CHAPTER 1

Introduction

An organization cannot grow and develop without healthy, satisfied, well-motivated and efficient work forces. Occupation is a necessary sector of human life and psychological agents like self-efficacy, commitment and well-being can construct safety, high living standards, satisfaction and happiness (Omrod, 2006). Psychological well-being is one of the important factors that have effect on occupational aspects of human being’s life (Kumar, 2006). Furthermore experts pay continued attention to investigate the nature, character, induction and outcome of occupation and organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Improving occupational self-efficiency and well-being is particularly useful in organizations where the personnel aspects are the most important resource.

Secular work is an important element in this era, since rapid technology development is vast. Occupations are a basic need in a person’s life. It is also a necessary element for an individual’s development as well as for the increase in nation’s economy. Adults spend majority of their time in activities related to work. Now a day’s coping in the work scenario is not easy and simple, thus experts ought to pay close attention to employee’s occupational problems as they can have an effect on the workers mental and physical health.

Paying attention to a teacher’s occupational problems may change their psychological views. It is needful since they are training the new generation of human resource. Teaching is not as easy as citizenry speculate. The obstacles of teaching are realized by someone who teaches.
In the past corpora and authoritarian punishment were the main ways to educate students. The present attitude restricts these kinds of procedures. So, the Ministry of Education in 2009 has stipulated latest Fundamental Educational Act that, teachers cannot perform physical punishment in India. Moreover teachers have to obey the Counsel and Discipline Act to administrate students. Under this regulation, teachers cannot use the traditional method to discipline students when they make a mistake. Furthermore, if teachers can receive effective supports from the educational administrators properly, their coherence, sense of belonging and job involvement will be increased.

Through this condition teachers should follow the advice and discipline to spearhead students. Thus, if teachers get impressive patronage from the school directors with proper communication and sense of belonging then they can have a powerful sense of identity to teaching targets and they will have better willingness to educate with full stability and effectiveness of education will be reclaimed (Chi and others, 2013).

Many researchers aimed to find solutions for coping with modern day occupational problems. Growing body of research illustrates the need to the study of teachers’ professionalization and organizational commitment in multidimensional approach (Noordin and others, 2010).

1.1. Self-efficacy

Kittur (2013) says, “From the past two decades, there have been continues effort and interest from experts to understand the outcome of self-efficacy on human behavior. According to the experts there is significant positive relationship between thinking and performance. Thus who thinks can perform well on a task, do better than
whom thinks will fail. Moreover structure of self-efficacy organizes one’s verdict about ability to fulfill a particular pattern. Thus self-efficacy level can predict whether or not an individual will try to perform a given task. According to the results of some studies, Self-efficacy is known to have remarkable potential interpretive power over characters such as: self-regulation, achievement fields, academic success, coping, choice of career opportunities, and career competency.”

According to Staple et al. (1998), the concept of self-efficacy indicates personal capabilities to fix and fulfill a particular task. Thus increasing in level of self-efficacy significantly relates with improvement in level of organizational performance.” Bandura (1994) says that the structure of self-efficacy illustrates the level of one’s trust in skills that a person may have. Thus people with high level of self-efficacy evaluate a new condition as a competition. Moreover in case of failure they do not give up their effort, and recapture what they lost in the past, but people with low level of self-efficacy evaluate a new condition as a menace. They have low tendency for new situation and try to avoid them and then alleviate their function to achieve their targets.

1.1.1. Theoretical background

Self-efficacy’s theoretical bedrock is found in a social learning theory which was later progressed by Bandura into ‘social cognitive theory’. He had a great ambition about self-efficacy, as mentioned in his article’s title “Self- Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change.” In this initial work, Bandura refers self-efficacy as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy faith is characterized as the chief intermediary for our treatment and performance. Since foundation of self- efficacy theory in 1974, Bandura’s efforts continued to develop
and assert the opinion that faith in abilities have a significant relationship with performance, motivation, and ultimately cause feat or defeat. Furthermore he proposed that self-efficacy is clearly natural self-referent and is a powerful predictor of behavior that directs capabilities for fulfilling given tasks (Bandura, 1997).

Bandura’ Social-cognitive theory of learning indicates that self-efficacy has a significant and positive relationship with behavioral, environmental and cognitive factors (Bandura, 1986). Substantial sense of self-efficacy is necessary to maintain the essential care on efficiency and a permanent attempt to achieve goals. Thus high level of self-efficacy is the major key for success (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Bandura (1986) states that, “In Social Learning Theory Bandura highlighted that an individuals’ belief regarding their own self-efficacy forms the main part of their self-awareness. People redirect their level and distribution of effort in match with the effects they expect their actions to have. As a result, their behavior is better predicted from their beliefs than from the actual consequences of their actions. Moreover dualistic doctrines that regard mind and body as separate entities do not provide much enlightenment on the nature of the disembodied mental state or on how immaterial mind and bodily events act on each other. Studies have connected self-efficacy to a variety of clinical issues such as phobias.”

Self-efficacy has a wide and stable nature and is manifested as confidence in coping skills in a wide range of challenging situations. However, the degree of universality may change related to diverse findings on qualitative domains of the situation (behavioral, affective and cognitive), and qualitative aspects of the situation. General self-efficacy seems to be a better predictor of performance than specific self-efficacy. However some other studies showed that the two types of self-efficacy (generalized and specific) are positively related, and may complete with each other.
(Jex & Bliese, 1999; Watt & Martin, 1995, Schwarzer, 1999, Grau and others 2001). According Zimmerman (1995) “Self-efficacy indicates what a person can do rather than personal judgments about one’s personal attributes. It has several dimensions such as level, generality, and strength. The level of self-efficacy explains its affiliation on the difficulty level of a particular problem such as math addition problems of increasing difficulty. Generality of self-efficacy explains the transferability of self-efficacy judgments across different activities, such as different academic subjects. Strength of efficacy explains the certainty with which one can perform a specific task. The structure of self-efficacy has a diversity of distinctive characteristics. These characters are important since they provide a point of comparison with other feature and have implications for how self-efficacy should be measured. A first feature of self-efficacy concentrates on perceived capabilities to perform an activity rather than on personal or psychological traits and characteristics.” Moreover, some other authors find out that to measure self-efficacy developing some measures of specific skills in specific populations is necessary (Maibach& Murphy, 1995; Bandura, 1997, Grau and others 2001). Self-efficacy is related to better self growth, enhanced social relationship and wellbeing. Generally, self-efficacy acts as a mediator in the relationship between control and initiative when they are concurrent and as a moderator when the personal initiatives are retrospective (Speir & Frese, 1997). However some other authors consider that self-efficacy has relationship with study of stress and performance and fulfilling a moderating role. Furthermore, control is considered as a key factor in the stress process so stress doesn’t have harmful effects in the case if control exists. On the other hand, exposure to stress without control may lead to undesired effects. Bandura’s Cognitive Social Theory also considers the experience of stress in terms of low efficacy for exercising control over stressful
situations. (Bandura, 1997; Jex & Bliese, 1999; Schwarzer, 1999, Grau and others 2001)

The second feature of self-efficacy is distinctive because it is domain-specific, context-specific and task-specific. In terms of context-specificity, people may express a lower sense of self-efficacy to learn in competitive situation than in co-operative ones. Self-efficacy has multi-dimensional nature that varies across specific tasks within a particular domain. For example, one may perform addition and multiplication problems but may have low self-efficacy for solving subtraction and division problems. This multi-dimensional level of analysis is a hallmark feature to micro analytic self-efficacy assessments (Bandura, 1997; Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004). A third dimension of self-efficacy is its dependence on a master criterion of performance rather than normative. For example, students rate how well they can write an essay at a specific level of performance rather than how much better they can write than their peers. Finally, self-efficacy is usually assessed prior to engaging in a particular task or activity (Zimmerman, 2000).

Career Self-Efficacy Theory has emerged from a number of empirical studies based on social cognitive theory (Betz & Gail, 1981; Betz, et al., 1996; Lenox & Subich, 1994; Osipow et al., 1993; Rooney & Osipow, 1992). The structure of career self-efficacy indicates people’s belief in their ability to successfully engage in specific work-related activities. The theory emphasizes the interlocking processes of interest development, choice, and performance. Moreover the theory attempts a cognitive approach to career development, where forethought, anticipation of outcome, and active construction of meaning is emphasized. In this theory person is seen as proactive shapers of his/her environment, not merely as responder (Lent, et al, 1994).
Career self-efficacy theory indicates that increasing the self-efficacy of employees will increase motivation and performance. The basic idea behind this theory is that motivation and performance are determined by how successful people believe they can be (Bandura, 1982). This is useful in the workplace because employers can improve self-efficacy faith in their employees by concentrating on the four primary sources such as performance outcomes, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal. Thus employee’s effort, persistence, goal setting, and performance on tasks can improve (Bandura, 1977).

1.1.2. Definition

Bandura (1986) defined “Self-efficacy as an individual’s sense and confidence in their abilities to achieve their goals.”

Stumpf et al., (1987) defined “Occupational self-efficacy as an ability to cope with current changes in career plan.”

Wood and Bandura (1989) states “Self-efficacy as faith in ones capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet the given situations’ demands.”

Gist (1989) defined Occupational self-efficacy “as the ability to produce new ideas and grow to a higher level.”

Wood et al. (1990), defined Occupational self-efficacy “as the ability to perform better as a team.”

Bandura (1991) defined Self-efficacy “as ones faith about ones capabilities carrying out necessary activities to successfully display a performance in life.”
Gist and Mitchell (1992) defined self-efficacy “as a one’s ability to orchestrate performance through successfully executing the behaviors that are required to produce demanded outcomes.”

Mitchell et al. (1994) defined Occupational self-efficacy “as the ability to acquire more skills”.

Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy “as faith in ones capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to manage a prospective situation. It constitutes a faith about one’s ability to fulfill a particular task pattern.”

Evers, Brouwers and Tomic (2002) defined self-efficacy “as faith that one is able to do certain things. So, self-efficacy includes both ones’ competencies and beliefs in terms with oneself being able to operate successfully.”

Omrod (2006) defined Occupational self-efficacy “as the one’s own capacity to perform the given tasks and reach organizational goals.”

1.1.3. Dimensions of Self-efficacy

Beliefs of self-efficacy are usually measured along three basic dimensions such as Magnitude, Strength and Generalizability. The magnitude of self-efficacy indicates to the level of task difficulty ones believes is acquirable. Individuals with a high magnitude of self-efficacy will see themselves as able to accomplish difficult activities, while those with a low self-efficacy magnitude will see themselves as only able to execute simple responsibilities. (Higgins & Compeau 1995)

Self-efficacy strength indicates the level of beliefs through an individual’s personal faith. It also reflects the persistence of self-efficacy to disconfirming witting. People with a low level of self-efficacy will be easily frustrated with hindrances to
their work and will reply by lower perceptions of their susceptibility. In conflict, people with a higher level of self-efficacy will not be deterred by difficult tasks and will maintain their sense of self-confidence, and as a conclusion of their incessant persistence are more possibility to dominate whatever obstacle is put their way (Brief & Aldag, 1981).

Generalizability of self-efficacy indicates the extent of perceptions limited to particular performance. Some individuals believe they are capable of performing well only under particular circumstances, while others might believe they can execute the particular behavior under any circumstances and also perform well (Brief & Aldag, 1981).

1.1.4 Sources of Self-efficacy

Four important sources have been determined for the creation or change of self-efficacy belief system. These sources are: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and psychological responses to experiences.

Mastery experiences are situations in which people carry out productively whereas vicarious experiences are situations in which people observe others performances and compare themselves to their woks to form beliefs about their own abilities. Social persuasion is merely feedback from others that by doing authentic and a reasonable match to one’s personal appraisal of abilities whereas physiological responses represents physical and emotional reactions to situations (Bandura, 1982, 1986).

Four sources of information that people utilize to judge ones ‘self’ efficacy are as follows: Enactive mastery, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and
physiological emotional arousal. Enactive mastery is the most powerful sources of self-efficacy. Prior experiences provide straight symptoms of our level of ability and competency. Previous accomplishments signify our abilities and make our self-efficacy stronger. Earlier successive defeats make our self-efficacy lower. Receiving feedback is an important indicator of performance on ones' progress or ones’ fulfillment in a particular performance.

Vicarious Experiences indicates witnessing other people fulfill successfully which in turn make ones’ self-efficacy stronger particularly if the people we observe have analogous capacity. We will say to our self: “If they can do it, so can I.” On the other hand, witnessing others fail can make our self-efficiency lower and we may say, “If they can’t do it, neither can I.” Hence impressive patterns are essential in impact our feelings of sufficiency and proficiency. These patterns also guide us suitable strategies for solving problems.

Verbal persuasion indicates memorializing people that they have the capability to reach their target and can increase level of our self-efficacy. Verbal persuasion may be regularly proffered by parents, partners, fellows, administrators, etc. Physiological and emotional arousal indicates the fearfulness and quiet in stressful condition. This information indicates the coping mechanism of people. Thus a higher level of physiological and emotional arousal shows a lower level self-efficacy. Unlike a higher lower physiological and emotional arousal shows a higher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1982, 1986, 1994).

**1.1.5 The Process and Impact of Self-efficacy**

Bandura (1994) outlined the four major psychological processes of self-efficacy that affect human being life.
A. Cognitive Processes

Self-efficacy influences on cognitive processes in different forms. Much human behavior is influenced by self-appraisal of abilities. There is significant and positive relationship between the perceived self-efficacy and the goal challenges people set for themselves. Every action may be first organized in mind. People's beliefs shape the types of primary scenarios they build and tell. High sense of efficacy, cause success scenarios and supports performance. Doubt in self-efficacy cause failure scenarios and everything can go wrong. With fighting self-doubt, it is difficult to achieve targets. Thought can enable people to predict events and to develop ways to control those that affect their lives. Strong sense of efficacy is helpful to remain task oriented in the face of pressing situational demands, failures and setbacks. Indeed, when people are managing difficult environmental demands, those who have more self-doubts about their efficacy become more erratic in their analytic thinking and it cause low aspirations and low quality performance. In contrast, high sense of efficacy is helpful for challenging goals and use good analytic thinking which cause performance accomplishments.

B. Motivational Processes

Self-efficacy faith is key element of the self-regulation of motivation. By the exercise of forethought, people guide their actions such as form beliefs about what they can do. They can guess outcomes of prospective actions and plan courses of action designed to realize valued futures.

There are three different forms of cognitive motivators. They include causal attributions, outcome expectancies, and cognized goals.
Causal attributions: Causal attributions affect motivation, performance and affective reactions mainly through beliefs of self-efficacy. Those who regard themselves as highly efficient attribute their defeat to insufficient effort, those who regard themselves as ineffective attribute their defeat to insufficient capability.

Outcome expectancies: people’s faith guides them about what they can do, as well as their belief about the outcomes of performance. The motivating influence in outcome expectancies is partly ruled by self-efficacy. There are countless attractive options people do not pursue because they judge they lack the capabilities for them. Motivation involves a cognitive comparison process. Thus goals operate largely through self-suggestion processes rather than action directly. People seek self-satisfaction with perform wanted targets and prompt to strengthen efforts by displeasure tasks.

Cognized goals: Motivation based on goals is ruled by three types of self-influences such as self-satisfying and self-dissatisfying response to one's fulfillment, perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, and readjustment of targets based on progress. Self-efficacy faith influence motivation in determining the goals; effort expends; persevere in the face of difficulties; and resilience to failures. People with self-doubts about their capabilities give up quickly when faced with obstacles. Those with strong faith in their abilities put greater effort when they have master challenge.

C. Affective Processes

Faith in one’s capabilities affects how much stress s/he has in difficult situations. People with high self-esteem do not call up disturbing thought patterns.
However, those with low belief in threats management experience high anxiety provocation; they agony themselves and weaken their level of functioning. Perceived coping self-efficacy controls both avoidance behavior and anxiety arousal.

For regulating thought produced stress and depression, perceived self-efficacy to control thought processes is a key factor. On the other hand, both perceived coping self-efficacy and thought control efficacy work together to reduce anxiety and avoidant behavior.

Social cognitive theory recommends mastery experiences as the main way of personality change. Mastery experiences are built up in ways to build coping skills and introduce beliefs that enable people exercise control over any probable threats.

Experiences oriented towards self provide different tests of managing capacities. Building flexible sense of efficacy results in coping with difficulties and misfortunes without adverse effects.

Both depression and anxiety are inevitable outcomes of low sense of self-efficacy to exercise control produces; which does so in several different ways. Unfulfilled aspiration is considered to be the first route to depression. People with standards of self-worth drive themselves to bouts of depression. A low sense of social efficacy is a second efficacy route that leads to depression. People who evaluate themselves as efficacious build desirable social relationships that provide platform as to how to manage crucial situations.

Alternative efficacy generated processes in the affective dimension concern the influence of perceived coping self-efficacy that affect health functioning.
Perceived self-efficacy influences every phase of personal life. The higher the perceived self-regulatory efficacy the more successful people are in reducing health-impairing habits and adopting and integrating health-promoting habits into their regular lifestyle. Comprehensive community programs designed to prevent cardiovascular disease by altering risk-related habits reduce the rate of morbidity and mortality.

D. Selection Processes

People are partly the product of their environment. Therefore, beliefs of self-efficacy can shape the course lives taken by influencing the types of activities and environments people choose. People avoid activities and situations they believe that exceed their coping capabilities. But they readily undertake challenging activities and select situations they judge themselves capable of handling. By the choices they make, people cultivate different competencies, interests and social networks that determine life courses. Any factor that influences choice behavior can profoundly affect the direction of personal development. This is because the social influences operating in selected environments continue to promote certain competencies, values, and interests long after the efficacy decisional determinant has rendered its inaugurating effect.

Career choice and development is but one example of the power of self-efficacy beliefs to affect the course of life paths through choice-related processes. The higher the level of people's perceived self-efficacy the wider the range of career options they seriously consider, the greater their interest in them, and the better they prepare themselves educationally for the occupational pursuits they choose and the greater is their success.
Thus self-efficacy affects every one’s effort. Sense of self-efficacy direction establish by deciding faiths that an individual impounds regarding his or her power among certain situations. It forcefully infiltrates both the authority to face difficulties properly and the choices a person is most likely to make. The self-efficacy process influence human behavior functions directly and indirectly impact on its determination. Primarily people tend to measure and complete information about their own perceived abilities. This primary process has little to do with a person’s resources or capabilities, but rather they believe that they can use their power and resources to fulfill a given task. The steps of process of self-efficacy briefly are:

1. **Choice Behaviors**: Directions for actions are made depending upon how a person feels regarding action.
2. **Motivational Effort**: When people have strong feeling of self efficacy they try harder and put more efforts to perform task.
3. **Perseverance**: People with strong self efficacy will be more resilient when faced with failures and problems failures.
4. **Facilitative Thought Patterns**: Efficacy influences self-task. Those with high self-efficacy might say to them “I know I can figure out how to solve this problem.” Whereas those with low self-efficacy might say to themselves, “I knew I couldn’t do it, I didn’t have the ability.”
5. **Vulnerability to Stress**: people with high self-efficacy pass through possible stressful experiences with confidence and assurance and thus are able to resist worries of failure whereas people with low self-efficacy experience more stress and burnout because their high level of failure expectation.

1.1.6. **Applications of Self-efficacy**
Self-efficacy is sometimes measured as a whole; it can also be measured in particular functional situations.

**Clinical Self-Efficacy**: Self-efficacy was first used to analyze changes achieved in fearful and avoidant behavior. Psychotherapeutic treatment such as desensitization, symbolic modeling and firsthand mastery experiences found a change in the behavior of clients.

**Academic Self-Efficacy**: This refers to the belief that one can successfully engage and complete course-specific academic tasks like accomplishing course aims, satisfactorily completing assignments, achieving a good grade, and meeting the requirements to continue pursuing one’s major course of study.

**Occupational Self-Efficacy**: It refers to belief in one’s abilities and skills to perform and fulfill the requirements at the workplace.

### 1.1.7 Occupational Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has a very well established body of applicable knowledge and positive reaction performance. Although, workplace is given considerable attention in Bandura’s 1997 book *self-efficacy*; he recently provided a focused review on the growing research literature of the direct and indirect impact that self-efficacy has on work related personal and organizational effectiveness. The impact of self-efficacy includes a wide range of organizational behaviors such as career choice and development, new employee training, job enrichment supportive teams, entrepreneurship, leadership and stress. Therefore, for developing and strengthening beliefs of personal efficacy in work place, people need to pay more consideration to its strategies and principles.
The following are some practical implications and specific guidelines for effective management of human performance in present and future organizations.

**Selection of Human Resources:** Selecting high-performing individuals is important in secular organizations. To do so, self-efficacy could be used as a helpful tool. While hiring, making an assignment to a specific project, promoting someone into an identifiable area of responsibility and assessing the person's strength of self-efficacy would be an invaluable input for the selection decision.

**Leadership:** Leadership can be defined as a process of identifying a group goal and corresponding strategy and then influencing others to direct their efforts voluntarily in pursuit of it. Leaders who favorably judge their ability to pilot change are expected to be seen by others as initiating more efforts and persisting longer at accomplishing goals even in the face of obstacles. The leadership efficacy will have a strong impact on followers and when seen as role models increase the potential performance outcome.

**Training and Development:** Self-efficacy is a dynamic construct and keeps changing as a result of new information and experiences. Efficacy training and development can have considerable impact on employee performance management. The implications of self-efficacy for training and development are numerous. Low self-efficacy may pinpoint specific training needs. It is more complex but increasingly common for all levels in the modern workplace. There are ways to enhance self-efficacy for decision making and problem solving. This can be done through the application of mastery modeling and learning thinking skills. Observing decision rules and reasoning strategies lead to solution for the problems based on effective decisions.
**Vocational Counseling**: A self-efficacy approach to vocational counseling can be used to augment interest measures. Individuals who are unsure of new career directions could be tested for perceived competencies in a variety of occupations. They can be advised of the chances of success in fields in which they score high. In cases where career opportunities are good but perceived competencies are low, a trial enactive mastery period might be offered.

**Other Applications**

Self-efficacy also has implications on stress management, self-managed teams, job design and goal setting. One application approach would be to enhance self-efficacy to better cope with stress and facilitate productive teamwork and collective efficacy of self-managed teams. Another approach would be to use job designs that provide more responsibility, challenges and empowered personal control over the work to enhance the job holder’s perception of self-efficacy.

Employee’s comparison in an organization and between organizations can be done using wider assessment tool. Occupational self efficacy focuses on this point and considers self efficacy as an area specific evaluation.

1.1.8. **Teacher’s self-efficacy**

Assessment of teacher’s capability to carry required effects related possible connection with school (Henson, 2001). A teachers’ beliefs as regards their degree of influence in the students’ involvement learning process has been characterized as their level of occupational self-efficacy (Tschannen- Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy2011), (Gkolia and others2014). Bandura confirmed citizens amid near to the ground self-efficacy are inadequate, but they know of what they are believed to perform. Thus level of self-efficacy motivates teachers’ ‘performance in stressful situation (Gkolia
and others2014). A teachers’ high level of self-efficacy indicates their confidence in their capability to perform different issues (Staple and others, 1998; Gkolia and others2014).

Gibbs, (2003) mentioned four forms of teachers’ self-efficacy. These are behavioral, cognitive, emotional and the culture of one’s self-efficacy.

Latest studies have indicated that within the Italian school system, a teachers’ self-efficacy influence their job satisfaction and their commitment to school. Teachers’ mental health (such as their self-efficacy level) influence in their teaching performance. Self-efficacy can be a strong interpreter of a educator’s job obligation and active participation which is why a teacher’s self-efficacy is an appropriate element to be used in implementing large-scale prevention policies and interventions in schools.(Rosa&Alessandri,2009). There is positive relationship between students’ learning drive and teaching efficacy (Chu,2003). The assessment of training success includes association clearness, knowledge worth, coach passion, collection communication, creature relationship, and width of reporting, exam grading, and workload complexity (Bailey, 1999).

1.1.9 Self-Efficacy and Employee Performance

According to the great deal of evidence which has emphasized the significance of employees’ self-efficacy and performance including the capability to reach advanced technologies like the internet or new software’s in the workplace (Hill et al., 1987). However there are very few studies which have examined the overall influence of self- efficacy and motivation on employee performance. Old studies showed that self-efficacy and motivation are complementary parts to fulfillment and both of them contribute to effectiveness performance quality in the workplace. Thus most
researchers put efforts on understanding the performance conscientiousness and a few researchers paid attention to influence of personal traits mechanisms through performance (Barrick et al., 2002). Higher self-efficacy is associated with higher outcome and greater job satisfaction to better physical and mental health along with better fulfillment (Bandura, 1997, Robbins et al., 2004, Judge 2001, et al., 2001). High self-efficacy as a component of a self-schema for a realm might have alike outcomes with those who have originally high self-efficacy. Linked to this idea, early research in other areas illustrates that retouch employees' perceptions with respect to motivation will have an effect on their fulfillment (DeDonno & Demaree, 2008). Employee who has the commitment capability to his/her occupation is always found to make efforts to promote skills and motivate themselves to better fulfillment. It is also found that those employees spend time and energy to develop their occupational skills and promoting their self-efficacy by performing better job involvement (Blau 1989, Aryee & Tan, 1992). Thus self-efficacy could be a predictor to organizational commitment and there is a degree of association between motivation, employee performance and self-efficacy (Jacob Cherian & Jolly Jacob, 2013)

1.1.10 Guidelines to Enhance Self-Efficacy at Workplace

Improving performance among employees can be done by following techniques:

1. **Recruit Applicants with High Self-Efficacy**: Careful hiring practice and utilization of specific interview questions that probe into applicant’s general
level of self-efficacy are important. Selecting individuals who have high self-efficacy beliefs will increase the probability of good performance.

2. **Ensure Job Demands are Appropriate**: Individuals master completing complex challenges increase self-efficacy. Individuals who lack opportunity to engage in challenging work are often bored and disengaged leading to a decrease in self-efficacy.

3. **Improve Training and Professional Development Practices**: Self-efficacy can be increased through guided experience, mentoring and role modeling. Leaders who exemplify self-efficacy are role models.

4. **Enhance Self-Management Techniques**: Systematic self-management training enhances self-efficacy. It encourages employees to set realistic goals, delineate clear priorities, be well organized and enhance time management skills.

5. **Set Reasonable Goals and Expectations**: Goal difficulty should match the individuals or group levels of perceived self-efficacy. As self-efficacy and performance increase, so should the complexity of the task demands and the level of the goal.

6. **Confidence in Employees**: It is necessary to have confidence in employees and to convince them that they possess the ability to succeed at a particular task.

7. **Acknowledge and Reward**: Both small and large successes should be acknowledged and rewarded. These will enhance self-efficacy and lead to greater achievements.
1.2. Psychological well-being

According to WHO (2001) defines “health as the capacity to participate in community life rather than the traditional narrower view of health as the absence of disease. Thus health refers to “state of well-being in which the people are able to perform productively and fruitfully and is able to make a contribution to their society.” Well-being has a complex structure that concerns with peoples’ optimized experience and performance. Our well-being is formed by our genes, nurture, personal position and options and our plural well-being will improve if we live in a tranquil, flourishing and encouraging community. Well-being is more amplifying than happiness. Somehow it is about our lives meaning, growing and sense that our lives are fulfilling and valuable. Well-being has significant and positive relationship with communications and interests. Family members and close friends, occupation, relief hobbies and immaterial beliefs can enhance well-being. Notions of well-being are entirely linked to how individual observes the character of human being and what view is valued (Kumar, 2006). The fondness, feeling of attachment and belonging that presented by close ones have a major profit. Well-being is evaluated in terms of the degree to which peoples’ entrance to a set of resources as essential to meet the basic necessities for a healthy functioning and for managing day to day life problems. Furthermore well-being consists of both outside circumstances like achieve to community and financial resources and intellectual phenomena such as life satisfaction or happiness.

The impact of well-being at vocation has attracted more interest in recent decades. Well-being influences the fulfillment of employee, and organizations. Employee’s well-being has significant and positive relationship with employers’ benefits. Employees’ conditions such as output, achievement, productivity and
profitability will improve and they will be more positive, active, and resourceful when they feel good. Thus happy employees are healthier and have better performance in given tasks. Improving employees’ well-being positively relates with their capability to control emotions, better relationships with organization and adjust with workplace changes and job satisfaction. Thus improving health and well-being create a happier work force, and contributes to a higher level of nation’s health.

Psychological well-being is the center of intense research and the concept of psychological well-being has obtained more attention in the field of psychology in the last decade (Diener and others, 1995).

1.2.1 Definition

Psychological well-being is defined as a state that appears from feelings of satisfaction with one’s physical health and one’s interpersonal relationship as a person and with one’s personal relationships with society. Ryff and Keyes (1995) define well being based on “six key dimensions scale of well-being which are (a) self-acceptance based on the capacity to see and accept strengths and weaknesses; (b) personal growth which emerges from realizing talents and potential over time (c) having positive intimate and valued relations with significant others (d) autonomy (e) environmental mastery and (f) finding purpose in life by having goals and objectives that give life meaning and direction.”
1.2.2 Psychological well-being’s Areas

Ryff (1991) divided the properties of psychological well being into the number of areas such as Personal Growth, Environmental Mastery, Self Acceptance, Autonomy Purpose in Life and Positive Relations with others. Ryff identified the areas as contributing to people’s experience of psychological well-being. Brief explanation for those areas is as follows:

**Self-Acceptance**

Self-acceptance refers to having a positive attitude and acknowledgment and accepting multiple aspects of ourselves along with feeling positive about our past life. Thus it means being able to say when I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out so far.

**Personal Growth**

Personal growth refers to sense of continued development and potential and being open to new experiences; feeling increasingly knowledgeable and effective. It means ability to say my life has been a continuous process of learning, changing and growing.

**Purpose in life**

It refers to having goals and a sense of direction in life and feeling that both present and past experiences are meaningful as well as holding faith that gives purpose to life. It means being able to say ‘some people wander aimlessly through life; I am not one of them’.
Environmental Mastery

This means feeling competent, able to manage in a complex environment and to choose or create personally suitable contexts. It means being able to say; “I am good at managing the responsibilities of my daily life.”

Autonomy

This means being self-determining, independent and regulative over one’s behavior; resisting social pressures to think and act in certain ways and evaluating one’s life by personal standards. It means being able to say “I have confidence in my own opinions, even if they are different from the way most other people think”.

Positive Relationships with Others

This indicates to having warm, satisfying, trusting relationships along with being concerned about others’ welfare. Being capable of strong empathy, affection and intimacy and understanding give-and-take relationships. It means being able to say: “People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others”.

Each dimension of Psychological well-being expresses different challenges that individuals encounter as they try to perform positively.

1.2.3 Subjective well-being

Hedonic view of well-being is defined as a good life in terms of personal happiness. This view of well-being is expressed in terms of subjective well-being (Baumgardner & Crothers, 2009).
Some experts believe that happy and good life relates on a person’s own cognitive framework and perception. This perspective experience of happiness and satisfaction in one’s life is a subjective phenomenon and it relates on one’s assessment of life. This image of happiness and life satisfaction has been referred to subjective well-being. All indexes of psychological well-being have objective and subjective parts. The objective parts relate to concerns that are generally known by the life standards. However satisfaction or happiness with objective reality depends on the access to goods and services that are available to the community and also on a person’s expectations and perceived reality. Thus subjective well-being is considered a degree of compatibility between one’s wishes and needs with environmental demands and opportunities (Sell & Nagpal, 1992).

Subjective well-being has three different characters. First feature is subjective. It dwells with the experience of the individual. Second feature of subjective well-being includes positive evaluation of negative factors. Third feature of subjective well-being is a global assessment of all aspects of a person’s life (Campbell, 1976). Subjective Well-being illustrates how an individual evaluates his or her life. It is an opinion, an evaluation and an assessment (Diener and others, 1997: Argyle and others 1989: Diener, 2000).

Subjective well-being indicates people’s evaluation of their life and includes happiness, pleasant emotions, life satisfaction and a relative absence of unpleasant moods and emotions (Diener, 2000). Happiness is a state of feeling such as contentment, consent and lighthearted. Positive effects of happiness indicate pleasant emotions such as laughter and love. Life satisfaction is a subjective evaluation of the quality of life and is a key element of well-being. It is cognitively related to the
subjective arbitration of one's real life condition in relation to one's dream life (Jan & Masood, 2007).

### 1.2.4. Determinants of subjective well being

Successfully attaining frequent positive affects is sign of happiness for people. Thus they experience well-being when they have many pleasant times and few unpleasant emotions like when they are engaged in interesting activities and they are satisfied with their lives (Diener and others 2003). Variables such as income, marriage and religion and age influence the well-being (Diener & Oishi 2000), (Diener & Suh 1997), (Myers & Diener 1995). Culture also influences well-being. People who live in individualistic, rich and democratic cultures have better well-being than who live in collectivistic poor and totalitarian cultures. Moreover culture moderates the relation between hedonic balance and life satisfaction (Diener & Suh, 1999; Veenhoven, 1993; Suh et.al. 1998). Neuroticism and extraversion influence on hedonic balance (Lucas, Diener & Suh, 1996). Plainly c to increase well-being are important because happy people tend to have more positive work behavior and exhibit other desirable characteristics.

Improving well-being is particularly useful in organizations where the personnel aspects are the most important resource. An organization cannot grow and develop without healthy, satisfied, well-motivated and efficient work forces.

### 1.2.5. Traditional Theories of Well-Being

Well-being is divided into two general groups. Two major approaches to define well-being are namely, the hedonic and eudemonic approaches.
1.2.5. a The Hedonic View

Well-being with hedonic pleasure has a long history. Arstippus, a Greek philosopher from the fourth century indicated that to experience the maximum amount of pleasure is the target of life, and that happiness is the totality of one’s hedonic moments. The main hedonic view is that well-being includes subjective happiness and concerns the pleasure / displeasure experience of life. Furthermore it includes all feelings about the good/bad elements of life. Hedonic psychology indicates the study of “what makes Foundations of Hedonic Psychology”. It suggested that inside the pattern, the words well-being and hedonism are basically equal. There are many methods to evaluate the enjoyment and pain, the majority of research inside the new hedonic psychology has used evaluation of subjective well-being (Diener & Lucas, 1999; Kahneman et al. 1999). Atkinson in his Expectancy-value theory suggested that there are expectations as well as values or beliefs that affect subsequent behavior. He aimed to understand the achievement motivation of individuals. Theoretical and empirical study suggested that expectancies and values interact to predict important outcomes such as engagement, continuing interest, and academic achievement. Other factors, including demographic characteristics, stereotypes, prior experiences, and perceptions of others' beliefs and behaviors affect achievement related outcomes indirectly through these expectancies and values. Furthermore, the hedonic psychologists and expectancy-value theorize claimed that the goals through which well-being are improved can be culturally specific and would also seem to fit well within a relativistic, postmodern view.
1.2.5. b. The Eudemonic approach

The eudemonic approach to subjective well-being illustrates the area which an individual experiences of feelings that are considered to show better mental health, such as the extent to which they feel about concept of purpose. The eudemonic approach therefore starts from the position that some actions or personal states are more appropriate or worthwhile than others, and views subjective well-being primarily in terms of self-actualization and virtuous behavior rather than in terms of self-gratification. The essential distinction from the hedonic approach can be illustrated by reference to an employee who, like a parent, may find their role stressful and be dissatisfied with its financial rewards, but who may nevertheless gain a strong sense of purpose from that role. Diener et al. (1998) illustrated that Ryff and Singer’s eudemonic standard allows experts to clarify well-being, while subjective well-being studies allow people to tell research scholar what help them to have better performance. This conflict of paradigms illustrate that these opposed explanations of wellness have led to different types of examination regarding the causes, consequences, and dynamics of well-being.

Self-determination theory is a different viewpoint that emphasizes the idea of eudemonia, as a essential meaning of well-being and attempted to specify what it means to actualize one’s self and how that can be achieved (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Self-determination theory indicated three basic psychological needs such as independence, skill and relatedness. Thus achievement of these needs is necessary for motivation, internalization and assimilation of cultural performance, well-being, experiences of vitality and self-congruence (Ryan & Frederick, 1997; Sheldon& Elliot, 1999). Moreover, self-determination theory illustrates the conditions that facilitate against undermining well-being inside various developmental eras and specific social
contexts such as schools, workplaces, and friendships. Contextual, cultural and developmental factors continually affect the forms of expression, the means of happiness, and the ambient supports for these needs, and it is because of their effects on need satisfaction that they consecutively influence development, reliability, and well-being.

Self-determination theory has both significant resemblances and disparity with Ryff and Singer's eudemonic approach. Rogers (1963) mentioned that well-being consists in what being completely functioning, rather than as simply attaining desires. These contents are the most important issues that promote well-being. Self-determination theory shows that contentment of the basic psychological needs typically promoted by subjective well-being as well as eudemonic well-being. Being content with one's life and sensation have a more positive influence and less negative influence (the typical measures of subjective well-being) repeatedly pointing to psychological well-being. The assessment of positive and negative influence is helpful as feelings are in some way reviews of the importance and valence of events and circumstances of life concerning the individual. Therefore in Self-determination theory study they have usually used subjective well-being as one of several symbols of well-being. succeeding at an activity while feeling pressured to do so resulted in happiness (a positive affect closely linked to subjective well-being), but it did not result in vitality (a positive affect more closely aligned with eudemonic well-being)". In contrast as expected by Self-determination theory, succeeding at an activity while feeling self-governing resulted in both pleasure and liveliness. (Nix et al. 1999)
1.2.6 Warr’s Model of Mental Health

Daniels (2000) states that, “Potentially offering a better understanding of how particular work characteristics and affects an employees’ well-being. The benefit of conceptualizing well-being as occupation-specific is that relationships with job-related precursors are stronger for job-related well-being. Further, there are four primary dimensions such as affective wellbeing, aspiration, autonomy and competence and united functioning as a secondary fifth dimension that encompasses the four primary dimensions and reflects the person as a whole. Practical proof shows that the pleasure–displeasure axis accounts for most of the covariance between aspects of affective well-being. Many present tools for measuring occupational well-being, chiefly tap the affective dimension of well-being. Goal submits to people showing interest in their surroundings, attractive in motivated activity, and looking to expand themselves in ways that are personally significant. Job-related aspiration refers to the degree to which a person pursues challenging goals in the job. Related terms are intrinsic motivation and growth-need strength.”

1.3. Organizational Commitment.

Organizational commitment is an important concept in Human resource management. It is an integration and communication for people management in organizations which adopt its philosophy.

Integration revolves linkage between employee behavior and the goals of the organization. Hence, commitment to the mission and values of the organization is fundamentally required. As a concept it is clearly related to ‘strong’ corporate culture. Commitment is defined to be an emotional attachment to the organization.
Organizational elements, both internal and external, have a relationship with Psychological empowerment of employee (Thirichelvam & Velnampy, 2009).

Attitudes tend to group and classify themselves. A person, who has developed a good attitude toward one aspect of the job based on exceptional experiences, is more likely to counter favorably to the associated job aspects. Thus, one is likely to be satisfied with the job and committed to the organization if one is involved in a job. A person may turn out to be less involved in the work and less committed to the employer if he is dissatisfied with a job. Hence, organizational commitment could be affected by learned helplessness on job involvement (Velnampy, 2008).

Organizational commitment has drawn much attention as an attitudinal topic for research for the past 20 years (Erdheim, et al., 2006; Morrow, 1993). In Industrial and Organizational Psychology, it is the second most studied work attitude (The Pennsylvania State University, 2011). Having noticed by previous studies’ findings, employees with high organizational commitment do not only tend to remain longer with their organization, but also show more positive on-the-job behavior (e.g., attendance, task performance and contextual performance), experience more job satisfaction, involvement, and cope better with stress at work (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Meyer, et al., 2002).

Employees are very precious resources to any organization; especially the dedicated employees. Accordingly, the exploration of organizational commitment and its correlates is of great importance (Arya and others, 2012).

Perception of organizational commitment has been regarded as a significant construct in the perception of work behavior of an employee. Commitment is not
merely a human relation notion; rather it is about generating human energy and putting the human mind on the go. Organizations would like to amplify the level of commitment among members. Highly committed workers are expected to continue with the organization for a longer period of time. Highly committed employees long to stay connected with the organization and move on with organizational goals; they are less expected to leave (Salami & Omole 2005). Employee commitment guides the employees to organizational benefits such as continuous flow of improvements and active employee participation. Committed employees, who are well trained, supposed to enhance an organization as they feel safe in jobs and feel proud of their team and are proud of their jobs and enjoy it (Jamiieson & Richard, 1996).

Organizational commitment is a working approach of employees who have a sense of recognition to bring about organizational goals and wish to preserve good relationships with members within the organization (Robbins, 1991). It is the relative affiliated level of an individual’s feelings about an organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979). Cohen (2003) considered organizational commitment as one’s attitude, which includes affect, belief and behavioral intention toward one’s work. The level of a teacher’s commitment to school can be determined by several variables: the interaction between teachers, relationship between teacher and student, the quality of work done by the teachers and the working environment (Celep, 2000). Commitment creates an emotional connection between the teacher and the school. It can lead to motivation to work, as well (Mart, 2013).
1.3.1 History of the Concept

Organizational commitment has been studied in the public, private, and non-profit sector and more recently internationally. Whereas early researches focused on defining the concept, current research continue to examine organizational commitment through two popular approaches, commitment-related attitudes and commitment-related behaviors (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mowday et al., 1979; Hall, 1977).

Regarding the influence of Human Resource Management over development of commitment, two schools came into appearance. The first one brings to light the hard school of Human Resource Management, which has its origins in Taylorism. Till 1980’s the main concerns of management was structure with stress on the technical aspects of work and the organization’s strategy. People were seen as a resource to be spent like any other. In the contrary to this view is the soft school of Human Resource Management which recognizes people motivated by a complex set of factors that are interrelated. These factors include money, the need for association or achievement and the desire for meaningful work. The soft school of Human Resource Management focuses on employees as possible talents and it is the management’s responsibility to learn how best to attract and maintain these resources (Paauwe, 2004).

A change in the thinking and values of managers during that period was coupled with different writers underlining the importance of commitment, as an example, it is similar to the article written by Walton “From control to commitment”. Walton (1985) considered a commitment strategy as a more rewarding approach to Human Resource Management in comparison with the conventional control strategy. He suggested that it not the time when workers are tightly controlled by management,
placed in narrowly definite jobs and told what to do can respond better, but instead when they are given broader responsibilities and encouraged to participate as well.

The concept of organizational commitment has fascinated significant attention lately and has become a vital goal for human resource management. Human Resource Management policies are considered to make the most of organizational integration, flexibility, employee commitment and quality of work. Individuals can display this attachment at a variety of levels like to their profession, department, job, boss or organization. There has been a stable augment in the study of organizational commitment as a workplace construct (Kittur 2013).

1.3.2 Definitions

Crosswell (2006) states that, “Researchers have decided that commitment can take various forms and that it is a complex construct; as so, it has been defined in different ways. Commitment is defined as a high level of attachment to an organization.”

Mowday, et al. (1982) defined and claimed that, “organizational commitment has three components: identification with the goals and values of the organization, a desire to belong to the organization and a willingness to display effort on behalf of the organization.”

It is the level of one’s relationship and experience as a means of loyalty towards a person’s organization. In addition to loyalty, organizational commitment includes an individual’s will to broaden the effort in order to further define an organization’s goals and the degree of alignment of the organization in relation with the goals and values of the individual.
According to O’Reilly (1986), organizational commitment is “an individual’s psychological bond to the organization, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty and belief in the values of the organization”. Accordingly, organizational commitment is described by employee’s reception of organizational goals and their will to yield effort on behalf of the organization.

Cohen (2003) quotes that, “commitment is a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets”.

Meyer, et al. (1991) also suggests that, “organizational commitment as an attitude is “characterized by a favorable positive cognitive and affective component about the organization.”

Mullins (2007) defined “Organizational commitment as an employee’s level of identification and involvement in the organization.”

### 1.3.3 Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct with three distinct attitudinal components (Meyer & Allen, 1991, & Dunham et al., 1994). They are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. These components symbolize three psychological states of employees with consideration to an organization that affect their decision to keep membership with the organization.

Affective commitment is defined as an emotional attachment, identification, and involvement that an employee is involved with its organization and objectives
(Mowday et al., 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1993). People reach high degrees of sentimental commitment and desire to maintain in the organization because they support what the organization stands for and is willing to help it in its mission (Porter and others 1974), further, introduced the characteristics of affective commitment by three factors (1) belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, (2) a willingness to focus effort on helping the organization achieve its goals, and (3) a desire to maintain organizational membership. Mowday et al. (1979), further, state that affective communication is “when the employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals in order to maintain membership to facilitate the goal”.

The second dimension of the tri-dimensional model of organizational commitment is continuance commitment. Meyer & Allen (1997) describe continuance as “awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization”. Continuance commitment also contains factors such as years of employment or benefits that the employee may receive which are exceptional to the organization (Reichers, 1985). Meyer and Allen (1997) further explain that employees who share continuance commitment with their employer often make it very hard for an employee to abandon the organization.

The last dimension of the organizational commitment is normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) define normative commitment as “a feeling of obligation to continue employment”. Internalized normative beliefs of duty and responsibility make individuals obliged to maintain membership in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Wiener (1982) describes normative commitment as “the work behavior of individuals, guided by a sense of duty, obligation and loyalty towards the organization”. Organizational members are dedicated to institutions that
are based on moral grounds. The normative devoted employee considers it morally right to stay in the organization, regardless of how much status augmentation or satisfaction the organization offers him/her over the years.

1.3.4 Developing Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is an impulsive process, which develop through the orientation of individuals to the organization. It develops through stages, which are outlined by O'Reilly (1986) as compliance, identification and internalization. These stages are described below:

**Compliance Stage**

It consolidates around the employee accepting the influence of others mainly to benefit them, through remuneration or promotion. At this stage, attitudes and behaviors are approved not because of shared beliefs but just to achieve specific rewards. The characteristic of organizational commitment in the compliance level is linked to the continuance dimension of commitment (Beck & Carlene, 2000).

**Identification Stage**

This stage takes place when employees accept the influence of others in order to retain a satisfying self-defining relationship with the organization. Organizational commitment at this stage is based on the normative dimension, employees feel proud to be part of the organization; they consider the roles they have in the organization as part their self-identify (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

**Internalization Stage**

Organizational commitment at this level is based on the affective dimension (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It takes place when the employees find the values of the
organization to be innately rewarding and matching with his/her personal values. The employee at this stage develops not only the sense of belonging but excitement to belong to the organization. The norms of the individuals are; hence, matching with those of the group and the organization.

1.3.5 Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment

There are many factors that shape organizational commitment: job-related factors, employment opportunities, personal characteristics, positive relationships, organizational structure and management style.

At the individual level, organizational commitment is a significant job-related outcome, which may have effects on other job-related outcomes such as earning, attendance, job effort, job role and performance or vice versa (Randal et. al., 1990). The job role that is unclear may lead to a shortage of commitment to the organization and promotional opportunities which can also enhance or reduce organizational commitment.

Other job factors that could have an impact on commitment are the stages of autonomy and responsibility. Baron and Greenberg (1990) maintained that the higher the level of responsibility and autonomy associated with a given job, it will be less repetitive and more interesting it is and the higher the level of commitment mentioned by the person who fills it.

The existence of employment opportunities can have an effect on organizational commitment. Individuals become less committed to the organization, who have a strong insight that they stand a chance of finding another job and may
think over on such desirable alternatives. Where there is shortage of other employment opportunities, there is a strong will towards high levels of organizational commitment.

Personal characteristics such as age, years of service and gender also affect organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Older employees who are pleased with their own levels of work performance like those with seniority or permanent status tend to report higher levels of organizational commitment than others. It is argued that gender differences in commitment are due to different work characteristics and experiences that are linked to gender (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

The working environment is also recognized the other factor that affects organizational commitment. One of the most common working environmental conditions is partial ownership of a company that may have an effect on organizational commitment positively. Ownership gives employees, of any kind, a sense of importance and they think of themselves as a part of the decision-making process. This concept of possession contains changes in the working practices and participation in taking decision on new developments that is why it is creating a sense of belonging.

The organization as a work place is constructed from working relationships; one of which is the supervisory relationship. The supervisory relationship can influence organizational commitment either positively or negatively (Randall, et al., 1990). A positive supervisory relationship depends on how work-related practices are being implemented in the organization such as performance management. The individuals have a tendency to be more committed to the organization when they discover the supervisory relationship to be reasonable in its practices.
Organizational structure treats an imperative role in the institutions commitment. Bureaucratic constructions tend to have a negative effect on organizational commitment. The removal of the creation of more flexible structure and bureaucratic barriers are more probable to contribute to the development of employee commitment both in terms of attachment to the organization and their loyalty.

1.3.6. The Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

There are jumbled outcomes of organizational commitment. Both more recent and early research summaries demonstrate support for positive relations between desirable outcomes and organizational commitment e.g. performance, low turnover, and low absenteeism. There is also evidence that employee commitment relates to other desirable outcomes, such as the perception of a warm supportive organizational climate and being a good team member willing to help.

Commitment binds an individual to a course of action is the force which is of relevance to a particular target. It is understood that three dimensions of commitment are linked significantly with many work-related results. According to some researchers, an affective and normative commitment is found to be positively related with job performance and citizen behavior of organization.

It is also understood that commitment to supervisors was more strongly related to performance than was commitment to organization. On contrary, however most researchers are of the same opinion that the organizational commitment attitude is a better predictor, somewhat, of desirable outcome variables and thus deserves the management’s attention.
Commitment is one of the original 4-cs (commitment, congruence, competence and cost effectiveness) in the influential Harvard model of Human Resource Management. It is known as an immediate and possibly the most critical product of Human Resource Management strategy. In this model, employee’s commitment is the key factor in achieving competitive performances. For some, commitment entails not merely what this can convey to the organization and an augmentation of the individual and his/her skills. Committed orientations would restore emotion, expressions and sensitivity to the cold reality of rational-technical organizations.

Post globalization and post liberalization observed the combination of different kinds of organizations such as big shopping malls, technology, call centers, multiplexes, information, international fast food chains etc. in India. These service organizations are the new look of India. The existing Indian literature on industry specifies that Human Resource Management practices the previously mentioned matter and the policies that are fragmented; therefore, there are chances that Human Resource Management practices would vary sector wise. Human Resource Management policies and practices in call centers, IT, hospitality industry, fashion industry etc, would be very different from that of traditional organizations and would adversely affect organizational commitment.

1.3.7. Organizational Commitment among Teachers

Development of commitment to organization in the academic staff is significant since employees who are highly committed miss less work, perform better, longer and manifest organizational citizenship behavior.
Furthermore, when high revenue good and teachers leave, it can have high cost implications for the academic system. This is because high quality teachers take their teaching skills, experience and research with them. Other costs include recruitment and training expenditure, advertising cost and more workload for existing teachers. Teacher’s commitment to their profession will result in high performance of the school resulting in the achievement of educational goals.

Some researchers are of the opinion that organizational commitment is positively related to teaching efficacy (Lin, et al., 2012). Intention to retention has the lowest correlation with teaching efficacy (Chen & Li, 2012). Job commitment is related to teaching efficacy (Peng and others 2006). Employees’ high organizational commitment results in achieving organizational goals and effective productivity (Lin, et al., 2010). The findings of a recent study revealed that job involvement of junior high school teachers will moderate the relationship between job values and efficacy in teaching (Huang and Shen, 2012).