Chapter I

Introduction
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

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1.1 Introduction:

Psychologists have had a long history of involvement in studying human behaviour in organizations. The changes taking place in the work place of today afford opportunities both to gain insight into basic processes of human behaviour in the important domain of work and to contribute to making organizations both more productive and humane. Industrial productivity is closely linked with workers' job satisfaction. For this reason the topic of satisfaction at work is getting wider attention in the industrial setting of developed as well as under developed economies. Job satisfaction is the mutual concern of both the organization as well as the individual. It is generally believed that the dissatisfied workers impede the pace of productivity and that an effective and successful organization is the one which succeeds in keeping the workers generally satisfied.
There has been increasing concern in recent years about many workers' explicit dissatisfaction with work situations. According to a World Health Organization (WHO) report, "about one half workers of the entire working population are unhappy in their jobs and as many as 90 percent may be spending much of their time and energy in work that brings them no closer to their goals in life. About seventy five percent of those who consult psychiatrists are experiencing problems that can be traced to a lack of job satisfaction" (Levi, 1990).

Study of job satisfaction, therefore, assumes paramount significance. Job satisfaction has significant relation with motivation, productivity, morale, perception of organizational climate and recently work values and perceived organizational health are new area studied in context of job satisfaction and some other psycho-social factors. Hence job satisfaction is always the focal point of interest for the industrial psychologists.
1.2 Banking Organization :

1.2.1 Banks and Bank Employees :

"Employment in banks has always been considered a prized job." (Shah, 1972) The reasons are very clear. It is believed that a bank job carries status and prestige (Shah 1972). Moreover, banks pay well, provide very good fringe benefits along with providing security of employment as well as better promotional opportunities*. Even most of the banks provide training facilities to their officers and clerical staff by establishing training centres, whereby they can improve their functional knowledge and efficiency. This also helps them in their getting increments and quicker promotions. A bank employee can get cheaper loans and also slightly higher interest on his deposits (Singh, 1986). Lastly, the Study Group on Income, Wages and Prices has described banks and other financial institutions as "high wage islands"*.

Banking institutions form the heart of the financial structure of any country. It plays a pivotal role in the economic development of a nation. Banks offer numerous financial services to business concerns and finance is the life blood of business. India is dealing today with the largest network of banking system in the entire world (Gupta, 1986). Nowhere else has such a large segment of banking come under a single umbrella with so many thousands of branches to oversee. Banking in India is serving not only the cause of economic development but also for the benefit of society as a whole. As rightly commented by Shri G.D. Birla "Banking is not just a money-lending business. It is in the ultimate analysis a service to the society at large. It requires faith and courage and idealism to turn the bank into a social welfare institution. Security and caution must be there. But these must be supplemented by imagination and a vision with a desire to serve the society and the economy of the country". In the same line of thinking Shri A. Subba Rao has said: "A good

bank is not only the financial heart of the community but also has the obligations of helping in every manner possible to make the people of the country successful and prosperous". Keeping in view these and other objectives twenty major banks were nationalized. At present banking serves so many people in so many different ways. From large cities banks have moved to towns and villages; from large and medium industry to small scale units and to tiny ones; from qualified professionals to barbers and washermen; to the physically handicapped; from the privileged to the altogether unprivileged (Kalra, 1988). Banks reach people in all phases of their lives, literally from the cradle to the grave and thus they play a pivotal role in their social and economic sphere of life. Bank is essentially a service industry and service is rendered by bank employees to bank customers. Hence, bankmen's behavior at work is of prime importance for this industry.

* A. Subba Rao Pai, Founder, Canara Bank Ltd. Source: S. P. Baranwal, ibid P.171

* A. Subba Rao Pai, Founder, Canara Bank Ltd. Source: S. P. Baranwal, ibid P.171
1.2.2 Banking System in India:

The era of nationalization in the history of Indian Banking had far reaching influence on the present structure of Indian Banking.

In a country which has embarked on economic planning based on a socialistic pattern of society it was thought not only desirable but also necessary to nationalize some important banking institutions to serve the largest interests of the nation. Nationalization, however, has been a gradual process. It was started 1948 one year after independence, when the Central Bank of the country, the RBI, was brought under Government ownership. The second major attempt at nationalization of banking in India was made with the nationalization of the Imperial Bank of India. In 1955, the largest commercial bank, Imperial Bank of India was converted into the State Bank of India, the shares of the bank being taken over by RBI.

The nationalization of 14 major commercial banks, with deposits exceeding Rs. 50 crores each, in July 1969 was a significant landmark in the history of nationalization. The major objectives of nationalization were: (i) to reduce the glaring regional imbalance in
banking developments; and (ii) to make banks responsive to the needs of national development and aspirations of the common man and to promote welfare of the people.

Then in 1975 Regional Rural Banks were set up to provide credit to the weaker sections of the rural population, particularly to small and marginal farmers, agricultural workers, village artisans etc. The nationalization of six more banks in April, 1980 was an extension of the nationalization measure initiated in 1969. Beside helping in establishment of IFCI (1948) the RBI played a pioneering role in setting up in 1982, NABARD, the apex institution of Agricultural Finance. The present banking system of India is thus one of the most highly developed institutions of economy. The present Indian Banking system is shown in figure .1.
Figure : 1

Banking System in India

Organised Banking Sector

Unorganised Banking Sector

Commercial Banks

Co-operative Banks

State Co-op. Banks

Centr. Co-op. Banks

IDBI

IFCI

ICICI

IRFC

RNBCs

SIDCs

MABARD

Development Banks

Indigenous Bankers

Primary

Primary (Urban)

Agriculture

Co-op. Banks

Credit Societies

Public Sector

Regional Rural Banks

Private Sector

Banks

Banks

Banks

SBI & Subsidiaries

Nacionalized Banks (20 Banks)

Indian

Foreign
1.2.3 Performance of Banks and Bank Employees:

The impact of nationalization on the banking sector can be visualized through the change in the complexion and the generation of new ethos in the realm of socially oriented financial scheme of Indian banks. The Government interference has transformed the profit oriented, private owned and urban biased banking into welfare based development oriented public sector banking. Banking has transformed itself from 'elite banking' to 'mass banking'. Indian Banks have assumed new responsibilities in the fields of geographical expansions and functional diversifications. Since independence our banks have made much progress in quantitative terms. The increasing branch expansion is one of the significant features of banking development since nationalization. From 8,262 in July 1969 the total number of bank branches in the country rose to 60,190 in June 1991.*

As a result of rapid branch expansion witnessed since 1969, the average population served per branch office, which was 65,000 at the time of bank nationalization came down perceptibly to 11,000 as at the end of June, 1991.*

Of the 60,190 bank branches, 8,462 (14.1 percent) belong to State Bank of India (SBI), 3,706 (6.2 percent) to associate banks of SBI, 29,517 (49.0 percent) to nationalized banks; 3,983 (6.6 percent) to other banks and 14,522 (24.1 percent) to RRBs. The bank group wise distribution of offices as on June 1991 is presented below:

Bank Group-wise Distribution of Offices as on June-1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bank Group</th>
<th>Number of Bank Offices as on June-1991</th>
<th>Number of Banks as on June-1991</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State Bank of India</td>
<td>8,462</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Banks of SBI</td>
<td>3,706</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationalized Banks</td>
<td>29,517</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Rural Banks</td>
<td>14,522</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Scheduled Commercial Banks</td>
<td>3,801</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Banks</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Scheduled Commercial Banks</td>
<td>60,148</td>
<td>272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-scheduled Commercial Banks</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Commercial Banks</td>
<td>60,190</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: RBI Bulletin, April 1992, P.52

Thus from the above discussion it is very clear that banking industry has developed in a very striking manner after the nationalization. But it is only quantitative development. However, qualitatively there seems to be a general deterioration in services and profitability. The functioning of banks can be assessed in terms of customer service, profitability and prevalence of frauds.

"Banks, particularly in the public sector, since nationalization of major commercial banks have, however, come in for increasing criticism on two main counts; first the standard of customer service rendered by them has been deteriorating over the years; secondly, they have not succeeded in achieving to the extent desired, the social objectives envisaged in their nationalization" (Khandekar, 1982). "Bank users criticize and bankers themselves concede that customer service rendered by banks leaves much to be desired, and in certain respects has indeed reached very low levels, both absolutely and in comparison with the past."*

The service to the customer is becoming more and more impersonal, indifferent and inefficient. (Srivastava, 1986). Moreover, go-slow, strikes and other modes of indiscipline have become a matter of routine.

As regards the social objectives of banks, Shetty (1978) has studied the performance of commercial banks since nationalisation of major banks in July 1969, to June 1978. Shetty concluded that "the spread of bank branches and banking business region wise and state wise, does not show any clear indication that the banking system has yet been able to imbibe genuinely the wide socio-economic objectives set by the scheme of 'social control' and the following nationalization of major banks".

The profitability of the banking industry is also showing discouraging trend since nationalization. In absolute terms profit is increasing marginally but in percentage term it is registering lower and stagnant growth rates (Banerjee, 1989). According to the "Reserve Bank of India Report on Trend and Progress of Banking in India, 1990-91", gross profits (before provisions and appropriations) in respect of public sector banks have registered a substantial increase by
39 percent in 1990-91, despite this increase the overall profitability of the banking industry continues to be unduly weak.

The number of frauds running in crores of rupees have been increasing. "During the period July 1990 to December 1990, eight hundred fifty six cases of frauds involving an amount of Rs. 65.24 crore were perpetrated in the various branches of commercial banks in India. Besides, 9 cases of frauds involving an amount of Rs. 4.27 crore were reported in overseas branches of banks during July to December 1990 as against frauds involving Rs. 1.45 crore reported in 1989-90. " (RBI Bulletin, April, 1992).

From the above discussion it seems obvious that all is not well as regards functioning of the nationalized banks.

If the profitability and functioning of the banks have to be improved, then the focal point of treatment should be the common bank employees. Banking is basically a service industry and service is offered by bank employees. So each and every success of bank naturally depends upon the productivity of its employees
Bank employees' low productivity may definitely be a reason for low profitability of banks. Productivity is the outcome of so many factors and job satisfaction is one of the most important factors. One can safely assume that satisfied employee is more productive, hence every effort should be made to make employee more and more satisfied with his work.

In the present study the investigator made an attempt to study some of the correlates of perceived organizational health, work values and job satisfaction among bank employees.

1.3 Job Satisfaction: Multidimensional Concept:

1.3.1 Introduction:

A major part of man's waking hours is spent on his job or work. Work has been the central activity of man since the primitive days. It not only satisfies primary needs but also brings material rewards as well as decides a man's status in society. It is the work role that identifies and even defines a man. Hence, it is but natural that every man seeks satisfaction in his work.

The term 'Job Satisfaction' has been given different connotations since its inception. The credit for bringing the term 'Job Satisfaction' into currency
goes to Hoppock (1935). Since Hoppock's Monograph on job satisfaction in 1935, a substantial amount of research has been conducted on this topic. Different researchers have described job satisfaction differently and review of literature supports this statement. Prior to an elaborate discussion on the theories of job satisfaction, a look at the formal definition of the concept is necessary.

1.3.2. Definition of Job Satisfaction:

Literally the term 'job satisfaction' is the combination of two words: job and satisfaction. 'Work', 'Job' and 'Occupation' have generally been used interchangeably. Miller and Form (1964) define work as a "general activity centering around subsistence". Neff (1968) described work as "........ the basis of all achievements of man. It is the chief means through which human being has conquered his environment. Work is the self preservative activity. It is an alternative activity, its objective being to alter or change some aspects of man's environment to make living more efficient. Work is an outstanding instance of human cooperation without which civilization could not have
developed at all. It is an extremely pervasive activity which both reflects and influences aspects of human behaviour" (quoted from 'What is Work' by K.G.Agrawal, in Journal of Psychological Review, 1973)

The work satisfaction is related to need fulfilment. Drever (1964) defines need as "a condition marked by feeling of lack or want of something or of requiring the performance of some action". Fulfilment of need generates the feeling state of satisfaction. Thus job satisfaction may be defined as the feeling of satisfaction which the employee achieves from his job by fulfilling his various needs. In other words need fulfilment is the central activity for any human being and as this fulfilment is arrived at by accomplishment of work, satisfaction with work and work related factors play a very important role in an individual's life.

Hoppock (1935) defined job satisfaction as "any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, "I am satisfied with my job". He has included both on-the-job and off-the-job factors.

Job satisfaction has been defined by Bullock (1952) as "an attitude which results from a balancing
and summation of many likes and dislikes experienced in connection with the job. These evaluations may rest largely upon one's own success or failure in the achievement of personal objectives and upon the perceived contribution of the job and company towards these ends. Thus a worker may like certain aspects of his work yet thoroughly dislikes others.

Attempts have been made to clarify the concept of job satisfaction by referring to factors thought to be the causes of job satisfaction. Blum and Naylor (1968) are of the view that 'Job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. In a narrow sense these attitudes are related to the job and are concerned with many specific factors like wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, advancement, opportunities, recognition of ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on the job, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment by employer and other similar items. Moreover factors such as employee's age, health, temperament, desires, level of aspirations and some other factors such as family relationship, social status, recreational outlets, activity in organizations contribute ultimately to job satisfaction. In short job satisfaction,
according to them, is a general attitude which is the result of many specific attitudes in three areas, namely, specific job factors, individual characteristics, and group relationships outside the job.

Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957) believe that there are ten factors which constitute job satisfaction viz., intrinsic aspects of the job, supervision, working condition, wages, opportunity for advancement, security, company and management, social aspect of the job, communication, and benefits.

According to Pestonjee (1973) job satisfaction can be viewed as a summation of employee's feelings in four important areas. Two of these areas encompass factors directly connected with the job (intrinsic factors) and the other two include factors not directly connected with the job but which are presumed to have a bearing on job satisfaction. These areas are:

1. Job - Nature of work - dull dangerous, interesting; hours of work; fellow workers; opportunities on the job for promotion and advancement (prospects); over-time regulations; interest in work; physical environment; machines and tools etc.
(2) Management - Supervisory treatment; participation; rewards and punishments; praises and blames; leave policy; favouritism etc.

(3) Social relation - Friends and associates; neighbours; attitudes towards people in community; participation in social activities; sociability, caste barriers etc.

(4) Personal adjustment - Health; emotionality; home and living conditions; finances; relation with family members etc.

In the opinion of Harrell (1964) job satisfaction is derived from and caused by many different factors. Broadly speaking they are divided into:

(1) Personal factors - age, sex, number of dependents, time on the job, intelligence, education and personality,

(2) Factors inherent in the job - type of work, skill required, occupational status, geography and size of the plant, and

(3) Factors controlled by the management - security pay, fringe benefits, opportunity for advancement, responsibility and supervision.
Based on the concept of need satisfaction, Morse (1953) suggested that the amount of satisfaction experienced by the individual is a function of (i) how much his needs are fulfilled by being in a particular situation, and (ii) how much his needs remain unfulfilled. A similar opinion is expressed by Sinha (1972). He opines: "Job satisfaction is essentially related to human needs and their fulfilment through work. In fact, job satisfaction is generated by individual's perception of how well his job on the whole is satisfying to his various needs." Thus, jobs which are able to satisfy more of the needs would provide greater satisfaction to the worker. Schaffer (1953) observes that "overall satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual, which can be satisfied in a job, are actually satisfied, the stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfilment." Smith (1955) also suggests that job satisfaction is "the employee's judgement of how well his job is satisfying his various needs."

Attempts are also being made to define job satisfaction as the resultant feeling of discrepancy between what one aspires or expects from his job and how
much he receives from it. In the opinion of Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) "job satisfactions are effective responses to the facets of the situation associated with a perceived differences between what is expected and what is experienced." A very close opinion has been expressed by Davis (1977) who observes that job satisfaction expresses the amount of congruence between one's expectations of the job and the rewards that the job provides. Thus job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are functions of the perceived relationship between what one wants to derive from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing (Sinha, 1988). One more current definition of job satisfaction by Arnold and Feldman (1986) expresses the same view. According to them basically, "job satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy between what individuals expect to get out of their jobs and what the job actually offers. A person will be dissatisfied if there is less than the desired amount of a job characteristic in the job. A person will be satisfied if there is no discrepancy between desired and actual conditions. Figure 2 presents the model of Lawler (1973) used by these authors to clarify the concept.
The Roberts Dictionary of Industrial Relations defines job satisfaction in the following words:

"Those outward or inner manifestations which give the individual a sense of enjoyment or accomplishment in the performance of his work. Job satisfaction may come from the product or item produced, from the speed with which it is accomplished, or from other feature relating to the job and its performance. Attitudes towards the job may be affected by such items as the pay scale, the
relationship of the individual to the supervisor, the working conditions including many other factors which are not easily discernible on the surface."

Some of the current approaches of defining job satisfaction throws some more light on the nature of this concept. Davis and Newstorm (1989) defined job satisfaction "as a set of favourable or unfavourable feelings with which employees view their work."

According to Sinha (1988) job satisfaction is the resultant attitude of an employee because of a perfect relationship between the perception of how well the job fulfils the various needs and expectations. Any discrepancy between aspirations and perceptions accounts for dissatisfaction. Arnold and Feldman (1986) view job satisfaction, "as the amount of overall positive affect (or feeling) that individuals have toward their jobs. When we say that an individual has high job satisfaction, we mean that the individual generally likes and values his job highly and feels positively toward it." In the present investigation this definition is accepted.
1.3.3 Job Satisfaction as Distinct from Other Related Concepts:

At this point of discussion a conceptual clarification of confusion between job satisfaction and a number of similarly used terms like job attitudes, and morale, is necessary. Job attitudes and job satisfaction appear to be closely connected. Vroom (1978) maintains that the two terms can be used interchangeably. According to him both terms refer to affective orientations on the part of of individuals toward work roles which they are presently occupying. Still they are not synonymous. According to Blum and Naylor (1968) an attitude is not job satisfaction although it may contribute to job satisfaction, since the latter is comprised of a number of attitudes. An attitude of an employee can be considered as a readiness to act in one way rather than another in connection with specific factors related to job (Blum, 1956). Job satisfaction, however, is the general feeling generated by the various attitudes which an employee holds towards job factors.

Considerable confusion is seen in the use of the terms morale and job satisfaction. Some researchers...
distinguish between these two terms and others do not. Applewhite (1965) analyzed a number of research studies on morale, concluding that job satisfaction and morale are alike because the components of each are the same. Researchers indentify these components by the use of factor analysis technique. Satisfaction and morale are the same because their components are same, but they apply to different levels, the term satisfaction applying to individuals and morale applying to groups.

Kahn (1951); Katz (1951); Siegel (1962); Blum and Naylor (1968), on the other hand, are of the opinion that job satisfaction and morale are not the same and the two terms can not be used interchangeably, though job satisfaction constitutes an important dimension of morale. According to Blum and Naylor (1968) job satisfaction is the result of the various attitudes the individual holds towards his job, towards related factors and towards life in general. Industrial morale is a by-product of a group and is generated by the group. It may be defined as the possession of a feeling, on the part of the employee, of being accepted by and belonging to a group of employees through adherence to common goals and confidence in the desirability of these goals.
Crites (1969) differentiates between job attitude, job satisfaction and industrial morale, and opines that 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 attitudes. If it is the overall job in which the individual is presently employed then the concept would be job satisfaction. If the referent includes the work group and/or employing organization as well as job satisfaction the concept would be morale.

Thus job attitude, job satisfaction and morale are not synonymous.

1.3.3 Factors Relating to Job Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction is derived from and is caused by many interrelated factors. These factors can never be completely separated from one another but for analysis they can be separated to give an indication of their relative importance to job satisfaction. According to Harrell (1964), all these factors contributing to job satisfaction can be classified under three heads, namely

1. Personal factors
2. Factors inherent in the job, and
3. Factors controllable by management.
Figure 3 shows various factors categorised into above three heads by Harrell.

Factors relating to job Satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Factors</th>
<th>Factors inherent In the Job.</th>
<th>Factors controllable, by Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Type of work</td>
<td>Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Skill required</td>
<td>Pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Dependents</td>
<td>Occupational status</td>
<td>Fringe benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time on job</td>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>Opportunity for advancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>and size of</td>
<td>Working conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>the plant</td>
<td>Co-worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Downward flow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>of information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Locke (1976) presented a summary of the dimensions of jobs that consistently had been found to contribute significantly to employees' job satisfaction. They are; work-work itself; rewards-pay promotions, recognition, context of work working conditions and benefits; self-values, skills and abilities, etc; others (in company)-supervision, co-workers; and others (outside company) -customers, family members, and others.
French, Kornhauser and Marrow (1946) compiled a list of on the job and off the job factors which were found by various investigators as underlying causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of workers. These were: (1) Factors in the individuals; ability, health, age temperament, desires and expectations, neurotic tendencies, unconscious conflicts, etc. (2) Factors in life away from work; home conditions, recreation, consumer problems, labour union, activities, etc. (3) Factors in employment relations; wages and earnings, transfers, lay off and hiring procedures, kind of work performed, supervision, training, condition of work, opportunities for advancement, social relations etc.

Herzberg and his associates (1957) revealed ten major factors, as mentioned earlier, constituting job satisfaction with about one hundred fifty specific aspects. Arnold and Feldman (1986) have discussed six factors as the most frequently studied causes of job satisfaction. They are: (1) pay (2) the work itself (3) promotions (4) supervision (5) the work group and (6) working conditions. They observe that in general pay and work itself are the most important sources of job satisfaction, that promotional opportunities and supervision are moderately important sources of job
satisfaction, and that the work group and working conditions are relatively minor sources of job satisfaction.

Thus, above discussion clearly shows that job satisfaction is a very composite phenomenon influenced by a number of related factors.

1.3.5 Theories of Job Satisfaction:

As has been pointed earlier Hoppock's monograph on job satisfaction (1935) first focused this term. Since then there have been attempts to explain job satisfaction differently. Different researchers tried to theorize the concept differently. Some prominent theories concerning the dynamic of job satisfaction and its general impact on work behaviour will be discussed here.

Some of the theories, well known as the theories of motivation, are relevant to the concept of job satisfaction. Probably this is due to the fact that these two concepts are very closely related in the process of job behaviour, although there are theoretical and practical differences between two concepts. Job satisfaction is concerned with the feeling one has
toward the job, and work motivation is concerned with the behaviours that occur on the job. Still the two terms are very closely related. Jobs which are able to satisfy more of the needs would provide greater satisfaction to worker. On the other hand, feeling of satisfaction on job itself acts as a motivation to work. Moreover, most theories of motivation have an underlying hedonic assumption that individuals are motivated to seek that which is pleasant to them. As a result many theories of motivation are also considered, at least in part, theories of job satisfaction.

Maslow's Need satisfaction Theory:

One of the earliest, and one of the most popular theories of motivations was proposed by Abraham Maslow. In 1943 Maslow proposed his theory of "Human Motivation" based on the needs of human beings. He suggested that human needs may be classified into five different groups:

1. Physiological needs: these include hunger, thirst, sex and other bodily needs.
2. Safety needs: These represent the security needs of all kinds, such as, need to be free of bodily threat, the demand for economic security, job security, etc.
3. Social needs: These represent the need to love and be loved. They include affection, friendship, affiliation and acceptance.

4. Esteem needs: These include an employee's need for self respect and respect from others.

5. Self actualization needs: These include the need for self-fulfilment i.e. the need to achieve one's full capacity for doing or to become what one is capable of becoming.

Along with this classification Maslow introduced the notion of a 'Need Hierarchy.' He hypothesized that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of these five needs. Some needs, are lower-order needs, like physiological needs and safety needs, and others are higher-order needs, such as social needs, esteem needs and self actualization needs. He also proposed that needs lower in the hierarchy have a preponderance over those higher. Unless the need at the lower level is satisfied, the higher order need will not be operative, and once the lower need is satisfied, it will no more motivate the person.
Applied to the work situation, it can be said that as the lower-order needs are experienced first, they must be satisfied by the work environment before higher-order needs are perceived. The implication is that rewards of higher-order needs will have no incentive effect upon employee motivation until lower order needs are satisfied. Similarly, rewards of the lower order needs will have no incentive effect upon employee motivation, if his lower-order needs are satisfied. Only unsatisfied or partially satisfied needs motivate behaviour. Jobs which are able to satisfy more of the Maslow’s needs would be jobs which would result in greater satisfaction on the part of the employee.

Maslow’s theory has made a very valuable contribution in drawing attention to the lower-order needs which may be neglected in some organizations and in the absence of the satisfaction of these needs the higher order needs may not be operative. However, Maslow’s theory has many weak points, the greatest being that its assumptions are difficult to verify empirically. The other limitation of the theory is that in no organization do the highest order needs await the satisfaction of the lower order needs. All the needs operate simultaneously.
Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory:

The two-factor theory was initially proposed by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman in 1959 and was later amplified and extended by Herzberg (1962; 1964; and 1968) and Herzberg and Grigallunas (1971).

The basic propositions of the theory are:

1. Factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate and distinct from each other.
2. Satisfaction stems from "motivators" or factors intrinsic to work and dissatisfaction stems from "hygiene" factors which are extrinsic to work itself.

Herzberg and his associates (1959) analyzed the content of interviews carried out with approximately 200 engineers and accountants about their jobs. Respondents were asked to think of a time when they felt especially good about their jobs and a time when they felt especially bad about their jobs and to describe the conditions leading to these feelings in as much detail as possible. The analysis of these interviews indicated that the factors associated with high satisfaction were somewhat different from the factors associated with low.
satisfaction. From this finding Herzberg concluded that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two distinct factors and he called these two factors "Motivators" and 'Hygienes' factors respectively. Motivators are those factors which may provide satisfaction and Hygiene factors are those factors which may prevent dissatisfaction.

Herzberg (1959) calls these factors as "Motivators" and "Hygienes" because in his view, "....... man tends to actualize himself in every area of his life and his job is one of the most important areas. The conditions that surround the doing of the job cannot give him his basic satisfaction, they do not have this potentiality. It is only from the performance of a task that the individual can get rewards that will reinforce his aspirations... factors in the job context meet the needs of the individual for avoiding unpleasant situations. In contrast to this motivation by meeting avoidance needs, the job factors reward the needs of the individual to reach aspirations ....... It should be understood that both kinds of factors meet the needs of the employee, but it is primarily the "motivators" that serve to bring about the kind of job satisfaction.....
the kind of improvement in performance that industry is seeking from its work force". (Herzberg, 1959, P.114).

The rationale of the concept of motivators and hygiene factors of this theory is based upon theory of Maslow, according to which man seems to satisfy his lower order needs first, then he looks for ways to satisfy the higher order needs, and so on up the ladder of needs. Within this context, Herzberg (1957) argues that in the American society the basic needs are guaranteed and provided for. According to him the satisfaction of lower order needs will not lead to satisfaction, as they are already fairly well satisfied. At best satisfaction of such needs can lead to an attitude of neutrality. However, not having such fulfilment will lead to dissatisfaction. He concludes that job satisfaction is basically a function of having the higher order needs satisfied since these are hard, to get. For the same reason, not fulfilling these needs will not lead to job dissatisfaction. Thus Herzberg believes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction with work are not the opposite ends of a single continuum, instead, he proposed the existence of a dual continuum. Hygiene factors cannot generate positive motivation and
satisfaction. A person's satisfaction and motivation are solely determined by the extent to which job contains motivators. Therefore, hygiene factors must be present in a job in order to present dissatisfaction and motivators must be present in a job to generate satisfaction. Job redesign and job enrichment should be made so that they are high on motivators, that is to say motivators should be designed into work itself.

Motivators include such factors like achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth. Hygiene factors include such factors like company policies, administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, security and work group. Motivators and hygiene factors also are called content factors and context factors respectively.

This theory has been supported by schwartz et al. (1963); Fried - Lander and Walton (1964); Myers and Walton (1964); Lodhal (1964); Lahiri and Srivastava (1967), Sharma (1979) Sutaria (1980), However, some of the studies did not support this theory, (Even (1964); Wernimont (1966); Dunnette (1967) ; Hulin and Smith (1967); Locke (1976), Chaudhary and Lahiri (1968).
There have been several criticisms of Herzberg's theory. First, the theory is based on a sample of 200 accountants and engineers. This generalization may not be applicable to other occupational groups with different technology and environment. Secondly, this theory has also been criticised for its method of open ended subjective reporting. The major criticism of the theory was directed at the assumed independence of motivator and hygiene factors. A number of studies have revealed that the hygienic factors were motivators as well. In India studies conducted by Ganguli (1957) and Sharma (1957) have revealed that Indian workers consider pay and security as motivators.

It appears that this theory would be more applicable in the country where lower order needs have already been satisfied. Nevertheless, Herzberg's theory has made a major contribution in emphasizing the importance of psychological growth as a precondition of job satisfaction and that such growth stems from the work itself. This has great implication in the field of job redesign.
Vroom’s Expectancy Theory:

The historical roots of expectancy theory go back to Tolman (1932), Lewin (1938) and Peak (1955) but Vroom’s version of the theory presented in 1964 in ‘Work and Motivation’ introduced it to industrial and organizational psychology. Vroom’s theory is one of the most comprehensive and most accepted theories in present time. It is generally known as VIE or Valence - Instrumentality - Expectancy theory.

Vroom’s theory argues that strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. The whole theory rests on three basic concepts; valence, instrumentality and expectancy.

The term valence according to Vroom (1964, P.15) refers to the affective orientation toward particular outcomes. In other words it refers to the attractiveness of a goal or outcomes. Expectancy refers to a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome (Vroom, 1964, P.17). Vroom defined instrumentalities as subjective correlations between two outcomes: Instrumentality is
an outcome-outcome association (P.18). It represents one's estimate that performance will result in receiving the reward. Vroom explains that motivation is a product of these three factors. People are motivated when they expect that effort will result in good performance, which in turn will be instrumental in attaining valued outcomes. Vroom has also used the concept of force to explain his theory. The concept of force is basically equivalent to motivation.

The basic postulates in Vroom's theory are as follows:

Proposition I. The valence of an outcome is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all other outcomes and his conceptions of its instrumentality for the attainment of these other outcome.

Proposition II. The force on a person to perform an act is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes and the
strength of his expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes.

According to Vroom job satisfaction is a function of strength of the need or in other words, the more the capacity a job has to satisfy more of an individual's needs, the more satisfied the individual is likely to be with it. While for motivation it can be implied that more the individual perceives of that act as a need fulfilling act, more apt he is to perform it. Thus in Vroom's model job satisfaction reflects valence of the job for its occupant and that the strength of the force on a worker to remain on his job is an increasing function of the valence of the job. Therefore, satisfaction should be negatively related to turnover and absenteeism.

Vroom's model has also been subject to controversies and criticisms. One of the difficulties with this theory is its complexity. It is too complex to be used effectively in explaining problems which are faced in organization.
To sum up, comparative research on different theories is sorely lacking and is needed for firm conclusions. Each theory only partially explains the concept of job satisfaction. For the better understanding of this concept and its relation to job behaviour it is necessary to identify and scrutinize the personal and situational variables contributing towards job satisfaction, for they may not be universally true to every job situation. In the present investigation an attempt has been made to relate some of such variables to job satisfaction of employees in banking industry.

1.3.6 Significance of Job Satisfaction:

Researchers have been increasingly noting the importance of the job satisfaction, that is why it has become a major focus of research in industrial setting. Herzberg (P.IX) has put the point through thus: "To industry the pay off for a study of job attitudes would be an increased productivity, decreased turnover, decreased absenteeism and smoother working relations. To the community it might mean a decreased bill for psychological casualties and in the proper utilization of human resources, to the individual an understanding of the forces that lead to improved morale would bring
greater happiness and greater self-realization." (P361, Santhamani).

Kornhauser (1965), puts it thus, "The improvement of job satisfaction is a desirable goal in its own right, workers spend a large proportion of their waking hours on the job and this part of their life should be made as pleasant and satisfying as possible." (PP.120-138, Anne Anastasi).

Findings of various studies also regarded job satisfaction as a very significant factor in worker's morale, absenteeism, accidents, turnover, job performance (Pestonjee, Singh and Ahmed, 1977; Singh, 1978; Sinha, 1974; Sinha and Sinha, 1961). In a number of studies significant relationships between attitudes toward the job and those towards life has been established (Kornhauser, 1965, Weitz, 1952.)

Job satisfaction has adjustment value too and it has been found that a large part of vocational maladjustment and industrial unrest are but a reflection of job dissatisfaction. It is generally agreed that job dissatisfaction is more often accompanied by poor physical and mental health. Herzberg et.al. (1959) have
noted that subjects reported physical symptoms such as headache, loss of appetite, indigestion, and nausea following dissatisfying job incidents. Besides physical health, job satisfaction has also been found to be associated with mental health and adjustment problems. Sinha and Nair (1965) have shown that low job satisfaction is related to total adjustment. Roman (1969) reports a close association between job satisfaction and neurosis measures. Sinha and Agrawal (1971) observed that satisfied workers had superior overall adjustment at home, society and emotional as well.

Herzberg, et.al. (1957) have associated personality factors with job satisfaction and observed that "The satisfied worker in general is a more flexible, better adjusted person who has come from a superior family environment.... He is realistic about his own situation and about his goals. The worker dissatisfied with his job in contrast is often rigid, inflexible, unrealistic in his choice of goals.... generally unhappy and dissatisfied."

Job satisfaction is of great significance for efficient functioning of organization. It is believed
that satisfied staff may more likely stand by the organization, less inclined to report grievances and join hostile unions and strikes. Dissatisfaction is infectious and quickly spreads to other workers and shape the morale in organization. A dissatisfied worker may seriously cause damage to the reputation and property of the company and harm its business interests.

Finally, to quote Mirvis and Lawler (1977), "A satisfied work force also has many values from the standpoint of organizational effectiveness. Favourable employee attitudes tend to be associated with fewer grievances and complaints; more harmonious labour-management relations, lower rates of accidents, tardiness, absenteeism and job turnover, more successful personnel recruitment and better community relations. Through their influence on such behaviour outcomes, employee attitudes may have a substantial financial impact on the operation of an organization". (PP.120-138 : Anne Anastasi).

Thus the above discussed literature easily provides us the idea of how important a role job satisfaction plays for the individuals, the organizations and the society as a whole.
1.4 Work Values:

1.4.1 Introduction:

An important aspect of economic development in the third world countries is the need for rapid industrialization. Modernization of technology, adequate trained and skilled man-power, and other resources are no doubt important. However, no less important an element in this infrastructure of the process is favourable work values and work culture. India has undergone radical socio-economic changes. In order to provide employment to a large number of people it has been moving fast towards industrialization. But still India has not developed upto the desired level. Majority of the people still believe in their old age, customs, traditions, and value, thereby resisting change. As stated by Max Weber (1960) "the dominant values of people play a vital role in determining their productive enterprise". He viewed typical Hindu society as a non-rational, tradition-oriented system where one could not expect rapid growth of industrialization. Hence, in order to serve this purpose, there is need to change in their daily outlook. By imparting education, Indian government is making systematic efforts to bring
social change in the people; however, mere imparting of education and knowledge is not sufficient until their value system is transferred so that they are favourably disposed to change. A work ethic suitable for industrialization is to be inculcated by developing and mentally preparing the workforce to accept the values of an industrial culture.

On the other hand, modernization, increased urbanization, technological advancement, educational advancement and communication through advanced mass media inculcate new values among people. They enter their work organization with a set of values related to work e.g. work value and they expect to realize these cherished values through work. If work situation fulfills those values of an individual, it leads to heightened work motivation. That is to say realization of values through work motivates him to work more, thus, making him more effective and productive. Individual effectiveness and productivity, ultimately are the important sources of organization's effectiveness and productivity. Studies have shown that organizational effectiveness and employees' value patterns are significantly related (Benkema, 1971, Kashefi-Zihagi, 1972). If work situation is unable to fulfill the
dominant values of its employees the result would be dissatisfaction, demotivation and lowered effectiveness. Worker's job values must be appropriate to their jobs. Thus it is very crucial for any organization to be aware of dominant values of its workforce and must take them into consideration, while taking important decisions and framing any policy.

An individual's value system is a relatively permanent perceptual framework which shapes and influences the general nature of his behaviour. His needs for value realizations motivate him to behave in a certain specific way. Thus behaviour exhibited by an employee in a work situation may be to some extent, the result of his value system. And if organization expects from its employees behaviour congenial to its own benefit, it must either fulfil the valued goals of employees or to select workers whose values match the work and work situation. In either case it becomes necessary to study the work values of employees.

Values are spoken of differently by different authors, such as instrumental and terminal values (Rokeach, 1973), occupational values (Kanungo and Bhatnagar, 1978), socio-cultural values (Sinha & Sinha,
work values (Super 1970). The concept of 'Work Value' may be regarded as special usage of the general concept of 'Value'. Therefore, before defining work value, a few important definitions of value are worth mentioning.

1.4.2 Meaning of the Term 'Value':

According to Rokeach (1973) "A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence". They contain a moral flavour in that they carry an individual's ideas as to what is right, good or desirable. Spranger (1928) describes values as the basic interests or motives in the personality of an individual.

Pestonjee (1985) views value "as the worth or excellence or the degree of worth ascribed to an object or a class there of. He further opines that value is a standard or yardstick to guide actions, attitudes, evaluations and justifications of the self and others."
Richard Morris (1956) defines values as either individual or commonly held conceptions of the desirable. Franz Adler (1956) sees them as learned components of personalities identifiable only as probabilities that particular behaviour will occur in a variety of circumstances. According to Anantharaman (1980), "Any thing that satisfies a human need becomes thereby a value." Values are considered, by some authors, as normative standards to judge and to choose among alternative modes of behaviour (Becker & Mcklintock, 1967; Kluckhohn, 1952).

According to Suar (1992) 'Values are desirable ideals located centrally within one's belief system. These desirable ideals, therefore,..., determine what one ought to or ought not do to activities they engage, in the professions they work, in the situation they live, in the objects they make or acquire and in the principles they accept or cultivate.'

All the above definitions of value also apply to work values but their applicability is limited to aspects of work. However, an attempt is being made to present a few important definitions of work value enunciated by different investigators. Before embarking
on the explanation of important definitions of work value it is useful to distinguish value as well as work value from other related concepts that have been used previously in the literature for similar purposes.

1.4.3 Value as Distinct from other Related Terms:

Values should be distinguished from attitudes. Values are similar to attitudes but are more ingrained, permanent and stable in nature; they are also more general and less tied to any specific reference than is the case with many attitudes. Values and expectations also are two different concepts. Expectations are the beliefs one has about what will occur in the future. What is valued may or may not correspond to what is expected.

Values should be distinguished from needs. Both the terms appear very close as has been mentioned by Super (1957), "Values permeate all aspects of life, they concern life's goals, and in some instances they seem to be closely related to needs and drives." According to Kalleberg (1977) the two concepts are closely related since individuals may value those factors associated with a job which satisfy their needs; but values also
may be irrational and whether or not one's values correspond to his needs, it is his values which regulate his actions and determine his emotional responses. Values represent our view of the desirability of certain goals, needs refer to the objective requirements of an organism's well-being.

A distinction should be made between satisfaction with work role and the values related to work role, i.e., work value. According to Kalleberg (1977), work values refer to general attitudes regarding the meaning that an individual attaches to the work role as distinguished from his satisfaction with that role.

1.4.4 Definition of Work Value:

Work-related value or work value is a special usage of the general concept value and may be defined as the conception of what is 'preferable' from among "the alternative modes of conduct or end-states" with respect to one's work activity. (Punekar, 1989). According to Amsa and Punekar (1985), work values are usually defined as the individually held conceptions of what is desirable with respect to the rewards (extrinsic or intrinsic) from their work activity.
According to Super Donald (1968), work values constitute various aspects of work. On the same lines, Dhar (1967), in a study of work values of adolescent boys, defined work values as the aspects of work which guide and influence adolescent behaviour. In a similar fashion, Pestonjee (1985) defines work value "as the worth or excellence ascribed to a particular aspects of work .........". In other words work values are values that pertained to the work situation and its concomitants.

Kalleberg (1977) says; work values represent the meaning that individuals attach to perceived job characteristics. He says, 'Work may have a variety of meanings for individuals........ work has no inherent meaning, but, rather individuals input such meanings to their work activity. One way to understand the variety of these meanings is to specify the range of gratification that are available from work in an industrial society and to assess the degree to which particular individuals value each of these dimensions". He further says "Work values reflect the individual's awareness of the conditions he seeks from the work situation and they regulate his actions in pursuit of that conditions".
Ginzberg et al. (1951) explain work values in terms of job satisfaction. They have formulated three categories of work values; (1) Extrinsic satisfactions in the form of rewards (money and prestige), (2) Concommitants of work (social and environmental), and (3) Intrinsic satisfaction (Pleasure in the activity and in the accomplishment of specific ends). The extent to which the value cherished and realized indicates the satisfaction one enjoys in his job.

Mehta (1961) has defined the concept of values as ideas formed by each individual worker as to how should he do his work. Jyoti Verma (1985) has viewed work value " as a generalized preference where a person attaches a sense of worth or excellence in doing his work well."

In the present investigation, work value is considered as the worth or excellence ascribed to a particular aspects of work.

There is a difference of opinion with regard to various factors that may be considered as important work ingredients. So the number of aspects of the work identified as major work values differ from study to
study. Ginzberg et al. (1951) have included work values under three categories, as mentioned earlier, while constructing a work value inventory.

Super Donald (1962), while discussing the structure of work values, presented a list of 15 work values, under three categories as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic</th>
<th>Extrinsic: Rewards</th>
<th>Extrinsic: concomitants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stimulation</td>
<td>Returns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Esthetics</td>
<td></td>
<td>15. Variety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Management</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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</table>

Rosenberg (1957) has enlisted ten values as of important. O'connor and Kinnane (1961) suggested six clusters of work values and labelled them as, Material Success, Altruism, Associates, Creative Achievement, Prestige and Independence, and Variety. Rao & Pareek (1973) developed physician's work value scale using a
list of ten work values. The present investigation is based on the study of six work-values (Viz., Social Status of Job, Activity Preference, Upward Striving, Attitude towards Earnings, Pride in Work, and Job Involvement) as has been measured by Wollack (1968). Wollack has defined all the six work values as under:-

Social Status of Job : the effect the job alone has on a person's standing among his friends, relatives, and co-workers, in his own eyes and/or in the eyes of others.

Activity Preference : a preference by the worker to keep himself active and busy on his job.

Upward Striving : the desire to seek continually a higher level job and a better standard of living.

Attitude toward Earnings : the value an individual places in making money on the job.

Pride in Work : the satisfaction and enjoyment a man feels from doing his job well.

Job Involvement : the degree to which a worker takes an active interest in co-workers and company functions and desire to contribute to job related decisions.
1.4.5 Significance of Work Value:

A considerable conceptual and empirical research has been carried out in the field of values and work-values, especially, in organizational and industrial setting. In various studies attempts are being made to relate value with different factors such as, work motivation, effectiveness, productivity, prediction of success and job performance, various socio-personal factors etc. From a review of literature it is evident that values are significantly related with many of such variables. This itself highlights the significance of values and work-values.

Motivation and values are closely related. According to Rokeach (1973). 'Value is a more dynamic concept having a more immediate link to motivation.' In the day to day work situation, people operate on the basis of motives arising out of their needs and values. For better job performance by employees, their aptitudes, skills and abilities are indispensable. Granted these, performance may not be forthcoming unless the employees feel and act motivated. Hence, performance depends significantly on employee's motivation to perform. Motivation, in turn is the result of many
constituent factors. Arnold and Feldman (1986) express the view that value-system of individual is one of the basic components or building blocks of his motivation. They have summarized the components of motivation as shown in the figure 4.

**Figure : 4**

Factors Influencing Individual Motivation in Organizations.


The values that a person holds can influence his motivations and subsequent behaviour in two ways. First they influence the types of activities that the person
will find appealing. Secondly, they influence a person's motivation to obtain specific outcomes such as money, promotion and prestige. People join the organization with the expectation of different outcomes and if their valued outcomes are realized in a work situation then it would have strong impact on their work motivation. For instance, the person who places a high value on monetary rewards and promotional opportunities may be highly motivated in a situation in which he receives his valued reward. However, if a person values money and promotional opportunities very little, but places high value on opportunities for friendship and pleasant working condition, then the same situation might not be motivating for that individual. People differ in their value pattern and organizations must take these value differences into account for motivating their employees.

Individual performs in search of valued outcome. As a value seeking being, an individual prefers to continue his membership of value-fulfilling situations and performs better for improvement, therefore, to realize more of the value fulfilling rewards. However, if the situations weaken his values, the individual
tends to quit membership if possible, if not, he continues his membership because he has no other go, then in that case he limits his performance to the minimum.

One of the most prominent characteristics of present industrial culture is increasing competition among organizations. In order to be successful in such competition, employers need to attract and keep talent within their organizations. In an effort to increase organizational productivity increased attention has been given toward balancing individual abilities, interest and values with organizational needs. Many organizations have developed quality of work life programme to deal with changes in work values and attitudes (Offermann & Gowing, 1990). Adequate changes and rewards are being planned in order to suit the changing work values of employees and thus attracting them toward organization and motivating them to remain in the organization.

The knowledge of value-patterns can also be used for predicting success. Shartle (1958) suggests that in attempting to predict the behaviour of an individual, it is important to consider his value patterns. England and Lee (1974) also report that value patterns predict
success and could be used in making selection and placement decisions. They explored the possibility of using values as a selection or promotion device in attempting to select individuals who will turn out to be successful. Their study showed that successful managers have more pragmatic and dynamic values whereas less successful managers have more static and passive values. Thus successful managers had different value system than less successful managers.

Work values are also closely related to job satisfaction. Locke (1969) opined that job satisfaction is the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values. According to him two types of factors are operative in the process underlying variation in job satisfaction. They are perceived job characteristics, which represent the amount of satisfaction available from particular dimensions of work and work values, which represent the meanings that individuals attach to these perceived job characteristics. Blood (1969) has shown that work values a person brings to a job may be related to his job satisfaction. Satisfied workers may characterize a group of individuals valuing highly certain dimensions of work
and not valuing others. Such information may be used as aptitudes for satisfaction while selecting the employees.

Though values are relatively stable and enduring, they are not static. Work experience and social changes may change one's values. Thus an organization should not only consider value system while selecting employees, but also must keep itself constantly aware of changing values of its employees. As Hall (1986) has noticed, increased desire for autonomy, self-development, balance between work and family life are some of the values surfacing among many workers. Robbins (1985) has also mentioned some new work values which put an increased importance on (i) leisure (ii) a fulfilling and meaningful paid job and (iii) control over one's activities on job. Similarly, younger employees are bringing a different set of values to the work place than their older peers. This means management will need to respond to these new values if younger workers are to remain with the organization as productive members.

Thus, the above discussion very clearly points out the significance of work values. If one can understand the profile of work value pattern of their employees it
will definitely provide guide line or direction in which the behaviour can be modified for the organizational effectiveness. Here the present investigation is a systematic attempt to study the work values of bank employees.

1.5 Organizational Health:

1.5.1 Introduction:

Human behaviour in organizations is rather unpredictable. Industrial psychologists have since long been trying to identify and understand the variables that determine organizational behaviour. It is now widely appreciated that the behaviour or performance of the employees of an organization is determined not only by the individual characteristics of these employees but also by the conditions in which they function. One set of such conditions is described by the term organisational climate (a term very close to organizational health). Environmental variations are likely to translate differences in human behaviour.

Organisational climate may be regarded as the personality of an organization as perceived by its employees. Each organization has its own distinct
climate. The totality of personality of individuals working in the organization has an impact on it and also the climate that emerges within an organization represents a major determinant of employees' behaviour. Perceived organizational environment or climate is seen as arousing motivation which in turn, causes emergent behaviour resulting in various consequences for the organization, such as, productivity or performances and retention or turnover. Thus organizational climate has significant effect on organizational behaviour.

Every organization is likely to have a climate but it may or may not be a healthy climate. In order to induce such organizational behaviour that will lead to achievement of organizational goals, organization must have healthy climate i.e. organizational health. Organization with poor health is having a climate where productivity of the members and thereby the efficiency of the organization is hampered. Healthy organizational climate, on the other hand is considered as an important variable in industrial peace, productivity and prosperity. Healthful environment may lead to organizational success and increased output.
Organizational Development (OD) approaches, due to the importance of organizational health, frequently referred to the concept of organizational health. OD stresses the need for continued appraisal and development of healthy norms in organizations. In this direction, investigators have attempted to provide a typological framework for discrimination between healthy and sick organizations (Fordyce and Weil, 1971). In the present investigation an attempt is being made to know the state of organizational health in banking organizations and to relate it with job satisfaction and work values of bank employees.

1.5.2 Concept of Organizational Health:

There is some amount of confusion over the identity of two concepts, viz, organizational climate and organizational health. Organizational climate is very close to the properties of organizational health. For this reason researchers have been using the term organizational climate for organizational health and vice versa, with the result that the demarcation line between the two has remained very thin (Sayeed, 1991). Complete clarity of the concept of 'Organizational Health' demands the clarity of organizational climate in a nutshell.
1.5.3 Definition of Organizational Climate:

Organizational climate is the sum total of the attributes of the work environment including its values and norms which symbolize the ongoing pattern of organization. Campbell and others (1964) view the climate "as a set of characteristics that describe an organization, distinguish it from other organizations, are relatively enduring over a period of time and influence the behaviour of the people in it."

Litwin and Stringer (1968) have defined the concept as such, "Organizational climate refers to the perceived, subjective effect of the formal system, the informal 'Style' of managers, and other important environmental factors on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people who work in a particular organization". Each organization has its own culture, traditions and methods of actions, which in their totality constitute its climate for people.

For the individual member within the organization, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and expectancies which describe the organization in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy)
and behaviour-outcome and outcome-outcome contingencies (Sayeed, 1980).

Different researchers have tried to identify the dimensions of organizational climate. Litwin and Stringer (1968) have identified nine dimensions of climate like structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, standard, conflict and identity. Schneider and Bartlett (1968) described six climate dimensions. They are managerial support, managerial structure, concern for new employees, intra-agency conflict, agent independence and general satisfaction.

1.5.4 Definition of Organizational Health:

Thus organizational climate tells about the summary perception of people about certain characteristics of the organization. But when such characteristics are evaluated as healthy or sick, it becomes an issue of organizational health. The concept of climate is less value ridden than organizational health. The organizational health simply is not the study of a climate but it is the valuing process of the climate as perceived by the members of the organization. In short, organizational health implies valuing of some vital behavioural aspects of organization.
The concept of organizational health of an organization is parallel to the concept of health (physical and mental) for an individual (Matthai, Pareek and Rao, 1983). When the individual is physically and mentally well equipped to function to the maximum of his capacities, we state that he has good health or he is healthy. Similarly if the organization is well equipped to function with its maximum capacities, we may refer to it as a healthy organization.

The credit for bringing the problem of organizational health into focus, goes to several researchers like, Argyris (1964), Blake and Mouton (1968), Bennis (1966), Clark (1969), Likert (1961), Lippit (1969), Miles (1965), Reddin (1970), Fordyce and Weil (1971), etc.,. It would be appropriate to understand this concept in the light of various definitions provided by some of such researchers.

Organization exists in relation with environment and it continually strives to cope with the environment, failure of this leads to many problems which are signs of poor health of the organization. Organizational health refers to the organization's ability to identify and adjust to the requirement for change influenced by
internal as well as external determinants. The concept of organizational health is concerned with the capability of organization to cope up with various conditions and untoward circumstances (Barnes, 1960). Thus organizational health implies certain dynamic and durable conditions that can be characterised as evaluative criteria. Here the climate properties are evaluated against a set of criteria of health.

Miles (1965) gave more clear concept of organizational health as, "organizational health is a set of fairly durable and second order system properties which tend to transcend short term effectiveness. A healthy organization in this sense not only survives in its environment but continues to cope adequately over the long run and continuously develops and extends its surviving and coping abilities. Short run operations on any particular day may be effective or ineffective but continued survival, adequate coping and growth are taking place."

Fordyce and Weil (1971) while attempting to provide a typological framework for discriminating between healthy and sick organizations, conceptualized organization health as, "A healthy organization is one
that has a strong sense of its own identity and mission and yet has the capacity to adapt readily to change. A healthy organization is most likely to search out and use the most effective methods for conducting its business. Healthy organization as a whole appears to be independent and growing. Every one in the organization is really responsible for behaving towards an associate, a supervisor or an employee in a grown up way. Healthy organization is a flexible and sensible rivalry. A few more attributes noticeable in healthy organizations are strong and consistent flow of energy toward widely-shared objectives, problem-solving attitude, amicable human relations, willingness on the part of members to learn from their jobs, a high degree of trust and a sense of freedom and mutual responsibility." Thus healthy organizations are self-reviving systems, best at solving the short and long drawn problems and tend to operate with energies less dissipated (Sayeed, 1991). Life, growth and vitality are main factors which form the concept of health. Healthy organization should be a dynamic system coping with the environmental changes.

The same way of thinking is reflected by Schein (1973). He is of the view that organizational health and effectiveness would depend ultimately upon the
organization's ability to diagnose its own problems and
to develop its own solutions. For maintaining
organizational health the management of the organization
should be of collaborative nature so that culture of the
organization could be managed in consideration with
human values and goals of the organization.

Blake and Mouton (1968) from their analysis of
organizational development programmes evolved a concept
of corporate excellence which is almost an equivalent to
the concept of organizational health. They emphasized
leadership processes and team building efforts for
evolving healthy norms.

Lippit (1969) has discussed the problem of
organizational health under the concept of
organizational renewal, and emphasized the influence of
society in making organization healthy or sick.

Bennis (1966) opined that healthy organizations are
those organizations managed scientifically. The more an
organization tries to maximize the effects of
facilitating factors within the organization and
minimize the restraining forces the better the condition
of health. Clark (1961) suggested that organizational
health is the process of fixating and maintaining
healthy norms at various levels of organizational complexity, i.e. from individual level as a unit to the organizational level as a whole. Thus the individual as a norm setter would contribute to organization's overall well being if he willingly follows and reinforces healthy norms.

In short, we may summarise that organizational health refers to certain functional and adaptive qualities of the organization, which make it capable to cope up with the demands of environment efficiently.

1.5.5 The Dimensions of Organizational Health:

While attempting to provide the criteria of evaluating the health of an organization researchers have pinned down lists of such measurable properties indicative of healthfulness. Researchers, however, differ in the number and variety of such measurable dimensions. Chappie and Sayles (1961) have suggested three such dimension to measure the organizational health such as morale, survival and growth.
Fordyce and Weil (1971) discussed detailed characteristics of healthy and unhealthy organizations which included freedom of people to share difficulties, pragmatic problem solving, functional decision making responsibility, sharing, respect of judgement of people, tackling problems of personal needs and human relationships, collaboration, joint effort in crisis management, conflict management with openness, use of feedback, joint critiquing, flexible leadership, high degree of trust, acceptance of risk, learning from mistakes, joint resolution of poor performance, functionalism of procedures, sense of order and high rate of innovation adaptability and joint management of frustrations.

Sayeed (1980) in an attempt to correlate organizational health, productivity and effectiveness discussed eight dimensions of organizational health, like adaptiveness, organizational excellence, considerate leadership, problem centeredness, conflict management, innovativeness, involvement, and initiation and outgoingness.

Pareek and Rao (1978) have mentioned the dimensions of organizational health in terms of autonomous,
collaboration and interdependence, creativity, productive behaviour, work motivation, functionality, openness and centrality.

Miles (1973) has laid down ten criteria or dimensions of organizational health which have been accepted for the present investigation. They are:

1. Goal Focus.
2. Communication Adequacy.
5. Cohesiveness
6. Morale
7. Innovativeness
8. Autonomy
9. Adaptation

The first three dimensions are relatively "tasky", in that they deal with organizational goals, the transmission of message, and the way in which decisions are made. Then there are three "maintenance needs dimensions" which include resource utilization, cohesiveness, and morale. This group of dimensions deals with the internal state of the system and its inhabitant "maintenance" needs. Finally remaining four dimensions viz., innovativeness; autonomy; adaptation and problem solving adequacy deal with growth and changefulness.
1.5.6 Significance of Organizational Health:

Conceptualization of organizational health is based on positive evaluation of organizational attributes. (Sayeed and Mehta, 1981). While working in the organization each employee consciously or unconsciously evaluates various attributes of his organization and the way he evaluates these attributes of organization deeply affects his organizational behaviour. We may safely assume that positive evaluation leads to increased enthusiasm and motivation to work for the organization. Organizational health characteristics evaluated negatively may kill the enthusiasm and initiative among the organizational members.

Moreover, positive evaluation of aspects of organization may act as catalyst toward increased job satisfaction and morale among the employees. Chapple and Sayles (1961) considered high morale in the organization as an indication of organizational health. Ill health of organization was equated with low morale. Researches have shown that organizational climate (a concept close to organizational health) has a determining effect on job motivation and satisfaction (Friedlander and
Margulies, 1969; Kacika and Kirk, 1968; Litwin and Stringer, 1968; Korman, 1977; Agarwal, 1976; Sinha, 1977). It seems plausible that healthy organizations are in some way more responsive to human needs so that satisfaction results directly or indirectly from the ability of the organization to meet those needs. It is evident that improved satisfaction and morale among the work group is as essential as any other input for superior performance and achievement especially in the long run.

Hall and Friedlander (1957) have suggested that healthy organizations have a good capacity to contribute to the overall satisfaction of seven societal criteria: owner satisfaction, customer satisfaction, government satisfaction, community satisfaction, superior satisfaction, creditor satisfaction, and employee satisfaction.

Organization viewed healthy may increase employees respect for the organization by attracting employees to stick to the organization, i.e. cohesiveness. Cohesiveness among organizational members hastens the process of organizational goal attainment and would reduce the problem of turnover, absenteeism
indiscipline, strikes etc. By understanding organizational health productivity and effectiveness of an organization can be predicted. If management instils such attributes and qualities clearly described as healthy characteristics of a system, there will be a significant corresponding change in organizational effectiveness in terms of enhanced productivity related processes and increased adaptability within the system (Sayeed, 1991).

By measuring organizational health of any organization proper measures could be provided to improve the health, as knowledge of organizational health helps to find the defect which may cause disorder and inefficiency in the organization. It also helps management to provide effective structures and process of management programme and in planning organizational development programmes.

1.6 Rationale for the Present Study:

It has been seen earlier that job satisfaction plays important role for the organization as well as the individual and at the same time it is influenced by a number of factors. Various researches reveal that
there is significant correlation between job satisfaction and organizational climate; between job satisfaction and work values. There is constant interplay among job satisfaction, work values and organizational climate that affects efficiency of organization. Hence the present investigator thought that job satisfaction and work values of bank employees could be studied in context of perceived organizational health. In other words she wanted to know whether there is any effect of perceived level of organizational health upon job satisfaction as well as work values of bank employees. It has been pointed out by Super (1962) that work value is significant and crucial factor in organization. If we want to enhance organizational effectiveness in terms of productivity then there is a need to study and change the existing pattern of work values of the employees in the direction of attainment of organizational goal. Friedlander and Margulies (1965) observed that predictions about employees' satisfaction could be made from a knowledge of the individual values which the employee holds concerning work. They utilized work values as the moderator of climate-satisfaction relationship. In the present study researcher felt that there is a rationale behind
studying job satisfaction and work values in context of perceived organizational health.

Simultaneously, the researcher thought to verify the influence of several frequently studied variables with controversial findings, on job satisfaction and work values viz., type of organization, cadre and number of dependents. In brief the present investigation is multidimensional in nature.

1.7 Scheme of chapterization:

There would be five chapters of the thesis. First chapter deals with the introduction and the philosophical foundation which leads to the conceptual clarity of the study.

The second chapter is the review of literatures related to the issues being investigated in this study.

The third chapter deals with the planning and procedure. It describes plan of research, variables under study, hypotheses to be verified, materials used in the study, sampling procedure and techniques of statistical analysis.
The fourth chapter which is the heart of the work, deals with the data and their interpretations after testing various hypotheses.

The fifth chapter summarizes the observation and conclusions. It also suggests various offshoots of the topic for further studies. Besides these, the thesis contains tables, bibliography, and appendices.