological and safety needs, higher level needs become important, the first of which are social needs. Social needs are those related to interaction with other people and may include:
- Need for friends
- Need for belonging
- Need to give and receive love

**Esteem Needs**

Once a person feels a sense of "belonging", the need to feel important arises. Esteem needs may be classified as internal or external. Internal esteem needs are those related to self-esteem such as self-respect and achievement. External esteem needs are those such as social status and recognition. Some esteem needs are:
- Self-respect
- Achievement
- Attention
- Recognition
- Reputation
Maslow later refines his model to include a level between esteem needs and self-actualization: the need for knowledge and aesthetics.

**Self-Actualization Needs**

Self-actualization is the summit of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. It is the quest of reaching one's full potential as a person. Unlike lower level needs, this need is never fully satisfied; as one grows psychologically, there are always new opportunities to continue to grow.

Self-actualized people tend to have needs such as:

- Truth
- Justice
- Wisdom
- Meaning

Self-actualized persons have frequent occurrences of peak experiences, which are energized moments of profound happiness and harmony. According to Maslow, only a small percentage of the population reaches the level of self-actualization.

Inherent in this hierarchy is the belief that the healthy individual desires to mature, develops and uses his mature abilities to the extent that he realizes fully his human potential. According to this view, human beings are motivated towards personal growth, the fulfillment of which leads to the highest level of satisfaction. Some, individuals, however, because of situational variables, insecurity or other personality factors will not be able to achieve self-actualization (Saleh and Hyde, 1969).

**Limitations of Maslow's Hierarchy**

The important thing about Maslow’s theory, however, is not so much his classification system as it is in the fact that he considers these five need classes to form a ‘hierarchy of needs’. That is, it proceeds from very basic needs (Physiological needs and safety needs) to a cluster of higher social needs (love needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs).

The hierarchy concept is critical to Maslow, since his basic premises are:

1. The behaviour of any person is dominated and determined by the most basic groups of needs which are unfulfilled.
2. The individual will systematically satisfy his needs, starting with the most basic and moving up the hierarchy.
3. More basic need groups are said to be pre-potent in that they will take precedence over all those higher in the hierarchy.

Blai (1982) hypothesized that, in the work environment, degree of self-assessed job satisfaction vary with the strength of the psychological needs satisfied. The degree of satisfaction of any person is dependent upon the extent of fulfillment of his needs. If the structure of the work situation is such that it is not possible for an employee to select goals or to obtain goals which are necessary to satisfy his needs, then frustration-instigated behaviour is likely to occur. It is, therefore, important that a system of goals or rewards be available to the employee that well satisfies whatever needs, he brings into the work situation.

While Maslow’s hierarchy makes sense from an intuitive standpoint, there is little evidence to support its hierarchical aspect. In fact, there is evidence that contradicts the order of needs specified by the model. For example, some cultures appear to place social needs before any others. Maslow’s hierarchy also has difficulty explaining cases such as the "starving artist" in which a person neglects lower needs in pursuit of higher ones. Finally, there is little evidence to suggest that people are motivated to satisfy only one need level at a time, except in situations where there is a conflict between needs.

The needs may not always occur in an hierarchical order due to lack of a clear distinction between the various levels (Luthans, 1973; Mairer, 1973; Hodgetts, 1975), e.g. money could either be used to purchase food and clothing, thereby fulfilling one’s physiological needs, or be used as a mean for obtaining status and recognition which can gratify one’s social and esteem needs (Sutermeister, 1976). In other words, the various levels are interdependent and overlapping (Mc Cormich and Tiffin, 1974).

Even though Maslow's hierarchy lacks scientific support, it is quite well-known and is the first theory of motivation to which many people are exposed. The weapon of hierarchy theory, according to Haynes *et al* (1975) is that the concept of prepotency becomes less obvious as we moved up the hierarchy. The comments of Wahba and Bridwell (1976); Cofer and Apply (1964) indicated that the self-actualizing theory suffered from vagueness in the concept, looseness in language and lack of adequate empirical evidence.
2. Two-Factor Theory

Two-factor theory (also known as Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory) is developed by Frederick Herzberg, who found that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction acted independently of each other. Two Factor Theory states that there are certain factors in the workplace that cause job satisfaction, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction.

The rationale of the concept of motivator and hygiene (factors) based upon a theory of motivation proposed by Maslow (1943) underlies three basic assumptions.
(a) Man’s basic needs can be represented diagrammatically as two parallel arrows pointing in opposite directions—one arrow depicting his Animal - Adam nature and the other representing man’s Human- Abraham nature.

(b) Factors involved in producing job satisfaction are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction.
(c) The satisfiers are effective in motivating an individual for superior performance and efforts, but dissatisfiers are not.

Within this context, Herzberg et al (1959) argued that Job satisfaction is basically a function of having the higher order needs satisfied since jobs are hard to get. Not fulfilling these needs would not lead to job dissatisfaction but rather to job-neutrality.

To better understand employee attitudes and motivation, Herzberg performs studies to determine which factors in an employee’s work environment cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction. He published his findings in the book, The Motivation to Work (1959). The studies included interviews in which employees were asked what pleased and displeased them about their work. He interviewed each person individually. Each worker was asked to describe, in detail, times when he felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about his job. The interviews were then ‘content analyzed’ to see.

1. What kinds of things were mentioned when people described the times at which they were satisfied with their job?
2. What kinds of things were mentioned when people were describing times at which they were dissatisfied with their job?
3. Whether the kind of things described in these two different circumstances were different?

Herzberg found that the factors causing job satisfaction (and presumably motivation) were different from that causing job dissatisfaction. He developed the motivation-hygiene theory to explain these results. He called the satisfiers motivators and the dissatisfiers’ hygiene factors, using the term "hygiene" in the sense that they were considered maintenance factors that were necessary to avoid dissatisfaction but that by themselves did not provide satisfaction.

Table 1.1 presents the top six factors causing dissatisfaction and the top six factors causing satisfaction, listed in the order of higher to lower importance.

Table 1.1 Factors Affecting Job Attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leading to Dissatisfaction (Context factors or Hygiene factors)</th>
<th>Leading to Satisfaction (Content factors or Motivators)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Company policy</td>
<td>• Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Supervision</td>
<td>• Recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Relationship with Boss</td>
<td>• Work itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Work conditions</td>
<td>• Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Salary</td>
<td>• Advancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Relationship with Peers</td>
<td>• Growth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Herzberg reasoned that because the factors causing satisfaction were different from those causing dissatisfaction, the two feelings cannot simply be treated as opposites of one another. The opposite of satisfaction was not dissatisfaction, but rather, no satisfaction. Similarly, the opposite of dissatisfaction was no dissatisfaction.

While at first glance this distinction between the two opposites may sound like a play on words, Herzberg argues that there are two distinct human needs portrayed. First, there are physiological needs that can be fulfilled by money, for example, to purchase food and shelter. Second, there are the psychological needs to achieve and grow, and this need is fulfilled by activities that cause one to grow.

From Table 1.1, one observes that the factors that determine whether there is dissatisfaction or no dissatisfaction are not part of the work itself, but rather, are external factors. Herzberg often refers to these hygiene factors as "KITA" factors, the process of providing incentives or a threat of punishment to cause someone to do something. Herzberg argues that these provide only short-run success because the motivator factors that determine whether there is satisfaction or no satisfaction are
intrinsic to the job itself, and does not result from carrot and stick incentives. Two-factor theory distinguishes between:

- Motivators (e.g. challenging work, recognition, responsibility) which give positive satisfaction, arising from intrinsic conditions of the job itself, such as recognition, achievement, or personal growth, and
- Hygiene factors (e.g. status, job security, salary and fringe benefits) which do not give positive satisfaction, although dissatisfaction results from their absence. These are extrinsic to the work itself, and include aspects such as company policies, supervisory practices, or wages/salary.

Essentially, hygiene factors are needed to ensure an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed in order to motivate an employee to higher performance. Herzberg, also, further classifies our actions and how and why we do them, for example, if you perform a work related action because you have to do that, is classed as movement, but if you perform a work related action because you want to do that, is classed as motivation.

**Limitations of Two-factor theory**

Unlike Maslow, who offered little data to support his ideas, Herzberg and others have presented considerable empirical evidence to confirm the motivation-hygiene theory. Their work, however, has been criticized on methodological grounds. Nevertheless, Herzberg and his associates have rendered a valuable service to science and to management through their efforts to apply scientific methods to understand complex motivational problems at work and have stimulated others to continue the search.

The theory widely accepted by practitioners, has however, come under heavy attack from most academicians (Luthans, 1973) on grounds of having narrow sampling (Ewen, 1964; Dunnette and Kornhauser, 1965), arbitrary assumption (House and Wigdor, 1967; Bockman, 1971), weakness of methodology (Vroom, 1964; Lindsay *et al*, 1967; Schwab *et al*, 1971, Coffey *et al*, 1975). Dunnett *et al* (1967), too, pointed out that the theory was shackled to a non quantitative methodology and the results were biased by defensive behaviour reaction on the part of respondents. Therefore, it represents an over-simplification of the relationship between motivation and satisfaction and the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Blum and Naylor (1968) stated that in the process of the study the authors had to make the implicit assumption that the people being interviewed had both the ability
and the desire to report accurately on the conditions which make them satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. If this is not so, then the results may be only an artifact of the set people carried into the interview situation. For this reason, the study has been severely criticized.

Critics of Herzberg's theory argued that the two-factor result was observed because it was natural for people to take credit for satisfaction and to blame dissatisfaction on external factors. Furthermore, job satisfaction did not necessarily imply a high level of motivation or productivity.

Herzberg's theory has been broadly read and despite its weaknesses its enduring value is that it recognizes that true motivation comes from within a person and not from KITA/hygiene factors. Since the original publications of the model, a number of studies have attempted to provide evidence or otherwise concerning its validity. Unfortunately, the results are contradictory in nature. Porter (1966) has provided a brief but comprehensive summary of all such research.

**Evidence in favour of the theory**

Myers (1964) found that for a representative sample of employees in a manufacturing company, satisfaction was related to intrinsic work factors and dissatisfaction to extrinsic factors. Likewise, Schwartz (1968) in a study of lower level supervisors, found the appropriate relationship between satisfaction–dissatisfaction and intrinsic- extrinsic factors.

Many studies confirmed two factor theory of Herzberg et al (1959), for example those of Myers (1964), Schwartz et al (1968), Chastin (1977) and Abreu (1980), thus concluding that an appropriate relationship exists between satisfaction - dissatisfaction and intrinsic - extrinsic factors.

Studies by Freindlander (1963), Ewen (1964), Wernimont (1964), and Kornhauser (1965) seem to support Dunnette’s (1965) conclusion that “…the two factor notion of job satisfaction is an over-simplified representation of the motivational milieu of the world of work”.

Savage (1967) supported Herberg’s theory with a few minor exceptions, the most obvious of which was that good interpersonal relations of teachers, especially with students, were motivational rather than hygienic. Soliman (1970) found that when the environment (organization) provides adequately for the satisfaction of all kinds of needs, the motivators become more powerful sources of satisfaction than hygiene factors. If the environment deprives people of all kinds of needs, hygiene
factors become more powerful sources of dissatisfaction than motivators. Rao (1972) found that promotions and achievement which are prominent intrinsic factors, acted as bipolar variables. Hence, company policies and practices acted as bipolar variables. This fact goes against the contention of the dual-factor theory. One of the significant findings which fundamentally violate the postulates of the theory is that hygiene factors contributed significantly more to satisfaction than to dissatisfaction.

While the Motivator-Hygiene concept is still well regarded, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are generally no longer considered to exist on separate scales. The separation of satisfaction and dissatisfaction had been shown to be an artifact of the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) used by Herzberg to record events. Furthermore, it has been noted that the theory does not allow for individual differences, such as a particular personality traits, which would affect individuals' unique responses to motivating or hygiene factors.

A number of behavioural scientists have pointed to inadequacies in the need hierarchy and motivation-hygiene theories. The most basic was the criticism that both of these theories contained the relatively explicit assumption that happy and satisfied workers produce more. Another problem was that these and other statistical theories were concerned with explaining "average" behaviour and, on the other hand, if playing a better game of golf was the means he choose to satisfy his need for recognition, then he will find ways to play and think about golf more often, perhaps resulting in an accompanying lower output on the job. Finally, in his pursuit of status he might take a balanced view and strived to pursue several behavioural paths in an effort to achieve a combination of personal status objectives In other words, this individual's expectation or estimated probability that a given behaviour will bring a valued outcome, determines his choice of means and the effort he will devote to these means. In effect, this theory depicts an employee asking himself the question posed by investigator, "How much payoff is there for me toward attaining a personal goal while expending so much effort toward the achievement of an assigned organizational objective?" The Expectancy theory by Victor Vroom also provided a framework for motivation based on expectations.

This approach to the study and understanding of motivation would appear to have certain conceptual advantages over other theories: First, unlike Maslow's and Herzberg's theories, it is capable of handling individual differences. Second, its focus is towards the present and the future, in contrast to drive theory, which emphasizes
past learning. Third, it specifically relates behaviour to a goal and thus eliminated the problem of assumed relationships, such as between motivation and performance. Fourth, it relates motivation to ability:

\[ \text{Performance} = \text{Motivation} \times \text{Ability}. \]

3. Structural Theory

Arguing that Herzberg’s method suffered from built in biases and logical deficiencies in his incident classification system and that even when these built in deficiencies were corrected, his basic findings were not replicated. Schneider and Locke (1971) developed a job satisfaction classification which was based on two dimensions-Event and Agent. ‘Event’ referred to “what happened” while ‘Agent’ referred to “those who made it happen” Event was divided into Task and Non-Task elements and Agent was divided into Self and Non-Self elements. The number of Events and Agents were theoretically unlimited and dependent upon the researcher’s decision. Locke (1976) however, subsequently suggested that event and agent would best be made in terms of the purpose of the researcher rather than in terms of statistical consideration”.

Broadly accepting the above mentioned event-agent framework of job satisfaction, Ben Porat (1977) suggested that an inter correlation matrix of job satisfaction variables tend to have a radix structure. The circumplex and radix are geometric solution for inter correlation among certain variables (Correlation matrix). The geometric solution in space is determined by the nature of the variables that are mapped into points in the space and the similarity of coefficients computed between all pairs of variables. The relative magnitudes of these coefficients are represented by an inter variable - the distance in the space and thus determine the structural properties of the space (circumplex radix or other). A circumplex is a system of variables which has a circular law of order (Guttman, 1954). A radix is described by Degerman (1972), as “the structure of a generalized circumplex with the addition of a nested qualitative attribute proceeding readily from the origin to the surface of the circumplex. This structure differs from the pure circumplex in that here a definite origin is implied.”

Ben Porat’s (1981) point of departure from that of Schneider and Locke (1971) is that he considers the concepts of event and agent as the two faces of a definitional system to a universe of content of job satisfaction. The original definition
of event and agent are accepted as such and the facets specified into elements and their internal order determined. He specified an event facet as a polarizer and the elements (the different events) as corresponding to different directions according to their particular content. The results confirmed his previous conclusions (Ben Porat, 1978) that job factors tend to constitute a circular order divided by an extrinsic-intrinsic dimension. The event facet is a polarizer. The Location of the items in the space scattergram pointed out that the agent factor is a modulator and that the greater the self-influence perceived by the individual employee, the closer the distance of the item to the criterion. This theory being very recent in origin has not been thoroughly studied as yet and further research efforts are required to define more relevant facets to cover the complete relevant psychological phenomenon.

4. **Equity Theory**

John Stacey Adams, a workplace and behavioural psychologist, put forward his Equity Theory on job motivation in 1963. The important distinction between the equity theory and the other theories of job satisfaction is that the latter focused on the identification of specific factors in the individual or his environment which determined behaviour, whereas the former concentrated on an understanding of the process by which behaviour is energized and sustained.

The development of Equity Theory can be traced to several prominent theories working somewhat independently within the same general parameters. These variations on the theme are variously termed as the “cognitive dissonance” theory (Festinger, 1957; Heider, 1958), the distributive justice or “exchange theory” (Homans 1961; Jacques, 1961; Patchen 1961) and the “equity or inequity theory” (Adams 1963, 1965; Weick and Nesset, 1968). While each of these models differs in some respect from the other, the general thrust of all of them is towards one basic unit of analysis. The degree of equity is defined in term of a ratio of an individual’s inputs (such as effort) to outcomes (such as pay)

Another major difference is that in equity theory, the most of motivated behaviour is based on the perceived situation and not necessarily on the actual set of circumstances. The equity theory generally argued that it is the perceived equity of the situation that stimulated behaviour and satisfaction. Whereas, Maslow (1943) saw behaviour largely in terms of personality need variables. Herzberg (1959) saw behaviour largely in the context of objective job content and context factors.
The Adams' Equity Theory model, therefore, extends beyond the individual self, and incorporated influence and comparison of other people's situations, for example, colleagues and friends in forming a comparative view and awareness of Equity, which commonly manifested as a sense of what is fair. When people feel fairly or advantageously treated, they are more likely to be motivated; when they feel unfairly treated, they are highly prone to feelings of disaffection and demotivation. The way that people measure this sense of fairness is at the heart of Equity Theory.

Equity, and thereby, the motivational situation we might seek to assess using the model, is not dependent on the extent to which a person believes, reward exceeded effort, nor even necessarily on the belief that reward exceeded effort at all. Rather, Equity, and the sense of fairness which commonly underpins motivation, is dependent on the comparison a person makes between his or her reward/investment ratio with the ratio enjoyed (or suffered) by others considered to be in a similar situation.

Adams called personal efforts and rewards and other similar 'give and take' issues at work, respectively, 'inputs' and 'outputs'. Inputs are logically what we give or put into our work. Outputs are everything we take out in return. These terms emphasize that what people put into their work includes many factors besides working hours, and that what people receive from their work includes many things aside from money.

Adams used the term 'referent' to describe the reference points or people with whom we compare our own situation, which is the pivotal part of the theory. Adams Equity Theory went beyond - and was quite different from merely assessing effort and reward. Equity Theory adds a crucial additional perspective of comparison with 'referent' others (people we considered in a similar situation). Equity theory, thus, explains why pay and conditions alone do not determine motivation. Adams' Equity Theory is therefore, a far more complex and sophisticated motivational model than merely assessing effort (inputs) and reward (outputs). The actual sense of equity or fairness (or inequity or unfairness) within Equity Theory is arrived at only after incorporating a comparison between our own input and output ratio with the input and output ratios that we saw or believed to be experienced or enjoyed by others in similar situations.

This comparative aspect of Equity Theory provides a far more fluid and dynamic appreciation of motivation than typically arises in motivational theories and models based on individual circumstances alone.
For example, Equity Theory explained why people can be happy and motivated by their situation one day, and yet with no change to their terms and working conditions can be made very unhappy and motiveless, if they learnt for example that a colleague (or worse an entire group) was enjoying a better reward-to-effort ratio. It also explains why giving one person a promotion or pay-rise can have a motiveless effect on others. This explained for example why and how full-time employees will compare their situations and input-to-output ratios with part-time colleagues, who very probably earn less, however, it is the ratio of input-to-output - reward-to-effort - which counted, and if the part-timer is perceived to enjoy a more advantageous ratio, then so this will have a negative effect on the full-timer's sense of Equity, and with it, their personal motivation. The words like efforts and rewards, or work and pay, are an over-simplification - hence Adams' use the terms inputs and outputs, which more aptly cover all aspects of what a person gives, sacrifices, tolerates, invests, etc., into their work situation, and all aspects of what a person received and benefits from their work and wider career, as they saw it as depicted in Table 1.2

Table 1.2 Input-Output Relation as given in Equity Theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inputs</th>
<th>Equity dependent on comparing own ratio of input/output with ratios of 'referent' others</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inputs are typically: effort, loyalty, hard work, commitment, skill, ability, adaptability, flexibility, tolerance, determination, heart and soul, enthusiasm, trust in our boss and superiors, support of colleagues and subordinates, personal sacrifice, etc.</td>
<td>People need to feel that there is a fair balance between inputs and outputs. Crucially fairness is measured by comparing one's own balance or ratio between inputs and outputs, with the ratio enjoyed or endured by relevant ('referent') others.</td>
<td>Outputs are typically all financial rewards - pay, salary, expenses, perks, benefits, pension arrangements, bonus and commission - plus intangibles - recognition, reputation, praise and thanks, interest, responsibility, stimulus, travel, training, development, sense of achievement and advancement, promotion, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If we feel that inputs are fairly rewarded by outputs (the fairness benchmark being subjectively perceived from market norms and other comparable references) then generally we are happier in our work and more motivated to continue inputting at the same level. If we feel that our ratio of inputs to outputs is less beneficial than the ratio enjoyed by referent, then we become demotivated in relation to our job and employer. Generally, the extent of demotivation is proportional to the perceived disparity with other people or inequity, but for some people just the smallest indication of negative disparity between their situation and other people's is enough to cause massive disappointment and a feeling of considerable injustice, resulting in demotivation, or worse, open hostility.

Equity Theory reminds us that people see themselves and crucially the way they are treated in terms of their surrounding environment, team, system, etc - not in isolation - and so they must be managed and treated accordingly.

Figure 1.2: Adams Equity Theory Diagram: Job Motivation

5. Expectancy-Valence theory

This theory went under several names, including “expectancy theory” “instrumentality theory”, “path-goal theory” and “valence-instrumentality expectancy
The Expectancy Theory of Victor Vroom dealt with motivation and management. Vroom's theory assumed that behaviour resulted from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose was to maximize pleasure and minimize pain. Together with Lawler (1973) and Porter (1968), Vroom (1964) suggested that the relationship between people's behaviour at work and their goals was not as simple as was first imagined by other scientists. Vroom realized that an employee's performance was based on individual’s factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. The expectancy theory stated that individuals had different sets of goals and can be motivated if they believe that:

- There is a positive correlation between efforts and performance,
- Favorable performance will result in a desirable reward,
- The reward will satisfy an important need,
- The desire to satisfy the need was strong enough to make the effort worthwhile.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory was based upon the following three beliefs:


2. Expectancy: Employees had different expectations and levels of confidence about what they were capable of doing. Management must discover what resources, training, or supervision employees need.

3. Instrumentality: The perception of employees whether they will actually get what they desire even if it has been promised by a manager. Management must ensure that promises of rewards are fulfilled and that employees are aware of that.

Vroom suggested that an employee's beliefs about Expectancy, Instrumentality, and Valence interacted psychologically to create a motivational force such that the employee acted in ways that brought pleasure and avoid pain. This force could be 'calculated' via the following formula:

\[ \text{Motivation} = \text{Valance} \times \text{Expectancy} \times \text{Instrumentality}. \]

This formula could be used to indicate and predict such things as job satisfaction, one's occupational choice, the likelihood of staying in a job and the effort one might put at work. It can be considered a process theory as it attempted to identify relationships among variables in a dynamic state as they affected individual behaviour. In this theory, like equity theory, the relationship among inputs that was
the basic focal point rather than the inputs themselves. Vroom (1964) defined “expectancy” as “an action outcome association”. It was a statement of the extent to which an individual believed that a certain action will result in a particular outcome. Job satisfaction according to Vroom was valence of outcomes or anticipation of need satisfaction. People were attracted to an object or incentive because it was perceived to be able to satisfy their needs. Job satisfaction was measured by the total amount of outcome valences available to an employee. Valence can be defined as the value, or preference which an individual placed on a particular outcome. While there is an obvious need for substantial additional research on the validity of this theory and on the determinants of valence instrumentality and expectancy perception, it has been hypothesized, e.g. That the valence of second level outcome is a function of the satisfaction derived from their past attainment (Porter and Lawler, 1968) and their perceived equity (Lawler, 1968). A number of specific variables have been hypothesized as influencing instrumentality. In general, they all pertain to the nature of the actual relationship between performance and second level outcomes and not to the relationship between anticipated outcomes and job satisfaction.

**Other Theories**

Other theories of job satisfaction are not as popular as the above theories. But a few researches were undertaken applying these theories.

**Activation theory:** Scott (1966) suggested that ‘activation theory’ was a very appropriate model for understanding the behaviour in work environment. Briefly, activation theory states that the human organism needs stimulation and variety in its environment, without which motivation will suffer and frustration may result. Hulin, Smith, Kendall and Locke (1963) defined job satisfaction as feeling of affective responses to the work situation. In addition, they pointed that these responses are best explained by a discrepancy between the work motivation attitudes and the incentives offered by the organizations.

**Fulfillment theory:** Schaffer (1953) has argued that job satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which the needs of an individual can be satisfied are actually satisfied.

**Discrepancy theory:** Katzell (1964), Locke(1969) and many other psychologists have argued for a discrepancy approach to thinking about satisfaction, discrepancies
may be actual or perceived. This theory suggests techniques for measuring job satisfaction.

**X and Y theory:** The basic assumption as propounded by McGregor (1957) is that human behaviour may differ because of complexity of factors affecting the behaviour. These assumptions are characterized as theory X and Y.

**Maturity-Immaturity theory:** Argyris (1953) assumes that the worker has very little self-discipline and personal pride. He is branded as a short-sighted, foolish human. He points out that most employees are expected to do as they are told and leave the thinking to the boss.

**Employee-centered theory:** Likert (1967) feels that there is a marked relationship between the kind of supervision an employee receives and his productivity. When an employee thinks that his boss perceives him as a cog in the machine, he will be a poor producer and when he thinks his boss is interested in him, his problems, his future, he will be a high producer.

**Need gratification theory:** As per Wolf (1970) job-motivation will be stronger when an individual perceives an opportunity to gratify an active need through job related behaviours.

**Performance theory:** Donald et al (1970) emphasized that employee’s satisfaction is connected with job performance; satisfaction leads to performance and performance to satisfaction and performance–satisfaction relationship is moderated by many variables linked with man and his job.

**FACTORS AFFECTING JOB SATISFACTION**

Today skilled persons with high and improved quality are of paramount importance for the nation’s economic growth and development. The higher academic performance was promoted by evaluating the quality of teaching and research. Quality of teaching mainly depends on job satisfaction of teachers. The committed and dedicated teachers mould skilled individuals. Commitment and dedication depends on their job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the extent to which a job provides general satisfaction to the worker, meets personal and professional needs and goals of the worker. Job satisfaction is a state and level of satisfaction which is a result of various interests and attitudes of a person towards his/her job. Job satisfaction is a general affective reaction that individuals exhibit in their job. Researchers and practitioners most often measure global job satisfaction. There is also interest in measuring
different facets of satisfaction. Facets include co-worker, pay, job conditions, supervision, nature of the work and benefits. The job of an individual affects every aspect of his life and living conditions, his status in the society, his friendship, how he spends his leisure time etc. Each person should, therefore, have a satisfying job. It also increases the quality of the work done. Various factors effect job satisfaction of teachers. The theoretical formulations cited above make it clear that job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon derived from the weighing up of the positive and negative feelings towards various aspects of the job of an individual. Its determinants, too, are complex and inclusive of the interaction of several ‘on the job’ and ‘off the job’ variables. For the present study, selected factors under investigation had been grouped into three categories, namely-

a) Personal characteristics which included age, intelligence, socio-economic status and life satisfaction.

b) Professional characteristics which included qualification, salary, experience and professional growth/development programmes.

c) Organizational characteristics which included the organizational climate and leadership behaviour.

(a) Personal Characteristics

1. Age

Age is defined in the present study as the life span in years of an individual calculated from the year of birth up to the present time, starting from 20 until 60 years of age. Job satisfaction and age was viewed to be linearly related to each other by Larouche (1972), Lavan (1979), Grocheck (1979), Barber (1980) and Manfort (1980) who were of the opinion that with the advancement of the age, a job became stable and brought proficiency in the use of skills and abilities resulting in greater satisfaction. A vertical rise in the status of the person leads to a sense of increased responsibility, freedom in decision making and the ability to carry out plans independently where a greater sense of accomplishment and satisfaction is felt. The development of job satisfaction with age on the other hand has been conceived of as cyclical by Hoppock and Super (1950), Stagner et al (1952), Mann (1953) and Kersler (1954). That job satisfaction is high among young workers and tends to go down during the first few years of employment was noted by Herzberg et al (1957). The low point is reached when workers are in the middle and late twenties or early thirties.
After this, satisfaction climbs steadily with age. This fluctuation particularly could be accounted for by age differences in occupational levels but more frequently it is attributable to the developmental characteristics. Super (1939) reasoned out that young men just getting a start in the world of work in young age are glad to have almost any job and felt confident of their ability to get ahead. Then, after the age of about 25, comes a period of dissatisfaction with the old job, of wanting to get ahead more rapidly. The reason for declining the initial high level of satisfaction could be the contrasting regimen of school and work (Herzberg et al, 1957). It is not improbable, therefore, that the young worker becomes increasingly discouraged and dissatisfied as he attempts to adjust not only to a new job but also to a new way of life predicated upon unfamiliar values.

Additional efforts are expanded and increasing age brought greater achievement and greater satisfaction. Again, after the age of 45, there is relative increase in dissatisfaction due to a change in the emphasis of the interest, that is, work loses some of its attraction and other type of satisfaction has not yet been developed. After a period of readjustment, new non-vocational sources of enjoyment are found and the improved general adjustment is shown in increased job satisfaction. The upswings in satisfaction come as the individual matures and his interests broaden and as improved status lead to the realization of higher goals and greater control over his own work and that of other. In spite of the availability of these views expressed on the subject, our knowledge about the nature of relationship between age and job satisfaction whether it is linear or cyclical, is yet non-conclusive.

2. Intelligence

By itself, a person’s level of intelligence does not appear to be a major determinant in influencing job satisfaction. But, when considered in relation to the kind of work being performed, intelligence served as a significant factor in job satisfaction. Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment (Wechsler, 1944, P.3). Intelligence is the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by difficulty, complexity, abstraction, economy, adaptiveness to a goal, social value, and the emergence of originals, and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and resistance to emotional forces (Stoddard, 1943). It is often asserted that an individual derives satisfaction from a job which permits him to use his potentialities and is in accordance with his mental
level. An intelligent man makes more use of his past experience to seek a goal. Utilizing past experience is a mark of intelligence. An intelligent person can easily adapt himself to a novel situation. He can master a complex situation. Capacity to master a novel situation is a mark of intelligence. An intelligent person takes a broader view of a situation and adapts his actions to it. He has a foresight. He is able to see the situation as a whole. He finds out the key to the situation. A dull person cannot take a broad view of a situation. His perspective is narrow. He follows a fixed routine in his actions.

For many occupations and professions, there is a range of intelligence associated with efficiency of job performance and job satisfaction. Intelligence is only an idea, an abstraction and not a thing. Hence, the measurement of intelligence is not a simple, valid, reliable and definite task. When we measure the intelligence of an individual with the help of an intelligence test, we try to interpret the scores in the light of the norms established by the author of the test. Thus, an individual’s intelligence is determined relatively to the classified group to which he belongs.

Persons with capabilities beyond the required level i.e. either too high or too low, are likely to experience boredom or frustration and dissatisfaction with the job. Intelligent individuals in less challenging and repetitive work situations become bored and dissatisfied as they failed to satisfy their mental urge. On the other hand, those in jobs that require a higher level of intelligence would be frustrated because they are unable to handle the demands of the job.

3. Socio-Economic Status

Socio-Economic Status plays an important role in determining vocations, aspirations, vocational development, and the achievement or motivation of an individual. Therefore, it affects the job satisfaction of the individual. The social status of an individual facilitates communication and co-operation and it can be used as an incentive to motivation. Socio-economic status (SES) is an eco-socio measure of a person's work experience and of an individual's or family’s economic and social position relative to others, based on income, education, and occupation. When analyzing a family’s socio-economic status, the household income, earners' education and occupation are examined, as well as combined income, versus with an individual, when their own attributes are assessed (National Center for Educational Statistics, 31st March, 2008). People belonging to low socio-economic status have meager resources and they are not able to fulfill their basic needs. The institutions from which
they acquire their education are generally equipped with untrained staff, inadequate equipment and material. The maximum development of abilities does not take place and the inadequate utilization of abilities in work situations hinder the vocational development of an individual which leads to lesser amount of job satisfaction. On the other hand, people from a higher socio-economic status are in a position to fulfill their needs and are exposed to better educational opportunities. Thus, the handling of vocational development tasks becomes easier for them and they exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction. Individuals belonging to higher socio-economic status have higher levels of aspiration and a tendency to participate in the day to day work of the institution and in risk taking situations. On the contrary, low, socio-economic status individuals are less prone to taking risks, less inclined to gain more recognition and less involved in the work environment. The handling of vocational development tasks remains difficult for them or they remain vocationally less mature and thus exhibit a lesser amount of satisfaction.

Socio-Economic status is typically broken into three categories, high socio-economic status, middle socio-economic status, and low socio-economic status to describe the three areas a family or an individual may fall into. When placing a family or individual into one of these categories any or all of the three variables (income, education, and occupation) can be assessed. A fourth variable, wealth, may also be examined when determining socioeconomic status.

a. Income

Income refers to wages, salaries, profits, rents or any flow of earnings received. Income can also come in the form of unemployment or workers compensation, social security, pensions, interests or dividends, royalties, trusts, alimony, or other governmental, public, or family financial assistance. Income can be looked at in two terms, relative and absolute. Absolute income, as theorized by economist Keynes, J.M. (2008), is the relationship in which as income increases, so will consumption, but not at the same rate. Relative income indicates a person or family’s savings and consumption based on the family’s income in relation to others. Income is a commonly used measure of socio-economic status because it is relatively easy to figure for most individuals.

b. Education

Education also plays a role in income. The higher degrees, professional or doctoral degrees, make the highest earnings while those without a high school or
diploma are financially penalized. Education also plays a major role in skill sets for acquiring jobs, as well as specific qualities that stratify people into different socio-economic status. Higher levels of education are associated with better economic and psychological outcomes (i.e.: more income, more control, and greater social support and networking). Educational attainment is preferable to analyze for socio-economic status because it can be figured for all individuals. A person’s educational attainment is considered to be the highest level (grade or degree) of education they have completed.

c. Occupation

Occupational prestige as one component of socio-economic status encompasses both income and educational attainment. Occupational status reflects the educational attainment required to obtain the job and income levels that vary with different jobs and within ranks of occupations. Additionally, it shows achievement in skills required for the job. Occupational status measures social position by describing job characteristics, decision making ability and control, and psychological demands on the job. However, occupation is the most difficult factor to measure because of numerous nature coupled with so many competing scales. Many scales rank occupations based on the level of skill involved, from unskilled to skilled manual labour to professional, or use a combined measure using the education level needed and income involved.

d. Wealth

Wealth, a set of economic reserves or assets, presents a source of security providing a measure of a household's ability to meet emergencies, absorb economic shocks, or provide the means to live comfortably. Wealth reflects intergenerational transitions as well as accumulation of income and savings. Income, age, marital status, family size, religion, occupation, and education are all predictors for wealth attainment.

4. Life Satisfaction

Life Satisfaction is the need of the hour. Without satisfaction one cannot lead a peaceful and prosperous life. It is a multidimensional concept related to psychological and environmental life conditions and referred to an individual’s well-being, quality of life and happiness (Noones, 1998). Life satisfaction is a broad concept and varies with types of relationship established, age as well as gender. Life satisfaction refers to the judgmental process, in which individuals assess the quality of their lives on the
basis of their own unique set of criteria (Shin and Johnson, 1978). According to Goldenson (1984), psychologically speaking satisfaction may occur on a conscious, pre-conscious or unconscious level and brings an organism to a balanced state. Hamilton (1995) stated life satisfaction as the degree of contentment with one’s own life style. According to De Neve and Cooper (1998) life satisfaction is a cognitive evaluation of the quality of one’s experiences, spanning an individual’s entire life. Life satisfaction is referred as an assessment of the overall conditions of existence as derived from a comparison of one’s aspiration to one’s actual achievement’ (Cribb, 2003).

Wilson (1968) is of the view that a man will be completely happy if he is satisfied with all aspects of life. A life that involves the satisfaction of simple desires, gives many pleasures. These desires arise due to a number of behavioural actions that are related to overt or covert behaviour of the individual concerned or these may be environmental i.e., related to social, mental and physical environment. Brown (1980) considered life satisfaction to be a dynamic process which goes on throughout one’s life.

Diener and Suh (2004) found that satisfaction with life is an indicator of well-being. Harleen (2004) is of the opinion that a person could be happy only when he has realistic appraisal of his abilities and potentialities to develop realistic aspirations and expectations.

It is believed that there exists a positive correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Effective teaching requires a feeling of satisfaction. On the other hand, feeling of dissatisfaction affects the efficiency, one’s thinking, and emotional reactions-in fact the totality of one’s behaviour. There are widespread allegations against teachers that for many of them teaching is not the top priority in colleges. The real teaching has apparently shifted from colleges to tuition centers, which has become a roaring money making business. Another issue that has adversely affected teaching is that talented people are not willing to opt for the profession. They look for greener pastures in other booming professions. If one has to be happy in his life, he must be satisfied with his profession also. Life satisfaction includes the capacity for enjoyment. The more we can enjoy what we have, the happier we are. A person having high satisfaction is expected to have happy adjustment with life and vice-versa. Life satisfaction refers to retrospective evaluation of life’s happiness through self-judgments. Life satisfaction has two aspects: positive and negative. On one side,
it is necessary for a person’s adjustment and progress, but on the other side, it prevents healthy progress. It is the ultimate goal that we human beings are striving to achieve in our entire lives. It is one of the oldest and most persistent issues in the study of teaching profession.

b) Professional Characteristics

The relationship between job satisfaction and professional characteristics is a complex phenomenon and have a U-curve relationship. At the initial stage, job satisfaction was high which began to decline after a lapse of time and finally climbed up on account of security of job, adjustment to environment, better opportunities to exercise the power and ability in decision making. Inspite of the conflicting views on job satisfaction and professional characteristics, its relationship was studied in the following paragraphs.

Various components of professional characteristics considered were salary, qualification, experience and professional development growth, nature of job, designation etc. To assess professional characteristics, a Professional Characteristics (PC) scale was self prepared which covered three aspects, namely, general background which included information regarding experience of teaching qualification, designation, nature of job etc. Financial aspect covered salary, grants and funds etc. Academic aspect included various professional growth/development programmes and activities.

1. Experience

The relationship between job satisfaction and the number of years in the job is complex and closely parallel relationship of age and job satisfaction. During the early stages of employment, new workers tend to be rather satisfied with the job. This early period in the job involves the stimulation and the challenge of learning new skills and developing new abilities.

Unfortunately, early satisfaction waves unless employees receive constant evidence of their progress and growth. After a few years in the job, growing discouragement is common, brought on by the feeling that the worker is not advancing as rapidly as he or she would like to advance.

Job satisfaction begins to increase again after six or seven years of employment and improves steadily, thus reaching to a maximum point for workers who have remained with an institution or company for about twenty years (Hull and
Kolstad, 1942). With seniority, they gain better positions and opportunities to exercise their power and ability in decision-making. Thus, the higher order needs are fulfilled making them more satisfied.

2. **Salary**

The question of the importance of salary in job satisfaction is complicated and seems to vary with the individual. There has been a persistent controversy over the importance of salary to workers. Patchen (1961) assumed that individuals compared their own earnings with those of others and evaluated differences or similarities in terms of their relative standing on dimensions believed to be the basis of pay, skill, seniority and qualifications. Satisfaction with a specific wage comparison is hypothesized to be a function of the objective dissonance of the comparison. If one person is to compare himself with another who is earning more but is as similar in his standing on dimension related to pay, the comparison would be dissonant and would be expected to lead to dissatisfaction on the part of the comparer. A salary that brings a better than average living standard in a small town may be totally inadequate in big city. Also the salary that provides a comfortable standard of living for one family may be insufficient for another in the same area. Those with a high need for status for e.g. require a higher income than those who care little for status and if they do not get an adequate salary, there is dissatisfaction. This leads to the argument that satisfaction is dependent on relative rather than absolute wage levels. This variable also has the capacity to fulfill an increasing number of needs, thereby, meeting the proposed personal fulfillment component of job satisfaction. The amount of income considered sufficient is also relied to the standard of living in a geographical location.

3. **Qualification**

A person’s educational qualification is an important variable in the determination of the level of job satisfaction. The qualification is directly related to one’s occupational position. Generally, highly educated persons are attached to higher status jobs. The more qualified a person is, more better he can cope with complex work situations. Under-qualified persons on the other hand, might be unable to give good guidance to their subordinates as also adequate co-operation to their superiors, thereby, depicting a less effective environment, which consequently makes them less satisfied with their jobs.

Better educated persons are more satisfied as they are associated with higher job levels. Higher job levels are associated with higher salaries and better paid
persons are more capable of satisfying their higher-order needs making them more satisfied with their jobs.

For making children capable of getting good jobs, parents spend a fair amount of money. Education is a good investment for the parents as well as the country. Losing a technically skilled person can amount to loss of 10 times of his salary to the management (Lawler, 1974) caused by the hampering of production in the process of a fresh selection and subsequent adjustments. It is in the interest of the management to take more care of highly qualified and professionally trained persons in terms of recognition, thus making them more satisfied with the job. The more the education a person has received, the greater is the need for providing opportunities to control and use his creative ideas. And when job situations provide such challenges to the individual, there is greater likelihood of his being satisfied, but in situations which fail to stimulate creative thinking, he remains dissatisfied with the job. Work involving variety, control, purpose and responsibility is more satisfying (Blauner, 1964) than other kinds. So, qualification of a person can affect his level of job satisfaction.

4. **Professional Development/Growth**

Every teacher whether he is a beginner or a veteran, needs to be aware of the rapid cultural and social changes, advancements in educational theories, methodologies and practices, increase in student enrolment, range in the interests and abilities of students and the ramification of the role of education due to changes and advancements in science and technology. It is universally established fact that every profession by its nature and definition is developmental. Development is the part and parcel of the term “profession”, as profession of any type will be truthful, valuable and relevant if it is developmental in its nature and definition with higher degree of practicability. For this, innovations in different fields and sectors of the fast changing society should be adhered to by every approach. These innovations are to be adopted and practiced while giving training (pre-service and in-service) to the pupil teachers and the teachers who are already in service. It implies that the teachers through training programmes should understand about the innovations of the modern society with their applications in the educational process. This will result in bringing sound professional development among the teachers and will certify teaching profession as developmental in nature and definition in practical perspective. After this, the well established fact that the two terms “profession and development” are two faces of the same coin will be true. Then it will be a truth tending to be regarded as a dictum of
education so far as teaching as a profession is concerned. Thus, no profession can exist without being developmental in nature and maintaining it accordingly. In case of teaching as a profession, there is the essentiality of bringing professionalism in development of teachers.

The professional development of teachers becomes possible through the organization of different educational activities and programmes in relation to it. These are to be organized by the educational organizations concerned and bodies – Council of Teacher Education (CET), Institute of Advanced Studies in Education (I.A.S.E.), District Institute of Education and Training (D.I.E.T), Regional Institute of Education (R.I.E), University Education Departments, National Council of Teacher Education (N.C.T.E), Indian Council of Social Sciences Research (I.C.S.S.R), National Council of Education and Research Training (N.C.E.R.T) and University Grants Commission (U.G.C) etc. These educational organizations and bodies should organize and coordinate these programmes and activities at regular intervals. As a result of this, the teachers will get proper acquaintance with the latest developments in the educational process with their theoretical and practical perspectives.

Teachers will be keenly interested in becoming lifelong learners, if they attend orientation programmes, refresher courses, special training in content-cum-methodology of their subjects, contact programmes, etc. Besides, they should be facilitated to participate in group discussions, seminars, conferences, workshops, etc. Organizations of these educational programmes meant for teachers should be done by the concerned educational organizations and bodies.

Professional development/growth refers to learning opportunities for practicing teachers. The most common form of professional development consists of short-term workshops and training sessions, usually sponsored by a school district and scattered throughout the year. The two learning tasks for practicing teachers are; the first centers on helping teachers adding new skills and strategies to their existing repertoire; the second centers on helping teachers transform their perspective and practice in fundamental ways. Therefore, in the era of globalization, teachers should be competent in order to make their students competent towards the global village. There is, therefore, a need for continued study and growth that would raise the competence of the teachers in the jobs and in turn, increase the standard of the whole educational system.
c) **Organizational Characteristics**

Organizational climate, individual development and behaviour are very much affected by interpersonal relationships. These influences are often so subtle that it is hard to identify them separately. Indeed, these may appear to be a part of the atmosphere. In any group or organization, there exists a system of subtle and pervasive interpersonal effective relationships called climate. A whole some climate is one where individuals feel secure and which enables individuals to function effectively. A school, college or university exists in a larger environment which is composed of social and physical elements. Each institution has its own particular organization climate with its own ideals and traditions. It reflects the norms and values of a formal system and their interpretation into an informal system, internal and external struggles, the types of people it attracts, its work processes and physical layout, the modes of communication and the exercise of authority within the system (Waller, 1932). This kind of climate affects all those individuals who work in the organization.

1. **Organizational climate**

There is a well-established and systematic relationship which existed between organizational climate and Job satisfaction. A democratic climate in an organization provides more opportunities for growth and development. The employer thus involves staff in day-to-day activities of the institution, developed a sense of worth and importance in employees and makes them more satisfied. In a closed climate, members merely went through the motions to complete a task. There is little motivation on the part of the leader to challenge members in a human way. These conditions generated frustration and thus lead to dissatisfaction.

Organizational climate is defined as a set of perceived attributes of an organization and its subsystems as reflected in the way an organization deals with its members, groups and issues (Pethe, Chaudhari and Dhar, 2001). Forehand and Gilmer (1964) defined organizational climate as the set of characteristics that describes an organization and that (a) distinguishes one organization from other organization, (b) is relatively enduring over time, and (c) influences behaviour of the people in the organization. Thus, the definitions of organizational climate range from the shared perception of “the way things are around here” (Schneider, 1990) to “a moral concept reflecting the content and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, feelings
and behaviour of the members of a social system which can be operationally measured through the perceptions of system members or observational and other objective means (Payne, 1990).

Organizational climate is a combination of attributes considered over time. It is the perceived aspect of an organization’s internal environment, but within the same organization there may be very different organizational climates. Schneider (1975) did find a way to distinguish job satisfaction and organizational climate. He contended that two employees with different levels of job satisfaction would probably describe the company similarly enough to paint a fairly accurate portrait of the organization for an outsider. He asserts that people do not necessarily have similar measures of job satisfaction but they tend to provide similar descriptions of organizational climate.

Pareek (1989) observed that organizational climate is created by the interaction of an organization’s structure, systems, culture, leader behaviour and psychological needs of employees. He identified twelve dimensions of organizational climate: orientation, interpersonal relations, supervision, problem management, management of mistakes, conflict management, communication, decision making, trust, and management of rewards, risk taking, innovation and change. In this study, Organizational climate (Pethe, Choudhary and Dhar, 2001) includes: (1) Results, Rewards and interpersonal Relations, (2) Organizational Processes, (3) Clarity of Roles and Sharing of Information, and (4) Altruistic Behaviour.

2. Leadership behaviour

Any organization consists of a set of people involved with different positions, roles and responsibilities working, roles and responsibilities working for the attainment of the pre-defined goals. There is a need for an individual who can monitor the system, guide personnel, plan, organize and lead the organizational activities towards a sustainable development by achieving goals. Such an individual can be called a leader and the quality he possesses to lead people is leadership (Madhavi, 2007). Leadership is an interactive conversation that pulls people toward becoming comfortable with the language of personal responsibility and commitment. Everyone can learn to lead by discovering the power that lies within each one of us to make a difference and being prepared when the call to lead comes (Warren Bonnis, 2004).

Interest in identifying and nurturing leadership potential dates back to the time of Aristotle and Plato. Leadership is the ability to influence the activities of an
individual or group towards the achievement of a goal (Addison, 1984). Terry (1954) has defined leadership as an activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives. In the light of this definition, an educational leader is one who makes willingly all efforts at achieving institutional goals by influencing and making others strive for the same.

Since the very inception of the concept, serious efforts have been made in the direction to explore the related dimension-leadership behaviour.

In the last 50 years, various theories of leadership viz, charismatic, wisdom, transformational, integrative and strategic and many others have flooded in social science researches. All these theories search for one lever which will characterize effective leadership. But in this fast changing world, one lever, would not work, one has to search for multiple levers.

Leadership in the new millennium which is characterized by unprecedented speed leading to valuable change, in convergence of technology and new paradigm of time and territory, world view, calls for a refreshing approach where thought and action, problem and solution, performance and accountability, unity and diversity are not distinct and opposites, but unalienable part of the same process. The most critical and conclusive role of the leader is to deliver result through the process of discovery, dreaming, designing and delivering results. And mission has to be a part of a broader vision and vision has to be tempered by values, and values must guide the people engaged in the task.

Leaders articulate a vision, use lateral or non-traditional thinking, encourage individual development, give regular feedback, use participative decision-making and promote a cooperative and trusting work environment (Carless, 1998).

Leaders are lifelong learners. This is not news but a fact of life in leadership. There is a need to develop leadership qualities among all especially the teachers who are the potential contributors for school effectiveness (Madhavi, 2007). A leader is knower of recent initiatives.

Leadership development is not an event. It is a process of participating in respectful conversations where the leader recognizes his or her own feelings and those of others in building safe and trusting relationships. The leadership development is self-development. The crux of leadership development that works is self-directed learning: intentionally developing or strengthening an aspect of who you are or who
you want to be, or both. (Goleman, 2004). While opportunities are provided the persons with the aptitude of leadership will make use of it and become leaders.

The personal characteristics of a leader played a vital part in his relationship with staff-members. The leader’s responsibility is to assist his group in developing and maintaining goals and in a formal group or organization; the leader had a particular position within the structure. Stogdill (1948) identified leadership as a process of influencing the activities of the organization in the task of goal setting. In essence then, leadership is a dynamic process of making people more effective in increasing their competence and in achieving the desired and determined goals.

Job satisfaction among subordinates is affected by leadership behaviour and to a large extent by the attributes (traits) of the person who provides leadership. A trait approach to job satisfaction in the context of leadership, however, has not provided fruitful as it could not provide great insight into the characteristics of a leader or to the process of leadership.

The focus of research, therefore, has shifted to the behaviour of the leader i.e. to the kinds of activities that the leader engages in carrying out the task of leadership. The teacher is a leader whose influence appears in many forms, sometimes quiet and unobtrusive, but always persistent. The teacher-leader has visions of possibilities that all students can learn, that schools can get better and that all teachers can achieve high levels of success professionally, witnessed by their students’ accomplishments in learning. The teacher-leader encourages, recognizes resources and talents, offers comfort to those in stress, challenges students to achieve deeper understanding, interprets the world and events meaningfully, and walks the moral road. Whether faced with a colleague in despair, a school in chaos, or a child in need, the call to educate is living vocation in the teacher-leader. As a leader of the 21st century, the teacher should be aware of the latest innovations, researches and experiences in the field of education. A leader is a conflict resolver. Teacher as a leader has to create a congenial environment giving least chances to internal conflicts among the colleagues as well as the students. He must lead the efforts of the students and resources for achieving the stipulated objective.

An effort has been made to measure the various dimensions of leader’s behaviour effectiveness focusing on positive and constructive dimensions. The six dimensions measured through this study were 1) Emotional stabilizer 2) Team builder

**NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY**

A study of job satisfaction can classify and categorize the conditions and factors that lead to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. One could, therefore, weed or improve the conditions that lead to dissatisfaction. Besides, one could reinforce the conditions that make work satisfying and fulfilling, instead of dull and disappointing. The same is true for teachers also. In the education sphere, there has been an increasing awareness of the demands of teachers. Of course, the schools, colleges and universities as humanizing and educating institutions have a major role in the growth and development of the students they serve, but the social well-being, advancement, and growth of pupils depends to a great extent on the enthusiasm, efficiency and professional skills of the teachers. The progress and future of education, its quality and ideals will depend upon how and by whom young persons are educated.

Therefore, job satisfaction of teachers is of much value to administrators who frame policies, take decisions and create conditions in which teachers try to maximize their potential and thus derive greater job satisfaction. True enough, it is said that a large number of teachers of the present day have no interest in their profession. They continue in the profession only as mechanical wage earners. The facilities and incentives offered in this profession are so meager that many of the talented persons do not think of becoming teachers but seek positions elsewhere. Lack of recognition of the teachers in this country is a very sore point. They have not yet been given the same footing as a doctor, a lawyer or an I.A.S. officer in the society. The significance of the role of the teacher is hardly recognized, though it has become a fashion to observe Teachers Day. The teacher of today suffers from neglect, indifference and insecurity. We always expect of a lot from a teacher who has so little power and alarmingly meager facilities.

The net result is widespread dissatisfaction at present in the teaching profession as a whole. Many seem to repent over their wrong choice and would be, too, willing to change their job in favour of some other lucrative one, if only opportunities are available.

Dissatisfaction of the individual, whatever may be the occupation in which he is engaged, results in professional stagnation. A dissatisfied teacher is loss not only to
himself but also to the entire society. He can spell disaster to the country’s future. Dissatisfaction among the workers is undesirable and dangerous in any profession; it is just suicidal if it occurs in the teaching profession (The Education Commission, 1966). Dissatisfaction in the job is like a contagious disease and, if a teacher is not satisfied with his job, he may produce dissatisfaction and maladjustment among the students. If the teachers are not satisfied with their job, how can they shape the best citizens for the future society? When we compare the teacher (the ‘Guru’) of the olden days, with the present day teacher, there seems to be a lot of differences. The teacher of the Guru Kula’ was completely satisfied with his job and used to be proud of his occupation. But today those who take up teaching profession seem to take it up just because they could not get entry into other occupations; and they will be watching for the slightest opportunity to leave it and take up some other lucrative profession. That is why every Education Commission without exception categorically pointed out the need for improving the teacher’s status, salary, working conditions and for providing adequate facilities for the pursuit of knowledge and for performing his duties satisfactorily.

Therefore, a better understanding of the causes for job satisfaction/dissatisfaction is desirable not because it will enable us to make them completely satisfied, but because it may help the administrators to relieve those intense and painful causes of dissatisfaction which injure both the individual and the society.

Though the teachers occupy an important place in the development of the nation, not much attention has been paid by researchers to the study of job satisfaction of teachers unlike that shown in the case of industrial or clerical workers. Are the teachers satisfied or dissatisfied with their job? If dissatisfied, what are the causes for the dissatisfaction? Do male and female college teachers differ in their level of job satisfaction? Do the rural and urban college teachers differ in their level of job satisfaction? Has management anything to do with the job satisfaction of college teachers? In other words, do the college teachers working under different managements differ in their level of job satisfaction? What is the relationship between personal characteristics and job satisfaction of teachers? What professional and organizational variables affect one’s job satisfaction? etc.

Very few empirical studies have been carried out especially on Indian samples, to investigate into these aspects. Thus, the present study was undertaken to study job satisfaction of college teachers taking into account the personal,
professional and organizational characteristics so that situations of dissatisfaction could be avoided and job satisfaction could be enhanced.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

*Job Satisfaction of the College Teachers of Punjab With Respect To Their Personal, Professional, and Organizational Characteristics*

**OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS**

1. **Job Satisfaction**
   It is defined as the extent of match between workers expectations (also aspirations) and the rewards, the job provides and the values it creates and gets cherished. (Singh and Sharma, 1999).

2. **Personal Characteristics**
   It included traits determining college teachers age, intelligence socio-economic status and life satisfaction.

3. **Professional Characteristics**
   It included traits determining college teachers qualification, experience, salary and professional growth/development.

4. **Organizational Characteristics**
   It included factors such as organizational climate of organization and leadership behaviour of college teachers.

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The present study sought to study the level of job satisfaction of college teachers in Punjab with special reference to personal, professional and organizational characteristics. Specifically, the objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To find out the general level of job satisfaction of college teachers according to location of college, gender and type of management.
2. To study the difference in the level of job satisfaction of college teachers according to location of college.
3. To study the difference in the level of job satisfaction of college teachers according to gender.
4. To study the difference in the level of job satisfaction of college teachers according to type of management of the college.
5. To find out the relationship between the level of job satisfaction of college teachers and their personal characteristics.
6. To find out the relationship between the level of job satisfaction of college teachers and their professional characteristics.

7. To find out the relationship between the level of job satisfaction of college teachers and their organizational characteristics.

8. To find out the various determinants of the level of job satisfaction according to location of college, gender and type of management.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

Based upon the above objectives, the following hypotheses were framed for investigation:

1. College teachers are not satisfied with their jobs.

2. There is no significant difference in the level of job satisfaction between rural and urban college teachers.

3. There is no significant difference in the level of job satisfaction between male and female college teachers.

4. There is no significant difference in the level of job satisfaction among Government Owned, Government Aided and Self Financed college teachers.

5. There is no significant correlation between the level of job satisfaction and personal characteristics of college teachers.

6. There is no significant correlation between the level of job satisfaction and professional characteristics of college teachers.

7. There is no significant correlation between the level of job satisfaction and organizational characteristics of college teachers.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The study was delimited to job satisfaction of 400 college teachers only.

2. The study was delimited to job satisfaction of teachers from General Degree Courses colleges only.

3. The study was delimited to job satisfaction of teachers from General Degree Courses colleges affiliated to Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar, Punjab.

4. The study was delimited to job satisfaction of General Degree Courses college teachers with respect to their personal, professional and organizational characteristics only.