JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AS PREDICTORS OF HUMAN CAPITAL CREATION

A THESIS

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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in this thesis entitled "JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AS PREDICTORS OF HUMAN CAPITAL CREATION" in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the Department of Management Studies of the Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from December, 2010 to December, 2015 under the supervision of Dr. Santosh Rangnekar, Professor, Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee.

The matter presented in this thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute.

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ABSTRACT

The present study is an attempt to identifying the functions of job satisfaction (JS) and organisational commitment (OC) on human capital creation (HCC). Present study examines least explored the relationship of factors of job satisfaction (i.e. pay, promotion, supervision, rewards, benefits, operating procedure, work itself, communication and coworker satisfaction), and organisational commitment (which includes affective, normative and continuance commitment) with human capital creation. Further, the conditional effect of demographic features (which are widely acknowledged as the potential source of variations in behavioral outcomes) on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and human capital creation was examined. Lastly, present study examined the occurrence of perceptual differences in study variables (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and human capital creation was examined) due to group differences (age, gender, educational level and experience).

For the purpose of this study, primary data using cross sectional research design was adopted to collect responses from 366 executives (Junior, Middle and Senior) of fifty two Indian organisations (both public and private sector). Standardized instruments were used to collect the responses from varied nature of industries which include Electrical, Manufacturing, Service, IT-ITES (Information Technology and IT Enabled Services) and PME (Power, Mining and Exploration).

The data has been analysed using SPSS v20.0 software. Since the data is multivariate, therefore it was subjected for missing values, normality, reliability, validity and non- multicollinearity. Further, Exploratory Factor Analysis using Principal Component Method was carried on to obtain the factor structure. Afterwards, Descriptive Statistics, Correlation Analysis, Independent Sample t- tests, one way ANOVA and Regression Analysis were employed for testing the research hypotheses. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was performed using IBM AMOS v 21.

The study finding shows that job satisfaction and organisational commitment significantly predicts the human capital creation. The dimension of job satisfaction and organisational commitment represents the significant contribution in the human capital creation. Demographic (age, gender, experience and educational level) analysis of the study do not represents any

significant difference in the perception with respect to study variables: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and human capital creation. The validation of the scales provided the base for the further investigation.

Finally based on discussion, the conclusion and implications have been derived. Future scope has been explained. Here, in this study only two predictor variables (JS and OC) have been taken into consideration which was not studied together in previous researches and hence an addition in the existing literature. This study provides empirical evidence that JS and OC together as well as independently predict human capital creation.



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LIST OF IMPORTANT ABBREVATIONS

S.NO. 1	ABBREVIATIONS HC	FULL FORM Human Capital
2	HCC	Human Capital Creation
3	JS	Job Satisfaction
4	OC	Organisational Commitment
5	AC	Affective Commitment
6	CC	Continuance Commitment
7	NC	Normative Commitment
8	PRM	Promotion
9	SUP	Supervision
10	cow	Coworker
11	COM	Communication
12	REWS	Rewards
13	BENS	Benefits
14	OPE	Operating Procedure
15	WIT	Work itself
16	CVC NA KIMARI SER	Convergent, Validity coefficient
17	RECS	Recruitment Strategy
18	TRN	Training
19	PRAP TECHNO	Performance Appraisal
20	CM	Career Management
21	REWS	Rewards Strategy
22	PHCC	Perceived Human Capital Creation.)

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INTRODUCTION

1. 1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Rapidly changing business environment, increased global competition, technological innovation and economic uncertainties push organizations to evaluate their business operations, which may boost organizations' competitiveness. In order to build competitiveness, organizations often tend to rely on their resources. Those resources are considered rare and valuable those contribute to an organization's competitiveness and lead to improved performance (Barney, 1991; Conner, 1991). According to the resource-based view land, labour, capital and enterprise are the four major resources which push the competitive strength of any organization (Brian, 2007). Among the listed resources, labor/employees are the most important, and this notion is consistently supported in the literature (Guest, 1999: Huselid, 1995). In related studies, human resource has been unfailingly considered as a source to gain competitive advantage. Human being may be understood as potential, with infinite capabilities, which can be capitalized for organizational sustainability. Armstrong and Baron (2002) in their definition attributed human resources as human capital and stated, "people and their communal skills, abilities and experience, coupled with their ability to deploy these in the interest of the organization, are now recognized as significant contributors for organizational success and as well a major source of competitive advantage." Human capital may be defined as a mixture of individual and combined competencies of the human resources of an organization. It includes an understanding of facts, learning abilities, personal characteristics, attitudes, knowledge sharing and commitment to organizational goals (Fitz-enz, 2000). In the present scenario, significance of human capital cannot be ignored. Edvisson and Malone (1997) posited the importance of individual capabilities on organizational collective competences, organizational schedule and organizational culture. Similarly, Lepak and Snell (1999) has emphasized the importance of human capital on organizational competitiveness. The present economy is a knowledge-based economy in which technological advancements drive organizations to uncover the new ways to gain competitive advantage. Therefore, the success of an organization solely depends on highly competent people or, in other words, human capital of the organization. Thus, human capital is becoming a primary organizational competence (Kwon, 2009). Despite other resources are also being crucial for organizational sustainability, human capital plays a leading role in the utilization of other organizational capitals. From the ongoing discussion, it is pertinent to deduce that human capital is a factor of prime importance for organizations. It is an 'invisible asset' (Itami, 1987) and more effectual than of physical capital (Woodhall, 2001).

At this juncture of time, the question that comes into the picture is how to nurture and retain human capital. The main challenge here is to manage the interactive effect of intellectual, social and emotional capital. A constant fear of losing competitive advantage when employees terminate their organizational membership always keeps organizations worried. In order to retain human capital, organizational employees should have job satisfaction with related facets, in order to avoid the tendency of losing human capital. Commitment of the employee also plays an important role in the retention of human capital. Bontis and Fitz-Enz (2002) in their study have supported that an employee's job satisfaction and commitment has a positive relation with the human capital. Employee's loyalty is also associated with job satisfaction. Hence, it can be deciphered that an employee's satisfaction may lead to his/her commitment and both these in turn binds an employee to the organization.

The factors such as job satisfaction (Bright, 2008), organizational commitment (Organ; 1988) and organizational citizenship Behaviour (Organ; 1988) does motivate an employee to perform well and this in turn leads to the creation of human capital (Rego, et al., 2010; Walumbwa, et al., 2010). Productivity is an intangible asset of an individual that paves way to get his/her work done. It consists of skills, knowledge, education and experience which an individual attains during his tenure in an organization. When the performance of the employees is high, it creates positive mindset in the work place and generates higher psychological resources to help them cope with challenges in the workplace. Moreover, when employees perform better, they develop the self-confidence and if this attribute is utilized positively, it leads to higher motivation levels in their future endeavours. All of these attributes raise their intellectual capital and employees with higher levels of cognitive capital would be more satisfied with their job (Luthans, et al., 2007a). Based on above discussion, it is obvious to assume the predictor function of job satisfaction and organizational commitment on human capital creation. However, empirical evidence supporting the proposed relationship is fragmented. Considering this scarcity a need was felt to examine the assumed relationship in the Indian context. Therefore, the present study has been conducted.

1.2 HUMAN CAPITAL

To understand the concept of human capital, we need to start with intellectual capital. Intellectual can be defined as "all non-monetary and non-physical resources that are fully or partly controlled by the organization and that contribute to the organization's value creation" Roos et al. (2005). Further, Jain and Dhar (2010) represent intellectual capital the potential of assets for creating value in organizations and source of organizational performance (Jain and Rangenekar, 2002) Various researchers like (Marr, 2008; Roos et al., 2005; Tayles et al., 2007; Wall et al., 2004) categorized intellectual capital into three parts:

- Human capital: awareness, proficient skills and understanding, capability, quality and originality of employees.
- II. Structural capital: managerial charts, record, software systems, supply chain networks, corporate background, novel capital, strategies and guiding principles.
- III. Relational capital: marketing channels, governmental and industrial networking, customer reliability, relationships with suppliers, customer relationships, intermediaries and partners.

The concept of human capital is not new; it was developed in 1776 in classical economics. However, it received the attention in 1961 when Schultz developed a human capital theory as a significant concept for the economic growth. After the emergence of this theory, few other researchers had associated human capital as a source of socioeconomic development (Alexander, 1996; Grubb and Lazerson, 2004). A theory of human capital was also developed by the pioneering economist Elliott (1991). In his theory, he defined human capital as the labor quality which requires investment like other factors (land, machines, factory outlets etc) and contributes to business success. He explains human capital investment in the form of social cost (time invested in human capital development), the psychological cost (expenses an individual bear during his learning) and monetary cost (includes social cost and psychological cost). Barney (1991) stated that, the resource-based perspective can be associated with human capital theory in terms of organizational development that helps an organization to gain an edge over its competitors. The human capital concept can be categorized in some perspectives viz., individual oriented (Beach, 2009), the accumulation process oriented (De la Fuente and Ciccone, 2002), production-oriented (Romer, 1999) and social-oriented (Rodriguez and Loomis, 2007). By enveloping these perspectives, human capital can be defined as a process through which a high level of production is expected within an individual or in a group. This argument has been well supported by Chatzkel (2004) that "it is the human capital that differentiates organizations and their actual basis for competitive advantage." Human capital is the multiplication of loyalty and skills (Ulrich, 1998).

On the basis of an individual perspective, human capital is a combination of distinctive skills, intelligence, trust, commitment education, experience and work values (Frank and Bemanke 2007). In an economic perspective Sheffin (2003) defined human capital as "the stock of skills and knowledge embodied in the ability to perform labor to produce lucrative value." At the end of the 19th century, organizations have come to terms that people play an integral role, like any other performing tangible and intangible assets. As the time changed, the economy shifted to the knowledge based activities and accepted that people are the main resource for economic and knowledge development. Only the people have the prime power for sustaining the organization. Because people have the tangible (physical) and intangible (psychologically) source for development. Schultz (1961) and Becker (1975) also supported this notion that people are the key resource for production. "Human, not financial capital, must be the starting ongoing foundation of a successful strategy" Barlett and Ghoshal (2002). People are the only tool through which organizations can achieve competitive advantages and can increase their market share by using intellectual capital (Skandia, 1998). Few scholars divided human capital into three parts: General Human Capital (GHC): GMC obtained by extensive information and talent (Becker

1964).

Firm specific Human Capital (FSHC): FSHC can be accumulated through education and work experience (Alan et al., 2008).

Task specific Human Capital (TSHC): TSHC can be obtained by training, education, experiences while performing specific tasks within the firm (Alan et al., 2008).

The existing competitive environment also reinforces the fact that human capital is a significant tool which increases the market value many times of their book value by applying their skills, civilization and inspiration of achievement. Notably, human capital is the blend of an employee's talent, skills, competency, loyalty, know-how and ideas (Skandia, 1998; Snell and Bohlander, 2007). Human capital can be characterized into four parts shareable, transferable, expandable and self-generating (Crawford; 1991). Shareable and transferable characteristics of human capital states a street-smart employee could transfer and share his knowledge to other hands. And expandable and self-generating state is linked to the augmentation in present-day knowledge of the employee. It can be said that current knowledge can be expanded through information, abilities and experience. Therefore, the first two characteristics of a human capital expand the 'range' of human capital, and the other two extend the 'volume'. Based on these characteristics, impact of human capital can be experienced on three categories: individual, organizational and societal. In individual perspective, most of the researchers state that an increase in the employee's income can be affected by the employee efficiency (Becker, 1993; Schultz, 1971; Sidorkin, 2007). Employee productivity is closely connected to the core competencies of the organization (Lepak and Snell, 1999). In support of this, Malone (1997) presented the view, that human capital can affect the organizational shared competences, company culture and organizational routines. The cultural perspective of human capital is the combination of the employee and organizational perspective. Human capital can increase awareness of the communal factors within the society (Beach, 2009), such as political stability, human rights, and democracy (McMohan; 1999). Therefore, in the awareness of social system, human capital plays a vital role. According to the literature, there are plenty of ways to measure the human capital. Table 1.1 explains the various measures that have been used to measure the human capital creation:

Table 1.1 Measurements for Human Capital

Author	Measurements	
Brooking (1996)	Education, Work related competencies, Occupational assessments, Vocational qualifications; psychometric and Work related knowledge	
Ernst and Young (1997)	Management, Strategy Execution, Ability to Attract, Innovativeness, Quality of Executive, Management Experience, Research Leadership and Quality of Major	
Lee and Witteloostuijn (1998)	Experience, educational level and organizational tenure.	
Roos et al. (1998)	Intellectual dexterity, thoughts and competence	
Scandia (1998)	Leadership, Empowerment, Motivation, Number of employees, worker tenure, worker turnover, Total of Number female managers, Total Number of mangers, Employees under age of 40, Normal epoch of employees, Average training days per annum and Training cost.	

Brown (1999)	Performance appraisal, experience and level of job	
Devenport (1999)	Capability, Behaviour, endeavor and Time	
Buren (1999)	Core measures: retention of talented employees, capacity to attract the employees, IT literacy, substitution costs of main employees, employee job satisfaction and employee organizational commitment Elective measures: Organizational culture, Effectiveness of learning transfer in key areas, Management reliability, Employee compensation, Level of Education –graduates and postgraduates, Employee empowerment, Management familiarity, Time in training, Employee tenure and Authorized teams.	
Wyatt (1999)	Recruitment strategy, reward strategy, organizational culture and organizational communication.	
Zwell and Ressler (2000)	Competencies for different level of organization- 1. For leaders: tactical thinking, change management, job position in organization and performance appraisal. 2. For managers: intent, development of others and Organizational know-how. 3. For employees: quality concern, Flexibility, pressure, veracity and reality, Service orientation and outcome.	
Jaw et al. (2002)	Employees return and investment, leadership style, entrepreneurship and employee skill and ability.	
Piiazza-Georgi (2002)	The stock of knowledge, Human skills and entrepreneurship	
Birasnav and Rangnekar (2009)	Recruitment strategy, training, performance appraisal, career development, reward strategy and perceived human capital creation	

1.2.1 DIMESNSIONS OF HUMAN CAPITAL

The present study basically focuses on human capital creation through HR strategies like: recruitment strategies, performance appraisal, training, career management, reward strategies and perceived human capital creation.



Figure 1.1 Human Capital Creation Factors Birasnav and Rangnekar (2009)
PHCC-Perceived Human Capital Creation

1.2.1.1 Recruitment Strategy

Snell and Bohlander (2007) defined recruitment as a process of identifying the probable employee of the organization. Through recruitment, an organization spreads information regarding the basic details of job opening and the qualifications required for obtaining it. The organization can use the internal and external recruitment practices to hire the best talent pool and enhance their existing competencies. Barber (1998) delineates the recruitment process in three phases, which start with different practices for attracting individual followed by practices of continuing with the application and job offer made by the organization. A good recruitment strategy can attract the pool of talented applicants, who can contribute to organizational productivity and can help organizations to gain an edge over its competitor (Michaels et al., 2001). Many studies proposed different factors like company advertising (Cable and Judge, 2000, Chand and Choudhary, 2012), company goodwill (Gatewood et al., 1993) that attracts an individual to apply for a job opening. While implementing the recruitment strategy, an organization needs to deal with certain issues like: to whom the organization wants to recruit, from which place they want to recruit and what are the distinctive methods through which an organization will recruit to match up the present and anticipated needs of human capital (Ghosh and Geetika, 2007). To match up the need of human capital of organization and diverse employment modes, Lepak and Snell (1999) proposed a framework for the uniqueness and value of human capital:

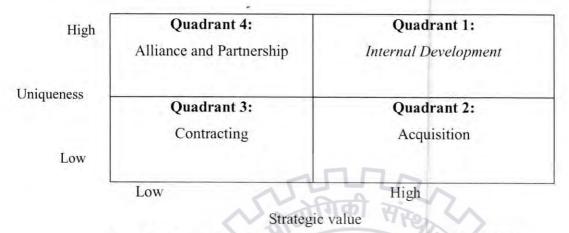


Figure 1.2 Human Capital and Employment Modes, Lepak and Snell (1999)

1.2.1.1.1 Quadrant 1: Internal Development and Commitment

In the quadrant 1 as we can see that the human capital value and uniqueness is high because a firm required firm-specific skill, and it cannot be easily obtained from outside. At this point, the organization prefers to employ the internal employees (Williamson, 1975, 1981). This mode enhances the current firm-specific non-transferable skills for the employee, which plays an integral part for the organizational development. These skills may not be valuable for another organization, but going-out of these skills may cause for organizational loss, in terms of financial and human capital (Becker, 1976). However, this skill groups avail strategic value and uniqueness which gain a contentious advantage (Barney, 1991; Stewart, 1997). So quadrant 1 is mostly used practice, to obtain the organizational competitive advantage.

1.2.1.1.2 Quadrant 2: Acquisition

In this quadrant two, strategic values for human capital are very high, but uniqueness is low, because in this kind of requirement, skills are widely available in the labour market. These skills also contribute to human capital and organizational development (Hamel and Prahalad, 1994). In this mode, an organization can choose skilled employees from the external market. It requires no cost for their improvement. This process enhances the productivity of the organization (Becker, 1976). Hence, by this mode an organization enjoys immediate results of employees' build up (Lepak and Snell, 1999).

1.2.1.1.3 Quadrant 3: Contracting

In the quadrant three, human capital strategic value and uniqueness are very low. In this mode, organizational skills are available very frequently and can be used as a commodity, when required. Due to the tiniest spirited source for the organizational development, an organization spends minimal cost for skill development and training (Becker, 1964). This mode basically depends on outsourcing and contracting of the employees. Such kind of acquisition provides flexibility for the utilization of a resource which in turn reduces the overhead cost and enhances competitiveness (Quinn, 1992).

1.2.1.1.4 Quadrant 4: Alliance

In the quadrant four, human capital strategic values are very low and uniqueness is high. In this mode, two organizations come into alliance where they contribute to a desired outcome and share information with each other with effectual functioning (Dyer, 1996). These have been done to facilitate team building, cooperation, knowledge sharing and productivity (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). We have witnessed a lot of alliances at a national and international level to gain human capital and competitive advantages recently, such as in the case of Aresenal Mittal and Tata Jaguar.

1.2.1.2 Training

Noe et al. (2010) delineate training as "planned efforts to help employees to acquire job-related knowledge, skills, abilities, and Behaviours with the goal of applying these on the job (p: 189)" Scrupulously we can say training is an organized structure that enhances human capital (Alan et al., 2008; Frank and Bemanke, 2007; Griliches and Regev, 1995). Ok and Tergeist (2003) posited that, there is a significant increment in employee's wage, motivation and human capital due to the training. Human capital plays an integral part in competency development with the contribution of training. Hence, human capital is the result of training and knowledge gained by the employee (Chen and Lin, 2004). For strengthening the position in market, an organization usually conducts diverse training programs to nurture the skill of employees. In addition to it, the organization provides training to employees at varied levels to enrich their career at entry level, progressive level and establishment level and prepare them to face uncertain situations with the help of skills, knowledge and abilities. Noe et al. (2010) bifurcates the requirement of training on the basis of organization's needs i.e. instructional design and management learning system. In the instruction design training, structured training program would be conducted to obtain specific

skills. It consists of five steps, starting with need assessment (organization, person and task), readiness (employee characteristics and working environment), planning (content and objectives), implementation (to gain competency) and measuring (evaluation of a training program).

To make a structured training program, effective learning management system has been used. It is a computer-based application which instructs the top management about, progress and results of training programs. So, training is also a kind of investment, which results in low labour turnover, increased productivity and human capital. In particular, training always grant benefits to the firm (Đurković, 2009). It permits human resource to face the challenges in a demanding environment that makes them more productive and efficient. Training also reduces the accident and casualty, which creates a safe environment to work more. Although top management understands that training is a costly process, but they know the outcome of these costly investments in terms of productivity and increased human capital. In the nutshell, training drives the employee's capabilities and future organizational role (Spitzer and Conway, 2002). Lepak and Snell (1999) posited investment in human capital and other aspects that propel a firm's competitive advantage and core-competencies. Griliches and Regev (1995) and Rosen (1999) hypothesized, training as a significant contributor towards human capital and with the support of this notion Wayne et al. (1999) affirmed training as a prominent contributor toward human TOTE OF TECHNOLOGY capital.

1.2.1.3 Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal system can be described as performance evaluation, performance assessment or employee appraisal by which an employee performance has been inspected on certain standards, so that the employee performance can be appraised (Manasa and Reddy 2009; Muchinsky, 2012). Performance appraisal practice like other human-resource practices enhances the employee motivation, morale, developed changed attitude and productivity. Dressler (2011) defined performance appraisal as a process of "evaluating an employee's current and past performance relative to his or her performance standards." Harper (1996) described it as an examination of employee's growth, employee's competencies, career prospect and specialized achievement. A firm hereby can collect all the gains when this evaluation process represents an employee's skills escalation from the past to the present. In addition to this, Wilson and Western

(2000) delineated performance appraisal as "the annual interview that takes place between the manager and the employee to discuss the individual's job performance during the previous 12 months, and the compilation of action plans to encourage an improved performance" (p. 384). Organizations follow various kinds of appraisal methods and the characteristics of each appraisal method reflect the organizational culture (Randell, 1994). An organization conducts performance appraisal system not only to motivate or reward the employees, but also to identify training needs, career development, civilizing human, distribution of monetary and non-monetary benefits, succession planning, formulating a promotional chart and creation of human capital (Bowles and Coates, 1993; IDS, 2007; IRS, 1999). The main objective of the performance appraisal system is the development of employees. The evaluator transfers all the information to the top management, which was received from the mentors and coaches and then provides valuable feedback regarding the ways and means of gaining opportunities by concentrating on capabilities for achieving desired objectives (Rao, 2006). At last, it can be submitted that to obtain the desired human capital; performance appraisal, recruitment, training, career development and pay are the prominent enablers. It can be understood from the above discussion that performance appraisal's primary objective is not only the evaluation aspect but also the overall development of the employee and the organization. This notion has been well supported by Snow and Snell (1993) where they concluded performance appraisal is used not only for the evaluation but for the expansion of existence structure of the firm so that firm can achieve its competitive advantage with the help of employees' capabilities.

1.2.1.4 Reward Strategy

Kao and Kantor (2004) described reward as anything which a company offers to its employees, intentionally or unintentionally, for the talent and contribution made. These rewards can be financial, non-financial or according to the needs of employees. It means designing a reward system is exceptionally difficult as it constitutes myriad of factors like compensation, payment and remuneration (Fuehrer 1994; Zingheim and Schuster 2000b). Reward structure is a kind of investment, which is designed to stimulate a potential talent to join the organization and contribute to the organizational development (Becker, 1964). Lawler (1994) depicted that pay systems, company strategy and employee Behaviour are the main constituents of a reward strategy and, directly and indirectly, related to human capital (Lepak and Snell, 1999). Equitable rewards also contribute to the employee's retention (Adams, 1963). If an employee

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realizes that the amount which he has been receiving for his valuable contribution is less than the equitable amount, he might think of shifting from the organization.

Armstrong (1999) proposed that the values of the organization can be reflected by the reward policy. These policies enable the organizations to satisfy the employees and maintain fairer work culture. Kuhn (2009), in his study, identified the reward structure of an organization and its association with the culture of the organization. If the reward is based on distinctive performance, it gravitates individualistic culture and if the reward is based on a team performance, it leads to a collectivist culture. This type of reward system drives an employee to expose with different kinds of skills that enhance the productivity of employees (Snell and Bohlander, 2007). At last, we can say the total reward structure of a firm should focus on the employee and organizational development in order to be sustaining in the knowledge based economy (Yahya and Goh, 2002).

1.2.1.5 Career Management

Baruch (2004) defines career "as a process where the employee has the opportunity to develop through a variety of work experiences and roles in more than one organization." Career management strategies "increases the likelihood of career goal attainment" (Noe; 1996). Gould and Penley (1984) categorized these strategies as feasibility of career, approval, time and effort. It is not easy to sustain in a competitive era, without proper career planning and career objective to achieve desired objectives. Greenhaus et al. (2000) define career management as "an ongoing process of preparing, developing, implementing and monitoring career plans and strategies undertaken by the individual alone or in concert with the organization's career management system." In the contemporary environment, social scientists have focused on the systematic career development of an employee who aligns with organizational productivity. (Sutaari, 2002) Traditionally it was not ubiquitous in organizations. Earlier there was only profit maximization in organizations; human resource management was used to be considered as a liability instead of an asset. However, over the time this approach has become obsolete because of the development of various human-resource practices.

The present scenario is totally different from the previous one; now an organization not only considers its own future, but also concentrates on the employee's career by aligning the individual goals with the organizational goals. Career management has become an important aspect of an individual who resulted in organizational commitment, job satisfaction, motivation,

increased human capital, skills and understanding between organizational culture and employee need (Snell and Bohlander; 2007, Sekhar et.al., 2013). Arnold (2002), in his study, stated that superior career management interventions could make a win-win situation for both the organization and an individual. These interventions should have a long existence in an organization, only then delivery can be expected. It is interesting to observe how these interventions tackle individual priority. Hence, active participation and support from top management is also a crucial element in the success of career management intervention (Mayo, 1991). Individual, organizational and social variables are the main factors of career success (Judge, et al. 2003). Exiting literature proposed that human capital has been very much influenced by career management (Dreher and Ash, 1990). Tharenou, et al. (1994), in their study, concluded that the investment made by an individual in education and experience is strongly associated with career development. We can conclude that strategy of career management associated with desire education and experience, adds significantly to the core competency of the organization through the increased human capital.

1.2.1.6 Perceived Human Capital Creation

Human Capital is considered to be the inimitable, intangible and a strategic asset to an organization, which serve as a critical success factor and impact the competitive advantage of the business. Hence, human capital strategy of an organization needs to be formulated with at most clarity and conscience. Garavan et al. (2001) underlined few of the strategies namely employability, flexibility and adaptability, which could be used to transform human resources into human capital. In addition to the efforts put forth by the organization, self-learning and interactive learning among their peers by the employees makes the process human capital creation seamless. Ulrich et al. (1999) underlined that the organizations nourish the human capital in different teams by equally focusing on the capabilities and commitment of the employees. Analyzing the extant of literature on Human capital creation resulted that the focus was laid mostly on the economic perspectives. Bontis and Fitzent (2002) explained in his path breaking work, that the creation human capital through human capital effectiveness and human capital valuation. Employees perceive their human capital creation by contributing through intellectual capital corresponding to the investment made upon them. Further, it can be felt when an employee is made to climb the hierarchy with more responsibilities and an influential position, by highlighting his/her performance (Ulrich et al., 1999). Empowered employees feel more

authoritative and the relationship between skill, authority and status cannot be insignificant in any organizational scenario (Harley, 1999). Chatterjee et al. (2009) also advocates the impact of strategic management on organisational effectiveness for human capital development. Overall, human capital development or creation should be long term goal and meticulous planning and implementation of necessary strategies are an imperative.

1.3 JOB SATISFACTION

1.3.1 Conceptual and Theoretical Genesis

Latham (2007), a scholar in Behavioural sciences of the present era was not only concerned about the impact of job satisfaction as a subjective thought but also reasoned it as Behaviour of natural reaction to a longing. The Behaviourists have given more importance to the cause and effect Behaviour of an employee. Communal psychologists and sociologists have invented numerous replicas for this fact that happiness of employees depends on the relative aspects rather than the absolute eminence (Adams, 1963; Homans, 1974; Merton, 1957). In the field of the social psychology, researchers investigated the influence of personal and cultural situations on the individual Behaviour. It has been considered as the major discipline in the sociology. Delamater (2006) posited psychologists have focused on the ways in which eccentricity (self, attitude, and perception) affects individual, whereas sociologists focused on how sovietise (families, organizations, social institutions) affects individual Behaviour. Social psychology is the study of two aspects of human personal and collective Behaviour. Year on year social science's scholars and social psychologists organize the research to evaluate the perception of the employee to his/her job (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is one of the most researched topics in the cultural psychology (Pincus, 1986). Job satisfaction primarily depends on the employee perception toward his job. Attitude is the disposition of emotional feeling of a person that is cultured and changed repeatedly. A change in individual comes from within. Job satisfaction is generated by various related factors, which cannot be ignored. Job satisfaction is the consequence of diverse feelings obsessed by a worker. Job satisfaction is a feeling which is a result of job dynamics, individual characteristics and social relation (Shajahan and Shajahan, 2004). Brayfield and Rothe (1951) described job satisfaction as the expression of attitude of employee considering the job. Further Spector (1997) stated that job satisfaction forces employee's feelings to his/her job and the facets of job. Personal and organizational characteristic's always affects the job satisfaction (Mowday, Steers and Porter 1979). Locke (1976) explains job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job experience" (p. 1304). Locke definition includes the feeling and cognition, because feeling and cognition are linked in psychology and biology. Smith et al. (1969) described job satisfaction, as feelings of an employee have concerns towards his job. Similarly, Vroom (1982) defines job satisfaction as employee's emotion toward his job.

Job satisfaction has always been a centre of attraction for social science researchers. It has been researched from last century. The research on job satisfaction embarked from the Taylor's study, when he found the employee's job duties and novel ways for training the workers (Taylor, 1911). However, this primary study has stressed on maximization of employee efficiency. By the end of 1930s, the study on employee's reaction towards their job was in pace due to Hawthorne experiments (Bruce and Walton, 1992). Since then research on job satisfaction has been carried out to investigate the feeling of an employee for the job. The concept of job satisfaction has emerged as the mixed perception of an employee to his job. Job satisfaction has been separated into two types: intrinsic job satisfaction (satisfaction recognized with the internal aspects like achievement, recognition, feeling, attitude, etc.) and extrinsic job satisfaction (satisfaction recognized with external aspect pay, reward, working hours, etc.) (Hirschfield, 2002). There is one another view of job satisfaction that it is required to achieve high performance and motivation. Though potency of motivation depends upon the job satisfaction level, but it is not found to be common. Some theories (content theories) attempt to link job satisfaction and motivation in direct relationship and can be understood by the theories of job satisfaction. Theoretical explanation of job satisfaction -

1.3.1.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Maslow (1943) developed a need hierarchy theory which contains five types of needs from lower to higher order. At the bottom, he presented the basic needs (food, shelter & clothes) and on the top he presented the self actualisation needs (self-development).

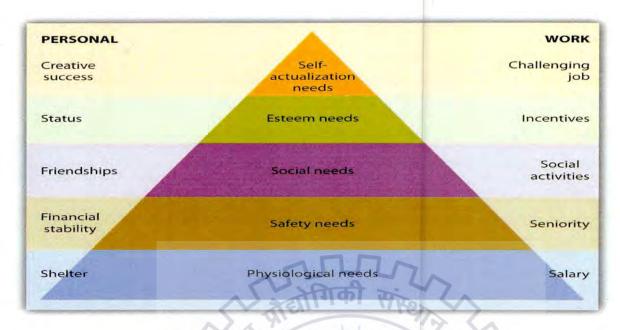


Figure 1.3 Maslow (1943) Need Hierarchy Theory

- Physiological needs include: shelter, thirst, hunger, sex and other physical needs.
- Safety needs include: protection and sense of security from bodily and poignant harm.
- Social needs include: love, belongingness, familiarity in society and acquaintance.
- Esteem needs include: sense of worth, sovereignty, and accomplishment.
- Self-actualisation needs includes: development, achieving one's latent, and self-fulfilment.

Maslow splits the whole need hierarchy framework into five levels. Bottom two levels of the hierarchy contained basic and safety needs, which are considered as the lower-order needs and the other three levels contain social, ego and self-actualization needs, considered as higher-order needs. Higher-level needs of hierarchy lead to internal satisfaction, where as lower level needs lead to external satisfaction. Therefore, conclusions that can be drawn from the Maslow's theory are that every employee has its lower and higher level. If a person satisfies with his lower level of needs, then he automatically gets motivated to achieve the next level of the need in hierarchy. It presents the scenario that satisfaction leads motivation achievement.

1.3.1.2 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Frederick Herzberg a psychologist, who presented this theory in 1959. In his study he surveyed the workers, analyzed facts and concluded in various work factors called:

• Hygiene factors: factors which are not directly contributors in job satisfaction

• Motivation factors: factors which are significant contributors to job satisfaction.

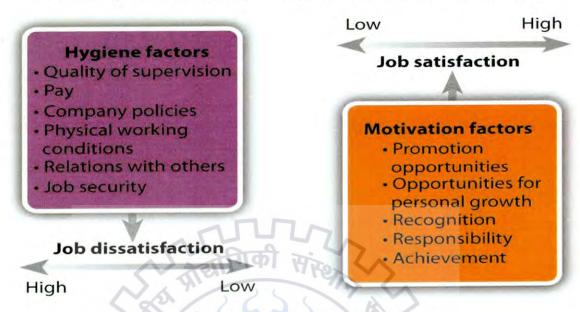


Figure 1.4 Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory

In his study, Herzberg concluded; intrinsic content of job that leads an employee towards satisfaction and extrinsic content of job detracts from satisfaction. Motivational factors like promotion opportunities, recognition, responsibility, opportunities for personal growth and achievement are the factors which lead an employee towards job satisfaction and hygiene factors like pay, physical working condition, job security, company policies and qualities of supervision may not lead an employee towards satisfaction, but the absence of these can lead towards job dissatisfaction.

1.3.1.3 Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory was developed by Victor Vroom in 1964. According to expectancy theory employee puts effort to obtain reward, in the expectation that his performance will lead to desired results.



Figure 1.5 Vroom's (1964) Expectancy theory

Vroom in his theory concluded that employees exert efforts towards the procured outcome in three conditions:

Effort performance relationship: It indicates that employee has faith in his effort for acceptable outcome. Performance-reward relationship: It indicates that employee has faith in his performance for desired return. Rewards personal goal's relationship: It indicates the degree of the satisfaction experienced by an employee when he obtains the rewards by accomplishment of his professional goals.

In this theory, if desired expectation matches with obtained one, it leads an employee towards job satisfaction and vice-versa. Thereby, this theory is an attempt to explain how the expectations are fulfilled and acknowledged cognitively.

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1.3.1.4 Equity Theory

John Stacy Adams a Behavioural psychologist developed equity theory in 1963. This theory is an attempt to explain that an employee is not only concerned with the amount which he receives for his hard work but also the way he is being treated in comparison with others. The notion is that a fairness of reward stimulates an employee to stay with the organization for a long run. The ratio of input to output leads to structure of equitable payment at the workplace. This can be understood by following equation.

 $\frac{\text{individual's outcomes}}{\text{individual's own inputs}} = \frac{\text{relational partner's outcomes}}{\text{relational partner's inputs}}$

Figure 1.6 Adams Equity Theory

Inputs like effort, hard work, skill, adaptability, personal sacrifice, and support from co-workers and colleagues can be defined as the contribution of an employee by which he obtain rewards. Outcomes are the positive or negative results that employees perceive as the consequence in comparison to be other. According to this theory if an employee is treated fairly for the same amount of exertion with his co-worker, then he feels satisfied and if he is not, this may lead him to dissatisfaction with job.

1.3.2 DIMENSION OF JOB SATISFACTION

Multidimensionality of job satisfaction is relatively fathomless and numerous researchers identified many dimensions of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the multifaceted aspect like pay, promotion, supervision, co-worker and work environment (Muchinsky, 1977; Pettite et al., 1997). Latham (2007) listed following dimensions for the job satisfaction: administrative policy, job security, relative status, worker input, work itself, autonomy and opportunity for advancement. The most typical categorization for facet was proposed by (Smith et al., 1969): considering pay, supervision, promotions, and work itself. Locke (1976) adds few other facets: appreciation, working conditions, company management.

Weiss et al. (1967) identified the diverse dimensions to compute extrinsic satisfaction (pay, chance of advancement and supervision) and intrinsic satisfaction (chance to use abilities and feelings of accomplishment from the job). Sharma (1971) studied different factors like decent pay, bonus, excellent supervision, labour-management, relations opportunities for occupational advancement for job satisfaction. Price and Mueller (1986) proposed various dimensions for job satisfaction pay, promotion chances, peer support, distributive justice, autonomy and supervisory support. These similar dimensions were also updated by Kim et al. (1996) in their study to measure job satisfaction. Mount (1984) identified various facets for job satisfaction like; career development, supervision, pay, company practices and overall job satisfaction. Jurgensen (1978) also suggested the important facet in their respective work as pay, co-worker, supervision, promotion opportunities, work itself for job satisfaction and these are supported by Judge and Church (2000). Various measurement models have been shown in the Table no.1.2

Table 1.2 Measurement Models of Job Satisfaction

Author	Scale Name	Dimensions of Job Satisfaction
Brayfield and Rothe (1951)	Overall Job Satisfaction	18 items to measure job satisfaction
Smith et al. (1969)	Job Descriptive Index (JDI)	Pay, Promotion, Work-itself, Supervision and Co-worker
Weiss, et al. (1967)	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	Intrinsic job satisfaction (chances to use abilities and feeling of accomplishment) and Extrinsic job satisfaction (pay, chance of advancement and supervision)
Hackman and Oldham (1974)	Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)	Security, Compensation, Co- worker and Supervision
Taylor and Bowers (1974)	Overall Job satisfaction	Pay, promotion, supervision, Work, co-worker, progress and organization.
Warr, Cook and Wall (1979)	Global job Satisfaction	Extrinsic and Intrinsic job Satisfaction
Schrieshein and Tsui (1980)	Job Satisfaction Index	Work-itself, pay, supervision, co-worker, promotion opportunities and job satisfaction in general
Hathfield, Robinson and Huseman (1985)	Job Perception Scale	Work-itself, pay, promotion, supervision and co-worker
Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley (1989)	Job Satisfaction Relative to Expectation (1991)	Job stress, role conflict and role ambiguities
Spector (1997)	Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)	Pay, co-worker, promotion, supervision, communication, rewards, benefits, operating procedure and work-itself

Past studies clearly acknowledged numerous related factors which drive the job satisfaction levels in the organizational scenario. Hence, present study has spotlighted nine major factors of job satisfaction. These are as follows; pay (pay raise and satisfaction with pay), Promotion (satisfaction with promotional prospects), Supervision (satisfaction by immediate boss), Benefits (satisfaction with fringe benefits, etc.), Reward (satisfaction with reward (not necessarily monetary) given for good performance), Operating procedure (satisfaction with the rules and procedure), Co-worker (satisfaction with colleagues), Work-itself (satisfaction with the type of work done), Communication (satisfaction with the communication within the organization) these are discussed as below (Spector, 1997).

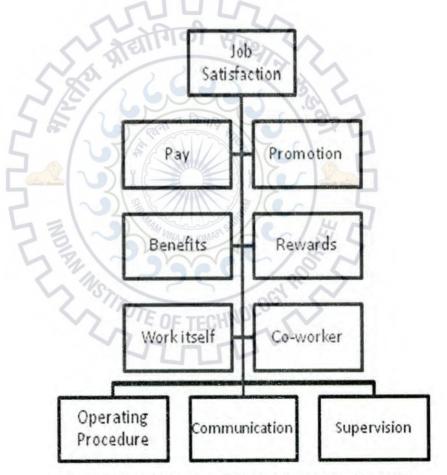


Figure 1.7 Factor Structure of Job Satisfaction (Spector, 1997)

1.3.2.1 Pay

Employees do not work for free. They want something in revert for their efforts, which they put for the organizational success. Equity theory is the base for pay satisfaction (Heneman and Judge, 2000). According to the equity theory and discrepancy model, pay is the amount of fairness

received by an employee in contrast to his peers (Adams, 1965; Lawler, 1971, 1981). Pay comprises as the most important part of expenses for the employees in organization. Heery and Noon (2001, p. 306) define pay as "payment for work, which can assume a number of different forms, including a basic wage or salary, supplementary cash payments, such as shift pay and overtime pay, and benefits in kind." Concepts such as remuneration, wage or salary are frequently used as the synonym for pay (Erasmus et al., 2001). Pay is considered as one of the crucial factors for the attitudinal outcomes related to job (Weiner, 1980). Overall attitude of an employee to his employer as an outcome of pay is termed as organizational pay satisfaction. There are various institutes and professional associations, which offer a course in compensation management to evaluate the pay and employee satisfaction relation. It has been found that satisfaction with pay is crucial to extract productive work Behaviour (Deckop, 1992). Pay structure is an important aspect to determine job satisfaction and motivation (Lawler, 1971). Human-resource manager and scholars of social sciences are subsequently found the importance of pay (Gomez-Mejia and Balkin, 1992) as pay (money) shapes the employee Behaviour toward organization (Opsahl and Dunnette, 1966).

1.3.2.2 Promotion

According to tournament theory, organization uses promotion as an award for the productive employees. Promotion is an effective means to appraise the effort of an employee. There are several ways of promotions, such as increment in salary, higher hierarchy post, fresh work with new project, enhancement in status and respect in the eye of subordinates, a sense of achievement and social admiration. There are three things which drive a need for promotion: itch (achieve more), money (need to be extra) and ego (learn more). Promotion can be defined as the recognition of an employee for the efforts which he put to attain the organizational goal. Grobler et al. (2002, p. 237) define promotion as, "the reassigning of an employee for a higher-level job." Promotion is the up gradation of an employee in the organization hierarchy. Promotion comprises various aspects like wage increment, employee's mobility (Blau and DeVaro 2007, Cobb-Clark 2001, Hersch and Viscusi, 1996, Olson and Becker 1983) and have an impact on job satisfaction (Pergamit and Veum 1999). Promotion also plays an important role in the job satisfaction like other aspects; pay, job involvement and commitment (Heywood and Xiangdong). In support to this, lack of promotion opportunities leads to job dissatisfaction and leads to negative attitude

(Watson and Scindman 1941; Blum 1959). Opportunities for promotion should be granted for competent people to gain organizational profit (Das, 2002).

1.3.2.3 Supervision

Supervision in general is defined as the guidance by one specialist to a new employee. A project is offered to the fresh employee and is reviewed on a time gap. It is a learning, supportive and thorough process, which is useful to build professional ethics. Supervision refers to a method which describes the objective and ways to accomplish by the subordinates. Supervision is a way which provides a base for learning and creative work (Bolton, 2001; Moon, 1999). Supervision can be explained as helping relationship that can be social work, counselling, mentoring or executive coaching. Mead et al. (1999) stated supervision as a helping relation which fosters an employee to gain expertise in the work and suggested few principles of supervision to make a sound relationship between supervisor and subordinates. Supervisor is a person who supervises his immediate juniors' activity and instructs them for task completion (Melcher, 1976). Frankness, supportiveness, stimulus and empowerment are the main characteristics of a supervisor (Eisenberg and Goodall, 2004). In other words, of Nel et al. (2004, p. 453) supervisors are the individuals those "control the activities of lower-level employees." Supervisor acts like a coach, who is responsible for the competency of the subordinate. Supervisor also helps in shaping the career goal of the subordinates and ways to achieve them. Supervision is of one of the important factors like any other (working hours, promotional opportunities and wages) that leads to job satisfaction (Bell and French, 1950).

1.3.2.4 Benefits

Success of an organization ultimately relies on the effectiveness of the human resource function. It can be done by human resource practices. So, human-resource practices need to be a process to achieve organizational objectives. The purpose of employee compensation is to attract, retain and provoke the human resource. Some of the benefits are fixed in nature, which are provided to all and some are flexible, which are provided to few employees, to encourage their performance. A passable compensation is a factor that helps an organization in attracting people as well helps in retaining existing employees. Benefits have an integral part in the compensation plan. Extant of literature (Davis and Ed Ward, 1995; Moore, 1991; Streib, 1996) presented employee benefits as a source of employee satisfaction. There are a lot of benefits plans (healthcare plan, retirement

plan, insurance policies, pension schemes, paid vacation, social gathering, EAPs etc.) tendered by the organizations to enhance the productivity of an employee. Now organization considers human resource as an asset for long-term sustainability. Some of the business expenses like parking, transportation and vehicle loan are also provided as benefits and which leads to satisfaction of the employees (Suntrup, 1989; Kossek and Nichol, 1992). Above discussion supported that an employee, who obtained the sufficient benefits can yield productive work (O'Brien 2003; Reddick and Coggburn, 2007; Roberts et al., 2004).

1.3.2.5 Reward

A reward refers to all tangible or intangible means that organizations grant for the employee deliberately or accidentally in exchange for his competency and contribution in organizational development. The general objective of rewards is to motivate employee, in accordance to the system for the achievement of organizational desired goals. Reward is not just like pay and benefits; it is also the concern with the non financial rewards like appreciation, education, personality development and status. Reward is a set of ideas and values that compel an employee to perform for the organization. Reward is not just a financial nor non financial means of satisfying the employee; it is a much wider term blended with both means and should be a flawless reward approach (Fuehrer 1994; Kao and Kantor 2004: Zingheim and Schuster 2000b). Reward can be categorized into two parts extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic reward includes the financial reward, social reward and developmental reward. On the other hand, intrinsic reward includes expertise, productivity and self-efficacy.

When an employee creates his presence in the attainment of organizational objective, in return of it, he receives some appreciation for his efforts, are called reward. It can also be known as performance pay. Hence reward plays an important role in the employee organizational relationship (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Lawler (1994) explained reward strategy as reward approach linking pay systems, company policies and employee attitude. Researchers have subsequently investigated that rewards have a significant impact on employee satisfaction (Bartol, 1979; Locke, 1976). And recently McAuliffe et al. (2009) presented a view that employee with reward reports more job satisfaction.

1.3.2.6 Operating Procedure

Operating procedure can be understood as the rule and regulation of the organization to regularize its customary activities. Organizations have to follow these procedures to operate its usual activities and to improve its productivity. Organizations use these rules and regulations to truncate grievances, employee satisfaction, reduction in cost and better financial performance. Akbari et al. (2013) added a good decision making procedure not only affects the satisfaction of customer but employee too. These principles also help the employees to set the standard of performance and attitude required to carry his job responsibilities and commitment to the organization. A sound operating procedure system enables an employee to commit less errors and provide instructions for work and reduce stressful condition (Gross, 1995; Fathonah and Hartijasti, 2014). In addition to this Hadighi et al. (2013) suggested operating procedure should follow the rule of management by structure rather than management by objective, which uplifts the satisfaction level of the employee. Operating procedure system also prevents an employee from hazardous situation. Employee safety also considered as the aspect of operating procedure. Above discussion clearly states that employees with the convenient process tend to satisfy with principles of organization.

1.3.2.7 Co-Worker

Communal interface with colleagues is a crucial job aspect for many workers. Co-worker relationship also forces an employee to stay back with the organization for a long term, thus manager needs to make societal environment to attain organizational objectives. We spend most of the time at work with our co-workers; therefore individual interaction is needed for the smooth flow of work. A co-worker can be defined as a person who works within same organization at any level. Kram and Isabella (1985) describe the co-worker; can be equal to a friend with whom an individual talks about his general issues with frankness and confidence. Co-worker satisfaction refers to employee perception of the faithfulness and closeness with co-workers (Billings and Moos, 1982). Co-worker satisfaction may be driven due to perception and ethics with the fellow workers, surrounded by caring and the sensitive fellow workers who help in goal attainment. Mahdavi et al. (2014) also stated that creative organizations needing teams to combine and integrate inputs from other teams, the teams' structure of interaction is an important prerequisite for creativity. In addition Kumar (2014) proposed environmental knowledge as the main factor of the good friendly Behaviour. Thus, co-worker is an important facet of job

satisfaction supported by extant literature (Patterson et al., 1975; Smith et al., 1969). Kirsch (2002) and Sias (2005) stated that co-worker satisfaction of an employee leads to self-esteem, job satisfaction and perception of workplace (Riordan and Griffeth, 1995; Revicki et al., 1993).

1.3.2.8 Work Itself

Work itself can be said as the work done by the employee itself with satisfaction. It includes various facets like inspiration to reap opportunities, learning, self—sufficiency, shifting of task, job improvement and task difficulties (Smith et al., 1969). It is a motivational aspect which is depended on inner drive considering the engagement of an employee with work. It creates the self-confidence in his competency and to enhance the quality of work. In the support Herzberg et al. (1959) concluded in their study, job satisfaction can occur in the true sense when an employee fined opportunities for intellectual enhancement. An employee can be satisfied when he found himself in a sound relation with the job, and if there is a person-job relation exists then the outcomes will be productivity and effectiveness (Hackman and Oldham 1980). Work itself satisfaction mainly considers with job features (Hackman and Lawler 1971; Hackman and Oldham 1975). Work itself is a self-motivated concept which is driven through inner feeling. In the non financial firms where employees are getting the very nominal amount, but the outcome may be up to the mark. So, motivating factors, which are described in Herzberg theory plays a significant role in job satisfaction and works itself is one of them.

1.3.2.9 Communication

According to communication theory, it is a two-way process because it includes sharing of information by receiver and sender (Quirke, 1995). Information lacks in multidimensionality as it is one sided like Internet messages and newspaper (Nutt, 1999) and when information is shared by various parties on an understanding basis, it becomes communication (Elving, 2005). Holm (2006) defines communication as a means of sharing information between two or more individuals. Communication is a process through which two or more individuals exchange their messages and ideas. Communication satisfaction is defined as "the personal satisfaction inherent in successfully communicating to someone or in prosperously being communicated with" (Downs and Adrian 2004, p.140). The magnitude of communication has been identified by all kinds of organizations (Pincus, 1986). A good communication system enhances the productivity, shows improvement in services, cost reduction, job satisfaction and innovation (Clampitt and

Downs, 1993). It is assumed that senior-junior relationship is a pompous aspect for commitment and satisfaction of an employee (Downs et al., 2002, Cho et al., 2008) and communication plays an influential role in this relation. Literature as well suggests the importance of communication in change management (Heathfield, 2008). Sias (2005) in her study stated apparent communication system of an organization also affected job satisfaction like other factors. Tor and Owen (1997) in their study supportably said that poor organizational communication system may lead employees towards the dissatisfaction and intent to leave the organization.

1.4 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT (OC)

1.4.1 Conceptualization and Genesis

OC can be defined as the employee loyalty towards organization. The term 'organizational commitment' was introduced by Howard Beckar in 1960, more than 50 years back. Beckar (1960) developed a side-bet theory and introduced the word organizational commitment. In his theory Beckar (1960) stated, "Commitments come into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity." Side bet theory has proposed impact of side wages on human being. This theory proposed various side bets, but Beckar considered them under only few heads. In his theory, Beckar suggested various side bets namely: generalized cultural expectations about responsible Behaviour (importance of the reference group on the Behaviour of human being), self-presentation concern (concern with consist social Behaviour employees), Impersonal bureaucratic arrangements (policies-related related reward & benefits system for a long term employee-organization relationship), Individual adjustments to social positions (employee's orientation program to understand the organizational requirement) and non-work concerns (loss of monetary and social value when an employee leaves the organization) and said violation of these side bets may lead negative results. After evolution of this theory, Ritzer and Trice (1969) examined it empirically, to assess the commitments. They develop a set of questions to test the commitment in various conditions while incentive provided to an employee. Not only this study but Alluto et al. (1973) and Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) also used these questions and provide assorted results.

After evolution of commitment, many of the researchers explained organizational commitment Kanter (1968, p. 499) defined organizational commitment as "the willingness of collective orders to give their energy and loyalty to communal systems." Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972, p. 556)

defined organizational commitment as "a reaction of various combinations of employee organization dealings and different issues". According to Salancik (1977) organizational commitment as "state of being in which a person becomes bound by his deeds to beliefs that sustain the actions and his own involvement." Steers (1977) proposed organizational commitment as a perception of an employee that includes motivation of consideration by organization, and a desire to be with organization for a long time. Mathieu and Zajac (1990, p. 171) described organizational commitment "a liaison between employee and organization." Morrow (1993) describes organizational commitment as "worker obligation towards organization" (p. xviii). A well-accepted definition is given by Meyer and Allen (1997) as "Organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct. Commitment can take different forms and can be directed at distinctive constituencies in the organization." Meyer and Herscovich (2001) described organizational commitment as a construct with multidimensionality, which have a significant effect on organizational productivity supported by (Riketta, 2002). Although organizational commitment is multidimensional construct, which emotionally bound an employee to the organization for future gain. So we can say organizational commitment is a state where employees are involved with cognitively and Behaviourally in the organizationally desired task. Further presented models will help to explain the OC.

1.4.2 Models for Organizational Commitment

Theorists have provided various models explain OC. These models define how OC can be developed. These models are discussed as follows:

1.4.2.1 Process Model

Mowday et al. (1982) recommended that OC is a process that starts before employees start working. This process consists of three stages anticipation, initiation, and entrenchment. First stage is called anticipation, is the expectation and objective that attract an employee towards the organization. Second stage of the process model is initiation, which occurs at the starting period with the job or during initial two- three months in the organization. This period is very important to develop work attitude toward the employee (Meyer and Allen, 1988). The third stage entrenchment occurs from 12 months of working to continues till life time. It is continuance of employee task, attitude and BEHAVIOUR. This model suggests that initial attachment and stability of an employee decreases the chance of termination of relation with organization.

1.4.2.2 Early Experiences Model

Pascale (1985) instigated the model of OC development based on prompt experience. Here preliminary experience refers to issues with recruitment, selection, socialization and process of OC development. He stated in his study that organizations are using different kinds of techniques for effective recruitment, selection and induction. This promotes a willingness to gain knowledge and accepts the organizational cultural value. That bounds an employee with the organization.

1.4.2.3 Organization Based Model

Organization based model for OC development suggested by Angle and Perry (1983). This model depends on the treatment of organization with its members. Stevens et al. (1978) approved this model by postulating that job and roll distinctiveness and the environment of work experience persuaded the level of commitment. Hence it can be deduced that employee recognizes encouraging work surroundings and it will further increases the loyalty of an employee.

1.4.2.4 Member Based Model

Member based model is also suggested by Angle and Perry (1984) for OC development when the locus of dedication dwells in the proceedings and characteristic of employees who lead to the commitment of an employee.

1.4.2.5 Exchange Model

Blau (1964) and Organ (1988) stated that if there is an exchange of efforts and recognition between employee and organization, it enhances the OC. While an employee interacted with other interpersonal bases, cultural and economic exchanges take place (Blau, 1964). Social exchange is based on trust and norms, and economic exchange is grounded on compensation for his efforts (Settoon et al., 1996).

1.4.3 Measurements of Organizational Commitment

Social science researchers have accepted the multidimensionality of organizational commitment and describe the different dimensions for organizational commitment. Initially, Beckar (1960) identified the diverse basic dimensions for commitment like widespread civilizing expectations about conscientious Behaviour, self-management concern, impersonal intrusive arrangements, individual adjustments to social and non-work concerns based on these side bets Ritzer and Trice (1969), Alluto et al.(1973), Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) empirical tested the commitment of an employee.

Etzioni (1961) projected three dimensions for organizational commitment: moral involvement,

calculative involvement, and alienative involvement. Kanter (1968) listed various dimensions for organizational commitment namely cohesion commitment, control commitment and continuance commitment. Staw and Salancik (1977) measured organizational commitment by using two approaches such as social psychology approach and organization Behavioural approach. Similarly Mowday et al. (1979) divided organizational commitment in the attitudinal and Behavioural aspects. McGee and Ford (1987) recognized two dimensions for organizational commitment, affective and continuance commitment.

Table 1.3 Measurements models of Organizational Commitment

Author	Scale Name	Dimensions of Job Satisfaction
Mowday et al. (1979)	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire	Job commitment measure
Cook and Wall (1980)	Organizational Commitment Scale	Organizational identification, organizational involvement and organizational loyalty
Angle and Perry (1981)	Organizational Commitment Scale	Value commitment and commitment to stay
Mowday et al. (1982)	Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire	Attitudinal and affective commitment
O'Reilly and Chapman (1986)	Psychological Attachment Instrument	Compliance, Identification Internalisation
Penley and Gould (1988)	Organizational Commitment Scale	Moral, calculative and Alienative
Mayer and Schoorman (1992)	Organizational Commitment Scale	Value and continuance
Jaros et al., (1993)	Organizational Commitment Scale	Affective, continuance and moral
Balfour and Wechsler (1996)	Organizational Commitment Scale	Affiliation, identification and satisfaction exchange
Meyer and Allen (1997)	Three Component Model for Organizational Commitment	Affective, Continuance and Normative

1.4.4 Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

The present study is based on the Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) three component model, which measures organizational commitment. These components are considered as the dimensions for present study as these are widely accepted dimensions. These are affective commitment (psychological attachment of employee), continuance commitment (cost associated while leaving the job) and normative commitment (sense of obligation to organization).

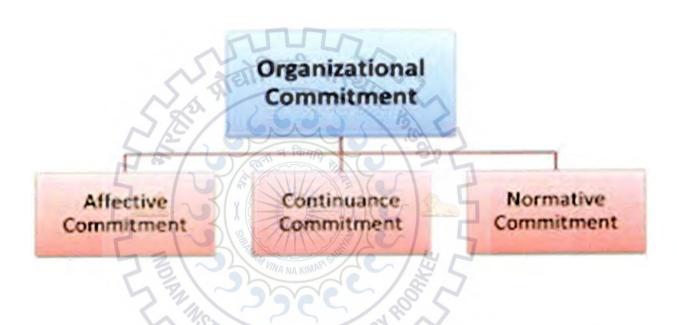


Figure 1.8 Three component model of Organizational Commitment (Meyer and Allen. 1991, 1997)

1.4.4.1 Affective Commitment (AC)

Mowday et al. (1979) uttered affective commitment as a virtual force that attach employee with the organization. Similarly, Meyer and Allen (1984) referred affective commitment as the psychological attachment of human with the organization. The power of affective commitment reflects by scope of accomplishment of an employee with the organization (Storey, 1995). If individual expectations and needs match with organizational environment, it generates affective commitment of an employee for organization. Tetrick (1995, p 589) also defined affective commitment as "value rationality-based organizational commitment, which refer to the degree of value congruence between an organizational member and an organization." Three component model of organizational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1997) pointed that affective

commitment is predisposed by contribution, steadiness, job clarity, co-worker support, accessibility of management and fairness and personal importance. By the above definition, it can be clearly understood that if an employee found himself in encouraging organizational environment where he can achieve his desired goal and can achieve the success, then he is supposed to show affective commitment. In support to this Beck and Wilson (2000) phrased, growth of affective commitment involves recognition of self and internationalization. In a common way affective commitment defined as the degree to which employees recognize within organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Employees with the higher affective commitment associate with organization because they want to do so.

1.4.4.2 Continuance Commitment (CC)

Second dimension of the three component model of OC is termed as continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997, p 11) posited continuance commitment as "consciousness of the costs allied with the departure from the organization." Kanter (1968, p. 504) argued continuance commitment occurs when leaving cost is much more than the staying gains. Similarly to this Stebbins (1970, p.527) define continuance commitment as "the awareness of the impossibility of choosing a different social identity because of the immense penalties involved in making the switch." Fundamentally, continuance commitment is calculative in nature because an employee knows the cost of leaving and association. This awareness of the cost forces an employee to show continuance commitment towards the organization. Continuance commitment can be explained as an influential involvement within the organization by the employee where the employee connected with organization on the basis of gains of staying with the organization (Beck and Wilson, 2000). Meyer and Allen (1984) also argued that employee remains with organization depend on cost of leaving, and it provides strength to the continuance commitment. Tetrick (1995, p 590) posited that "continuance organizational commitment will therefore be the strongest when availabilities of alternatives are few, and the number of investments are high." However, in contrary to this if an employee found lucrative opportunities, he /she will not hesitate leave their existing organization. Employee with higher continuance commitment remains with organization because they need to do so.

1.4.4.3 Normative Commitment (CC)

The third dimension of three component model of organizational commitment is normative commitment. Normative commitment can be described as the obligation of employee towards with organization. Although organizational commitment has not obtained much more attention in the form of obligation, but normative commitment provided a small insight on it. Meyer and Allen (1997, p 11) explain normative commitment "as a sense of obligation to remain with organization". Wiener and Vardi (1980, p 86) defined normative commitment as a job BEHAVIOUR which is directed by the sense of responsibility and obligation towards the organization. Sense of obligation to stay with organization for a long run may be influenced by the cultural and organizational socialization (Wiener, 1982). Understanding and respect between employee and organization provides a strong base for development of normative commitment (Suliman and Iles, 2000). It is based on social exchange theory, which concluded that person accepting the gains with normative commitment has to repay in some way (McDonald and and Allen (1991, p 88) 2000). Meyer posited commitment can be developed through socialization. Payment of rewards and benefits in advance may also enhance the normative commitment like on job-training cost, college tuition fee etc. These investments create some dispute between organizational and employee relationship because, organization bounds the employee with organization until he repays the entire amount (Scholl, 1981). Employee with higher normative commitment feels that he is ought to remain

1.5 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY
Since employees are the ' Since employees are the backbone of organization, and they usually contribute for the progress of it. Both organization and current business environment knew this conception. Human capital is the sum of knowledge, skills and ability of the organization. Further, human capital of organization resides in organization's employees. Current study extends the predictive function of OC and JS, with their dimensions towards the human capital creation. Present study will also contribute to a literature pool of study variables In today's competitive era, organizations are facing cut throat competition from national and international competitors. To sustain in this era organization needs to develop employees as a competitive weapon. For this companies not only need to retain but also to develop human capital within the organization. To achieve this

objective companies require committed and satisfied employees. Positive job attitude of an employee enhances the skill, ability and knowledge.

In previous studies, JS and OC have been investigated in relation with employee performance, absenteeism, labour turnover and organizational citizenship Behaviour etc. Both have been the favourite issues for academicians and researcher for employee retention. However, unfortunately contemporary scholars failed to investigate predictive functions of JS and OC towards human capital creation. In the present study, we investigate JS and OC at different aspects. Present study investigates JS and OC as the source of human capital creation. Existing literature is not able to highlight this notion with reference to Indian context, which is having a pool of talented people. So, it is very necessary to develop a strong pool of human capital for the organization by positive job attitude. Only few studies have investigated this relationship. Deficit of the study variables' relationship, forces us to organize the present study. Present study will bridge the gap for the proposed relationship of the study variables. Present study will enhance the understanding of the study variables OC and JS as the source of human capital creation.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

In social sciences, there is a huge scope to explore the construct with its antecedents and consequences. However, a single study cannot cover all the relevant relationships. At the initial stage of the study, research design is prepared which defines the limit of our study. Scope of the study covers the following:

- 1. Present study covers three constructs: JS, OC and HCC.
- 2. The crucial aspects of the present study are middle and senior-level executives (with their demographic features: gender, education and marital status) from northern part of the country.
- 3. Present study explores the nine dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, rewards, benefits, supervision, co-worker, operating procedure, communication), three dimensions of organizational commitment (normative, affective, continuance) and six dimensions of human capital creation (recruitment, training, reward, performance appraisal, career management, perceived human capital creation).
- 4. Present study analyzes linkage of JS, OC and HCC along with their respective dimensions.

5. Further, present study analyzes predictive functions of two attitudinal construct (job satisfaction and organization commitment) toward the psychological construct (HCC).

1.7 OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

O1: To examine the human capital creation in Indian organizations respect to demographic variables (gender, education and marital status).

RQ1: Does the perception of Indian executives related to HCC vary on the demographic features (age, gender, education and experience)?

O2: To examine the job satisfaction in Indian organization respect to demographic variable (age, gender, education and experience).

RQ: 2 Does the perception of Indian executive related to JS vary on the demographic features (age, gender, education and experience)?

O3: To examine the organizational commitment in Indian organizations respect to the demographic variables (age, gender, education and experience).

RQ3: Does the perception of Indian executives related to OC vary on the demographic features (age, gender, education and experience)?

O4: To study the job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment as Predictors of human capital creation in select business organizations in India.

RQ4: Does JS and OC predicts the HCC?

RQ5: Which dimensions of JS significantly predicts HCC?

RQ6: Which dimensions of OC significantly predicts HCC?

O5: To provide for new outlook present to study variables.

RQ7: What kind of contribution present study will make in existing literature?

1.8 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 explains the theoretical background and development of the study with problem statement by introducing the current study variables (human capital creation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and also declare the importance of the present study along with the contributions. Chapter 2 presents literature review of study variables. Review of literature helps us to identify, the major antecedents and outcomes of study variables. As well contemporary research on human capital, job satisfaction and organizational commitment are identified. The chapter also presents the linkage of independent

variables (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) with dependent variable (human capital creation). The chapter also presents theoretical and empirical support for the study hypothesis. Chapter 3 introduces the research design, including objectives of study and hypothesis, participant, data collection procedure and demographic characteristics of the participant. The chapter also presents reliability, validity for instruments used for the present study. It also highlights the detailed information about various statistical tools and techniques that are used to measure the data and for the achievement of study objectives. Chapter 4 provides the analysis and interpretation of obtained results. Discussion of the results also presented in the chapter. Chapter 5 presents the concluding remarks, future prospects and contribution of the study along with the limitations.



LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.1 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTER

The previous chapter of the study provided theoretical genesis, including conceptualization and development of the study variables: HCC (Human Capital Creation), OC (Organizational Commitment) and JS (Job Satisfaction). Structural development of the study variables has been discussed to show substantial expansion. In continuation, this chapter incorporates antecedents and consequences for the study variables. This chapter consists of relevant and accessible literature based on the past studies that explores the study variables as predictor, mediator and criterion. A literature survey has made to find out linkages among study variables and the mechanism behind it. Based on past research and theories, hypotheses for the study are developed.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION (JS)

Social science scholars have been consistent to propound novel concepts for the advancement of employee wellbeing. Famous theorist Herzberg (1966) and Maslow (1954) has devoted in researching employee need and motivational factors. Both theorists have found organizational and individual focused factors for productivity enhancement. Edwin Locke (1969) stated, "Job satisfaction as the relationship between what a person wants from a job and what the job actually offers." Taylor (1911) has set the stage with his pioneering research contributions to the provided job satisfaction studies. First study of JS was mostly focused on employee efficiency. However, Hawthorne experiment in late 1930s stimulated the employee's job attitude studies (Bruce and Walton, 1992). Since then JS has been a widely used construct in the academic domains of social sciences (Brief and Roberson, 1989; Ferratt, 1981; Hoppock, 1935; Gruenberg, 1980; Kunin, 1955; McClusky and Strayer, 1940; Peters et al. 1981; Staple, 1950; O'Connor et al., 1978; Organ and Near, 1985; Price and Mueller 1981). JS can be understood as a pleasurable emotion of job felt by the employee. JS also considered as a perception of an employee to his job, it can be positive or negative, based upon the organizational job settings. Positive attitude of employees leads to productivity. Brayfield and Crockett (1955) underlined that job satisfaction and employee performance is not related to each other, and no proof is available for this relationship. However, Choudhary et al. (2013) argued that job dissatisfaction significantly affects the employee's productivity. Most of the researchers confirmed the relationship between productivity and job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966, Locke, 1969, 1976, 1979; Maslow, 1954, McGregor, 1960). Chand (2006) posited various causes of employee's dissatisfaction and listed job stress as one of them, which is the cause of psychological factors. He concluded that positive attitude of an employee can resolve the said issue. JS is an attitudinal outcome, which is associated with organizational settings. It is the positive job attitude of an employee which boosts the job performance, motivation, productivity, work values and mitigates the absenteeism, stress, labour turnover and burnout (Begley and Czajka, 1993; Tharenou, 1993).

2.2.1 Antecedents and Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Hoppcock (1935) defines JS as "A combination of cognitive, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person honestly say, I am satisfied with my job." This definition states that when an employee satisfies by his job's physical, social and intellectual aspects then he proudly states himself as a satisfied employee. There are numerous amounts of factors that contributes to the JS such as, occupational; pay, recognition, supervision, working conditions, autonomy (Prelip, 2001) and personal factors: age, gender, education and experience (Eichinger, 2000; Peterson and Custer, 1994). Blegen 1993; Irvine and Evans, 1995; Locke, 1976; Upenieks, 2000) in their meta-analyses have proposed numerous antecedents of job satisfaction autonomy (power to take decision), growth/development (education, training and development); Economic rewards (pay, benefits and rewards); work demands (structural intricacy, timidity of work circumstances, or poignant vow); promotion (opportunity for growth and advancement, recognition by top management); meaningfulness workload (pressure time, social problems, conflict, stress and grievance handling; supervision (perception of fairness, supervisor support, supervisor recognition); work content (skills variety, job complexity, role ambiguity and job routine); communication (complaint and suggestion); co-workers (professional relationship or capability of a co-worker).

Furthermore Yang (2010) investigated the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction and found that; work autonomy, role conflict, socialization, burnout as the significant predictors of job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness in terms of greater continuance, affective commitment and lesser turnover rate as the outcomes of the job satisfaction. In addition Chand and Koul (2012) found less job stress as the prominent outcome of job satisfaction. The

consequences of job satisfaction are versatile in nature which leads to employee's productivity by reducing job stress and job conflict.

JS is among the variables which are thoroughly researched in social sciences. It measures the degree of attachment which an individual feels about his/her job (Spector, 1996; Stamps, 1997). JS is highly correlated with motivation, absenteeism and burnout (Chiu, 2000; Tharenou, 1993). Table no.2.1 represents the multi-functionality of JS, which demonstrates job satisfaction as criterion/ mediating/ predictor variable for other variables.

Table 2.1: Literature on Multi-Functionality Job Satisfaction

Author	Sample	JS as criterion/ Mediating/ Predictor variable
Glisson, and	319 employees from	Criterion variable;
Durick (1988)	22 service sector organizations	Job Characteristics, role ambiguity and skill variety
Pool (1997).	125 adult Americans	Criterion variable; Work motivation, initiating structure, leadership Behaviour, task substitutes and organizational substitutes
Gaertner (2000)	Qualitative study	Criterion variable; Promotional opportunities, supervisor relationship and distributive justice
Janssen (2001)	134 middle and lower level employee of food sector form Dutch	Criterion variable; Perception of fairness
Judge and Bono(2001)	Qualitative analysis	Criterion Variable; Generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, locus of control and emotional stability
Janssen (2001)	134 middle and lower level employee of food sector form Dutch	Criterion variable; Perception of fairness

Lok and Crawford (2001)	32 Nurses from 3 different hospitals	Mediating Variable; Between organizational culture and organizational commitment
Ilies and Judge (2002).	27 employees	Criterion variable; Personality and mood
Rai and Sinha (2002)	261 Banking manager	Predictor variable; Self esteem and personal effectiveness
Chiu and Francesco (2003)	279 Chinese manager	Mediating Variable; Dispositional traits and turnover intention
Chaudhury and Banerjee (2004).	66 medical officer from india	Criterion Variable; prestige of organization, opportunity for promotion, job security, nature of work, and opportunity for self-development
Chiu and Chen (2005)	270 employee from 24 electronic companies	Mediating Variable; Between job characteristics and organizational citizenship Behaviour
Mount and Johnson (2006)	141 employee from fast food stores	Mediating Variable; Between personality traits and work Behaviours
Silva (2006).	159 hotel employees	Predictor Variable; Employee turnover, organizational commitment and big five personality traits (openness, agreeableness conscientiousness, neuroticism, and extraversion)
Zangaro and Soeken (2007)	Qualitative study	Criterion Variable; sovereignty, job stress and senior-subordinate relationship
Chen (2008)	210 information system employee from Taiwan	Criterion variable; Autonomy, feedback and professionalism
Güleryüz et al. (2008)	267 respondent of Nursing Services Administration	Mediating variable; Between Organizational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence

Miller et al. (2009)	87 police officer	Criterion variable;
		Job autonomy, feedback and experience
Yang (2010)	671 responses of 11 hotel from Taiwan	Criterion and predictor variable: Criterion –work autonomy, burnout, role conflict and socialization Predictors- organizational effectiveness
Kwan (2011)	331 vice principle of schools	Mediating variable; Responsibility and career aspirations
Froese and Peltokorpi (2011)	148 expatriates in Japan	Criterion variable; Host-country, language proficiency, national cultural distance, expatriate type, supervisor's nationality and company nationality
Basak and Ghosh (2011).	200 Indian school teachers	Criterion variable; Various domains of school environment and locus of control
Georgellis et al. (2012)	Longitudinal study on 10000 house hold individuals	Criterion variable; Life events
Larsen et al. (2012)	216 respondent of 30 nations cruis3 sector	Criterion variable; Respect, interpersonal relationship, food and shelter
Lu et al. (2012)	Qualitative study	Criterion variable; Job stress, organizational and professional loyalty, job stress, working situation, role perception, role conflict. role content and organizational surroundings
Sekhar et al.(2013)	Review paper	Criterion variable; Motivation
Choudhary et al. (2013)	185 banking employees form Haryana (India)	Predictor Variable; organisational citizenship Behaviour

Jou et al. (2013)	189 air traffic controllers	Mediating Variable; Job stress and employee turnover
Keller and Semmer, (2013)	1145 worker	Criterion variable; Job control and core self evaluations
Yang et al. (2013)	600 Nurses	Criterion variable; Normative and ideal commitment, resources, work objective, support and informal power
Schlett and Ziegler. (2014).	194 respondents from educational and industrial sector	Criterion variable; Job sentiment and job cognitions

Table 2.1 discussed significant and contemporary studies, which are reflects the multifunctionality of JS. Handful review of literature provides an evidence to attribute JS as criterion, mediating and predictor variable. Reviewed studies addressed the research design and nature of JS. From the review, it can be noted that assorted studies (Chen, 2008; Froese and Peltokorpi, 2011; Georgellis et al., 2012; Glisson and Durick, 1988; Ilies and Judge, 2002; Janssen, 2001; Larsen et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2009; Pool, 1997; Schlett and Ziegler, 2014; Yang et al., 2013) have proposed JS as the criterion factor for job sentiment, job cognitions, job control, core selfevaluations, job stress, organizational and professional loyalty, working situation, job stress, role perception and role content, role conflict, organizational surroundings, Host-country, language proficiency, ethnic cultural distance, expatriate type, supervisor's citizenship, company nationality, prestige of organization, opportunity for promotion, job security, nature of work, and opportunity for self-development. In line with the current conviction Rai and Sinha (2002) and Silva (2006) indicated that JS as the predictor of other variables like; self-esteem and idiosyncratic effectiveness, employee turnover, organizational commitment and big five personality traits (conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness and extraversion). Apart from criterion and predictor role of different factors JS plays another role as a mediator between two factors such as Job stress and employee turnover, responsibility and career aspirations, organizational commitment and emotional intelligence, personality traits and work Behaviours (Chiu and Chen, 2005; Chiu and Francesco, 2003; Cho et al., 2007; Güleryüz et al., 2008; Jou et al., 2013; Kwan, 2011; Lok and Crawford, 2001; Mount and Johnson, 2006).

Given evidence of JS as criterion, mediator and predictor variable, confirmed the multi-functionality of it. Indian Scholars also confirmed the multi-functionality of JS in their studies. Sharma (1971) stated that pay, bonus, Good supervision, labour-management, relational opportunities and occupational advancement as criterion factors for JS. Other scholars like Joshi and Baldev (1997), Rai and Sinha (2002), Katuwal and Randhawa (2007) have also confirmed the multi-functionality of JS. The next session discusses the pertinent studies related to JS dimensions i.e. pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, rewards, co-worker, work itself, communication and operating procedure.

Various dimensions of JS have been identified to measure job satisfaction as discussed in previous chapter. But primarily the present study focuses on nine factors that were proposed by (Spector 1997) to estimate the level of job satisfaction. Further table 2.2 provides the insight on the relevant literature on factors of the job satisfaction.

Table 2.2 Literature on Factors of Job satisfaction

Refernces	Concept/ Finding	JS Factors
Booth and Frank (1999); Lazear, (2000)	Increases worker efforts	
Lemieux et al. (2009); Paarsch and Shearer, (2000); Shearer, (2004)	Increase employees earning	Pay
Grund and Sliwka (2010); Sorensen and Grytten (2003)	Boost up employee performance	
Curme and Stefanec (2007)	Improve Productivity	7
Brown and Sessions, (2003); Heywood and Wei (2006); McCausland et al. (2005); Miceli and Mulvey, (2000)	Increases Job satisfaction	
Heneman and Judge, (2000)	Help in Develop knowledge	
Ojha, (2014)	Reduces frustration	
Higgins; (1997); Sassenberg et	Improve team cohesion	

al. (2003)		
Higgins et al. (1994); Shah, et al. (2004)	Propel to achieve desired organizational goals	
Clark and Oswald (1996); De Souza, (2002); Francesconi (2001); Lawler (1973); Locke (1976); Pergamit and Veum (1989); Smith et al. (1969)	Create a sense of satisfaction with job	Promotion
Forbes, (1987); Ng et al. (2005); Pearce et al. (1994); Singh et al. 2009	Related to performance Mentoring, developmental breaks and sociability	
Anderson et al. (1981); Brayfield and Crockett, (1955); Campbell et al. (1970); Markham et al. (1987);	Reduces labor Turnover and absenteeism	
Bluedorn, (1982); Gregoras, et al. (2003); Latham et al. (1993); Mobley, (1982); Mowday et al. (1982); Muchinsky and Tuttle (1979); Price (1977); Shore and Tashchian, (2002, 2007); Steers and Mowday (1981);	Related to employee movement, retention, performance appraisal and self assessment	TOCH ROPE S
Jones (2006); Lindgren et al. (2005); Scott and Smith, (2008); Walsh et al.(2003); Williamsson and Dodds (1999);	Provoke occupational stress and anxiety, create supportive environment, cost effective and protected	
Lindgren et al.(2005)	Develop a sound	

	organizational climate	
Pertoft and Larsen (2003)	Provide outline for overall development	
Allen (2001); Hammer et al., (2009); Kossek, et al. (2011); Thomas and Ganster, 1995; Thompson, et al. (1999).	Enhances positive work approach, reduces turnover and helps in handling work family conflict	Supervision
Bedward and Daniels (2005); Hallberg (1994)	Contributes to job satisfaction	
Butterworth et al. (2008)	Provide professional support and knowledge	
Hart et al. (2000),	Related to professional development	
Butterworth et al. (1998, 1999)	Reduces resistance to change	5
Farrell and Rusbult (1981).	Improve job satisfaction, organization commitment and reduces labour turnover	5
Berger et al.(1983)	Enhance unity and job satisfaction	7
Porfeli and Mortimer (2010).	Predictor associate relationship and work- satisfaction	
Le Meunier-FitzHugh et al. (2011).	Increases sales/ marketing collaboration and reduces inter functional reward	Reward & Benefits
Hampton and Hampton (2004).	Positively correlated to job satisfaction, market orientation and professionalism	
Spruijt et al. (2001).	Guided the behaviour of	

	individual on the bases of feedback	
Podsakof et al. (2005)	Strongly related to role ambiguity and perception of justice of employee	
Demoulin and Zidda (2008).	Enhances customer loyalty	
Latham (2007); Mohret al. (2011): Wanouset al. (1997)	Predict job satisfaction	
Gaither et al. (2009); Giancola (2011),	Absence causes for dissatisfaction	Work itself
Elangovan, (2001); Lee and Mowday(1987); Michaels and Spector (1982); Porter and Steers (1973); Spector (1997)	Reduces labour turnover	1 5 C. S. C.
Noe et al. (2002)	Reduces role conflict and role ambiguity	
Gaither et al. (2007)	Reduces Labour turnover	16/5
Alderfer (1967, 1969, 1972)	Helps in achievement of objectives	5
Acker (2004); Krueger and Schkade (2008)	Contributes to job satisfaction	Co-worker
Joiner and Bakalis (2006)	Propels organizational commitment	
Snow et al. (2003)	Reduces role ambiguity, role overload and role conflict	
McLaughlin et al. (2004)	Boost mutual cooperation	
Jaworski, (1988); Lusch and Jaworski, (1991)	Reduces role stress	
Mossholder et al.,(2005) Nielsen et al., (2000); Riordan and Griffeth(1995);	Reduces turnover intentions	

Barrett (2002); Burnes (1992); Kitchen and Daly (2002); Lewis and Siebold (1998); Smith (2006)	Helps in change management and reduces uncertainty in environment	
Campagna, (1996); Ernst et al.(2004); Fowler, (1996); Forster and Still (2002); Guiltinan et al., (1980)	Propels team cooperation	
Wu et al. (2004)	Enhances satisfaction and commitment	Communication
Sharma and Patterson (1999),	Provide support for supply chain management	
Goris (2007); Mohr and Nevin (1990); Ring and Van De Ven (1994); Rittershaus (1994); Shulman and Reiser (1996); Spector (1985)	Propels customer's loyalty and satisfaction	
Ilozor et al. (2001)	Influences job satisfaction	2
DeMarco (1996); Emery and Phillips (1976)	Create clear vision of goals and objectives	>
Lambert et al., 2007; Leventhal et al., 1980; Lambert, 2003), Jain and Samrat (2015)	Enhances job satisfaction and propel customer satisfaction	Operating procedure

Table 2.2 discussed the studies with special reference to the dimensions of JS. It can be substantiated from the literature that JS and its dimensions has always been a centre of attraction for the Behavioural scientist due to its broad necessity for employees in the complex business scenario.

2.3 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT (OC)

Organizational commitment has been an imperative construct in social science research due to its relationship with job-related conceptions such as; job satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover, leader-subordinate relations and job-involvement (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Buck and Watson, 2002; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Tett and Meyer, 1993;). Mowday et al. (1982) stated in his research that employees, who are loyal and likely to stay with an organization, would effortlessly contribute for the growth and development it. Steers (1977) postulated that to measure organizational effectiveness, organizational commitment is a valuable instrument. Meyer and Allen, (1997) define OC as "a multidimensional construct that has the potential to predict outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure and organizational goals."

2.3.1 ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOME OF OC

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in his seminal meta-analysis work reviewed 174 studies in which OC questionnaire has been used and proposed 20 factors that were related to OC as antecedents and consequences. The authors postulated high level of association between OC and its antecedents, but the lower level of association is noticed with OC's consequents and also added one of the most important aspects that all the consequences of OC are influenced by intermediate factors. A considerable chunk of literature has recognized the above mentioned antecedents, and consequents of organizational commitment. Steer (1977) in his study recognized that individual characteristics; work experiences and job characteristics were significant related factors to the commitment, and further organizational design was also added in the list by Steers and Porter 1983. Personal characteristics consist of age, gender, education, experience and marital status. Work experience includes perceived organizational support (Tansky and Cohen, 2001), job involvement, positive and supportive organizational climate (Barling, et al., 1990) significantly associated with OC (Meyer and Allen, 1988; Meyer et al., 2002). Job characteristics consist of supervisor support, job dispute, job scope, task variety, autonomy and role stress, which are having strong relationship with organizational commitment (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Maxwell and Steele (2003) have also stated four dominant categories of OC antecedents - structural characteristics, work experiences, personal characteristics and jobrelated characteristics.

Meyer and Allen (1997) referred many definitions and models for the development of three component model of OC. Meyer and Allen (1997) defined OC as "psychological state linking an employee to an organization." They have presented three components of OC: affective commitment (AC), normative commitment (NC) and continuance commitment (CC) which contributed for overall OC for organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) explained OC as a multidimensional construct, which was used to verify its antecedents, consequent types of commitment and process. They also stated working environment characteristics like socialization, experiences, personal characteristics, psychological contracts and role states as the contributors towards OC that results in employee's well being, employees retention and reduced labour turnover. Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) in the meta-analysis stated the antecedents and consequents of OCs three factors AC, CC and NC. They had nominated individual characteristics and job experiences as antecedent and reduced turnover, less absenteeism and increased efficiency as consequents of AC. Investments and alternatives (Meyer and Allen, 1997) are the two main things that are considered as antecedents of CC. Here investment refers to the employee's belief, time, effort and money, whereas alternative refers to the employee's perception about opportunities. Retention productive employees, prolific Behaviours and employee well-being are considered as the consequences of CC. Similarly, senses of obligation and norms are noted as the antecedents of NC.

In the continuation, there are numerous studies, which have identified various factors that considered as antecedents or consequences for OC (Meyer and Allen, 1998; Smola and Sutton, 2002). Antecedents can be defined as something that exist before the development of OC: gender, tenure, age, work values, perceived organizational support and job satisfaction, (Meyer and Allen, 1997) and consequents are the outcomes of OC; such as escalated productivity, Behavioural responses, lesser absenteeism and reduced turnover symbolize increased loyalty (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Table 2.3 represents the key studies that focused on the construct of OC, along with its antecedents, consequents and other related linkages.

Table 2.3 Literature on OC

Author	Research Design	Purpose and Findings
Meyer and Allen (1991)	Conceptual	The paper examines the three factor constructs of OC. It is found that OC with three factors AC, NC and CC is the best model to analyses commitment of employee.
Sharma (1997)	Empirical: 200 employees from Indian manufacturing sector	The paper examines the relationship of personal and situational determinants with OC. It is found in the results that both determinants are associated with OC, but situational factors are having strong association
Mathieu (1988)	Empirical: 202 Army and Navy officers	than personal factors. The aim of the study is to develop causal model of OC. Results indicates that work experiences, personal characteristics, job characteristics, and role states are having direct relationship with OC.
Chang (1999)	Empirical: 225 researchers	The paper investigates the moderating effect of career commitment on employee's perception and OC. It is found that career commitment have different affects on AC and CC. It is also found that career commitment also moderate the relationship between supervisory support and AC, AC and turnover intentions.
Reddy et, al. (2003)	Empirical: 200 respondent from Indian textile industry	The study examines the dual commitment of employees (union and organization) in organizational culture context. It is found that working culture is a strong predictor of OC and not for Union Commitment.
Sharma and Joshi (2001)	Empirical: 81 executives from India	The study investigates contribution of organizational characteristics (Scope for advancement, Objectivity & Rationality, Monetary Benefits, Participative Management, Grievance Handling, Welfare

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Bhuian and Mengue (2002)	Empirical:700 sales expatriates	Facilities, Recognition & Appreciation, Safety & Security, Training & Development, Delegation of Authority, Communication System, performance appraisal and job content) towards OC. It is found that job content and performance appraisal are the most predictors of OC. This study investigates the influence of job characteristic and OC on JS. Results indicates a positive strong association of the variables.
Kassahun (2005)	Empirical: 210 employees, different organizations from Delhi (India)	The study aims at identify the level, correlates and predictors of OC. It is found in the results that level of OC was on higher side and it does not vary in different organizations. Further it is also found that personal and organizational characteristics have direct link with OC. Organizational support, perceived job autonomy, employee, procedural justice and distributive are found most important factors of OC.
Payne and Huffman (2005)	Longitudinal: over 1000 us army officers	This study investigates the influence of mentoring on OC and turnover. It is found that mentoring is positively associated with AC and CC and it is negatively associated with turnover intention. Further results also indicate that AC mediates the relationship between turnover and mentoring.
Gellatly et.al, (2006)	Empirical: 545 hospital employees	The paper examines the interactive effects of AC, NC and CC on organizational citizenship Behaviour and turnover intentions. Results indicates that all three factors of OC has a significant contribution towards organizational citizenship Behaviour and turnover intentions
Fischer and	Meta-analyses;	The study examines the effects of power distance and

Mansell (2009)		individualism-collectivism on employee commitment. It is found that collectivism is highly associated with NC, power distance is highly associated with NC and CC and monetary factors are strongly associated with AC and NC.
Purang (2009)	Empirical; 247 middle level managers from India	The paper examine the Human Resource Development (HRD) climate and its dimension (Training, Participation, Job Enrichment, Performance Appraisal and Succession Planning) relationship with OC. Results indicates that all the dimensions of HRD climate significantly predict the OC that leads employee to perform better.
Turke (2009)	Empirical; 269 business professional	This paper investigates the impact of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) on OC. Results indicates that CSR to employees, customer and various stakeholder significant predicts OC.
Juhdi et al. (2013)	Empirical; 457 employees from different sector.	This paper examines the mediating effects of OC and organizational engagement (OE) between human resource (HR) practices (career management, compensation, performance appraisal, job control and person—job fit) and turnover intentions. It is found that HR practices have significant impact on OE and OC. Father it is also found that OC and OE having partial mediation between HR practices and turnover intensions.

Table 2.4 highlights the relevant empirical and conceptual studies which dealt with the latent construct OC, with special reference to its dimensions such as AC, CC and NC.

Table 2.4 Literature on Dimensions of OC (AC, CC, NC)

Authors	Research design	Findings of the study
Rhoades et, al. (2001)	Empirical;367 employee	The paper investigates the relationship Perceived Organizational Support (POS), affective commitment (AC), work experiences and employee turnover. The outcome of study suggests that POS mediated the relationship of procedural justice, supervisor support and organizational rewards with AC.
Meyer et, al. (2002)	Meta-analyses;	The paper investigates the antecedents and Consequence of three factors of OC. It is found that all three factors do have same antecedents. All three factors are negatively correlated with turnover and withdrawal intentions. AC has strongest association with organization and employee related outcomes. NC is also associated with same outcome. But CC has no association with organization and employee related outcomes.
Chen and Francesco (2003)	Empirical; 253 supervisor— subordinate dyad	The study examines the relation of three factors of OC and employees performance (in role performance and OCB). Results indicate that AC is positively associated with in-role performance and OCB. Whereas CC is not associated with in-role performance and negatively correlated with OCB. Further NC mediates the relationship between AC and OCB.
Cheng and Stockdale (2003).	Empirical; 226 Chinese employees	This study investigates the validation of Meyer and Allen (1991) three model of OC in Chinese context. Results indicate a good fit index of model in Chinese context. Further AC and NC significantly predict job satisfaction. All three component of OC are linked to employees' turnover.AC and NC found higher in the

		Chinese employees.
Norris-Watts and Levy (2004).	Empirical; 140 undergraduate students	The study examines the mediating role of AC between performance appraisal process and organizational citizenship Behaviour. It found that AC performs a mediating role among the variables.
Cohen and Freund (2005)	Longitudinal; 122 community centre employees	The paper examines the relationship of multiple commitment and withdrawal cognition. It is found that multiple commitments (AC, CC, occupational commitment and job involvement) are associated with withdrawal cognition. Main finding of the study reveal that timing of measurement of variable also affects the relationship.
Chang et, al. (2007).	Empirical; 177 nurses	This study investigates relationship between three-component of OC and turnover intention. Results indicate that NC and AC are negatively correlated with turnover intention. Turnover intention plays a mediating role between AC and organizational turnover intentions.
Somers (2009)	Empirical; 228 hospital nurses.	The study investigates the influence of OC factors on employee's withdrawal (lateness and absenteeism) and job stress. Result suggests that AC is most influencing factors in reducing employee's turnover and job stress. CC and NC significantly helps in reducing absenteeism.
Rego et al. (2010)	Empirical; 205 participants	The paper investigates the predictory functions of perceptions of organizational virtuousness (OV) towards affective well-being (AWB) and affective commitment (AC). Results found OV as a significant predicts AC. It is found through the mediating effect of AWB, OV also predicts AC significantly.

Meyer (2012)	Meta-analysis;	The paper examines the cultural values influence on AC, NC and CC. Results suggests that NC is mostly influenced by cultural values followed by AC. But CC does not have any variance due to cultural values.
Panaccio and Vandenberghe (2012)	Longitudinal; 220 employees	The paper examines the relationship between Big five personality traits and components of OC. Results indicates that agreeableness and extraversion are positively related to AC, NC and CC. Neuroticism is negatively associated with AC and positively associated with CC.

Table 2.5 depicts the studies which focused on the Multi Functionality (testing for direct and indirect effects) of the latent construct OC.

Table 2.5 Multi-functionality of OC

Author	Sample	OC as Criterion/ Mediating/ Predictor variable
Bateman and	Empirical;	Predictor:
Strasser (1984).	129 employees from nursing department	Job satisfaction
Mathieu	Empirical:	Criterion:
(1988).	202 Army and Navy officers	job characteristics, work experiences, personal and job role
Sharma and	Empirical;	Criterion;
Joshi (2001).	81 executive from junior, middle and senior level	Job content and performance appraisal
Bhuian and	Empirical:	Predictor:
Mengue (2002).	700 sales expatriates	Job satisfaction
Kassahun	Empirical:	Criterion;
(2005).	210 employees from different organization	Procedural justice, job autonomy, employee age and organizational support

Purang (2008).	Empirical; 247 middle level employee	Criterion; HRD climate
Turker (2009)	Empirical; 269 business professional	Criterion; Corporate social responsibility
Dhawan and Mulla (2011).	Empirical; 240 employee form two manufacturing organization	Criterion; pay and transformational leadership
Weng et al. (2010).	Empirical; 961 employees from 10 cities	Criterion; Career growth factors (career advancement, Skill requirement, promotional opportunities and chance of increment in pay)
Juhdi et al. (2013).	Empirical; 457 employee from different sector	Mediating; Between HR practices and turnover intention

2.4 HUMAN CAPITAL

Human Capital has been inclined towards the economic aspect of the business, until the Industrial Revolution took place in 1970s. The essence of human capital is lately expanded to other streams of knowledge such as human resource management (Žuravliov et al., 1999), which was just evolved from the personnel management. Kamitis (2004) defined human capital as the sum of skill, capabilities and knowledge, which is gained by natural process of learning, thereby leading to productivity (Ojha, 2014b). It is very well proved that human capital is part of intellectual capital (Bontis, 1998; Edvinsson and Malone, 1997; Petty and Guthrie, 2000; Tayles et al., 2007), like structural and customer capital.

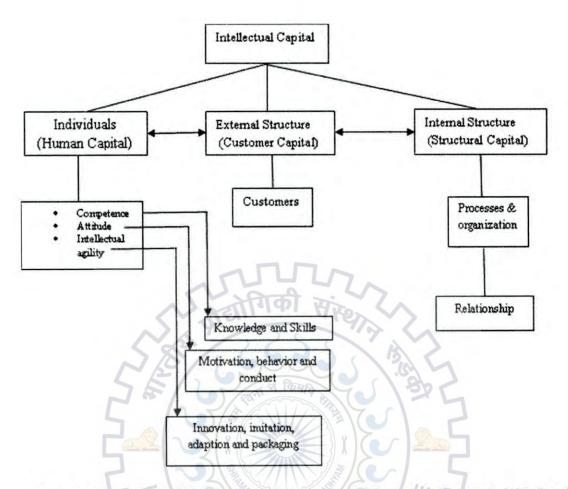


Figure 2.1 Human Capital Model .Source: Edvinsson and Malone, 1997; Roos et al., 1997; Scandia, 1994; Bontis, 1998; Svieby, 2001

HC refers to the awareness, experience, competencies and inventiveness of the employees as well as their stances and inspiration. Structural capital includes measures, practices, civilizing aspects, and facts that permit an organization to codify, systematize, and disseminate internally awareness and understanding produced by the HC (Bontis, 1998). Relational capital (Customer capital) amalgamates the knowledge about associations with the organization's external stakeholders (Edvinsson and Malone, 1997; Stewart, 1997). The quintessence of HC is the complete astuteness of the organizational associate. There are handful definitions available for HC.

Table 2.6 Definitions of Human Capital

Definition	Authors
HC is a value obtained during working by the investment made by an individual at work.	Carnoy (1995)
Learning, training or other actions that assure increased income in future.	Woodhall (1995)
Individual awareness and expertise.	Courant et al. (1999)
Acquired expertise (skills), knowledge and learning.	Wonnacot and Wonnacot (1988)
General human capital (GHC) is employee's knowledge, education and experience. Specific human capital (SHC) is based on expertise that is required to perform specific job.	Mines (1998)
Human capital is not only covers gained knowledge, education and experience but also covers inherent skills and ability.	Dombush et al. (2000)
HC can be defined as the outcome of total investment made by an individual for gaining the expertise, which is accountable for organizational productivity.	Hartog(1999)
HC emphasizes on (ROI) return on investment (i.e future efficiency) for developing worker proficiency and knowledge.	Lepak and Snell (1999)
HC is an intangible asset which can feel in terms of outcome only.	Bontis (1998)
It is sum of knowledge, skill and expertise to solve the organizational problem, which needs extensive dedication to obtain expertise.	Edvinsson and Sullivan (1996)
HC covers the short-term and long term knowledge and skills that enhances organization efficiency.	Marr and Chatzkel (2004)
HC can be is defined as understanding, abilities and talent of employees that differ according to uniqueness (generic/firm - explicit/activity or industry-specific) and core value that contributes to firm's competitive advantage.	Swart (2005)

Table 2.5 exhibits various definitions of HC, most of the definition stated HC as the total sum of employee's skills, abilities and knowledge that helps the organization to gain competitive advantage (Edvinsson and Sullivan, 1996; Swart, 2005; Wonnacot and Wonnacot, 1988). Whereas few other definitions considered HC as return on investment (ROI) which is made by an individual during his learning (Lepak and Snell, 1999). Bontis (1998) defined HC as an intangible asset which cannot be seen and it can only be felt in terms of idiosyncratic efforts. Besides all the above definitions, (Johnes, 1998) stated that HC was not only related with increment singular efficiency, but also helpful to cover two aspects: general (master ship and awareness of the efficiency of employees) and specific human capital (based on the master ship and originality that may be functional in the certain field) and both lead to employee and

organizational development (Piktumiene, 2004). Lepak and Snell (1999) postulated two omnipresent dimensions of HC, i.e. value and uniqueness, value represents the worth, while uniqueness represents the specificity of HC, (Swart, 2005, p. 9).

2.3.1 ANTECEDENT AND CONSEQUNCES OF HUMAN CAPITAL

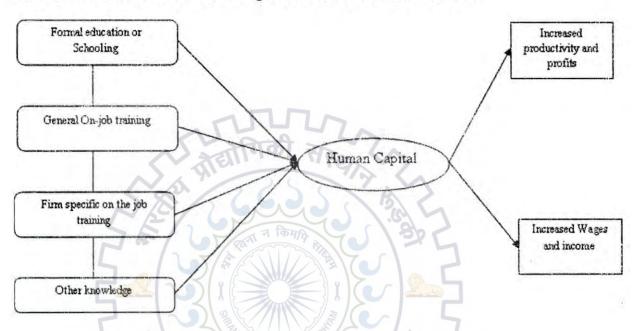


Figure 2.2 Model of Human Capital Theory; Zula and Chermark, 2007

HC theory affirms that both organization and society obtain economic gains when investments are made into people (Sweetland, 1996). Figure 2.2 shows the model of human capital theory and its association with different kind of investments that could be made and the corresponding return on investment (ROI). Hudson (1993) explained four factors, i.e. experience, genetic inheritance; education and attitude that contribute to individual-level HC. Park and Kim (2013) also state a good leader can pursued a smart for organizational betterment. HC is an imperative part of organization because all alterations made in the organization HC contributes significantly. The quintessence of human capital is the steep astuteness of the organizational employees.

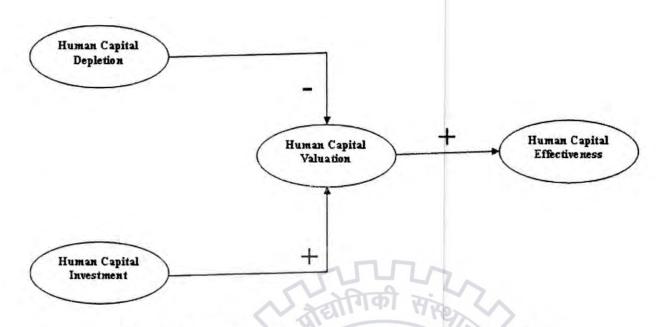


Figure 2.3 Bontis and- Fitz Enz (2002) Conceptual Model of Human Capital

Wright et al. (1994) feuded that a pool of HC leads to competitive advantage of organization. HC comprises of talent, experience and knowledge of employees. Furthermore, HC can be defined as a crucial constituent of the intellectual capital (Bontis, 2001a, b, 2002a, b; Bontis et al., 1999; Edvinsson, 2002; Stewart, 2001; Sveiby, 1997; Bontis and Girardi, 2000). There are several studies which proposed senior management support, (Lyles and Schwenk, 1992; Hartijasti, 2011) managerial leadership and union of the follower (Pedler et al., 1996; Park et al., 2012) are leading antecedents of HC. It was well supported by Edmondson (1996), who proposed leadership as the foremost antecedent of HC. Barney (1986) has suggested employee sentiment as another imperative antecedent of HC. Employee sentiments are comprised of employee's satisfaction (related to various facets of job), commitment (loyalty towards the organization) and motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic). Barney also supported the organizational cultural attributes as the antecedent of HC that help in achieving the competitive advantage of organization. Culture can be said as values, beliefs, attitudes that are results in a consistent Behaviour and deliberation of senior management (Hall, 1992). Bontis (2002) in his study proposed in total of four antecedents and consequents and the same are represented in figure 2.2, i.e. human capital investment (development rate, investment in training and training cost), human capital depletion (involuntary turnover, voluntary turnover and total separation), human capital valuation (compensation expense factor, supervisory compensation factor, compensation revenue

factor, compensation factor and executive compensation factor) and human capital effectiveness (human capital ROI expense factor, income factor and revenue factor). Overall model describes various investments of HC through mediating effects of few valuation factors that lead to the productivity of HC. Zula and Chermack, (2007) supported the model by stating, "Formal Education or Schooling, General on-The Job Training, Firm Specific On-The Job Training" and other sorts of understanding into HC and obtaining return on Investment (ROI). The increased efficiency and profits are the return and outputs received through investment in HC.

Table 2.7 represents the relevant conceptual and empirical studies which highlighted the importance of Human Capital in relationship with Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and other related linkages.

Table 2.7 Contemporary Research on HC

Author	Research Design	Finding of the Study
Galunic and Anderson (2000)	Empirical study; 237 agents from organizations	This paper examines the relation between investments in human capital and employee commitment. It is found that generalized and firm specific investment in the HC have a strong association with employee commitment to firm.
Carpenter et al. (2001)	Empirical study: CEOs form 245 multinational organizations	This study investigates the impact of international assignment experience on pay, performance and HC. The results of the study states that international assignment experience have a strong impact of individual pay, performance and HC.
Hitt et al. (2001)	Empirical study: 252 employees from 93 firms	This study examines the direct and moderating impact of HC on firm's performance. Results of the study found that HC has curvilinear effect and positive influence on firm performance. HC also have moderating effect between strategy and firm performance
Lepak and Snell (2001)	Empirical study: 2375 employees 148 firms	This study investigates the relationship of HR architecture and HC in four quadrants on the bases of HC value and uniqueness. It is found that all four quadrants,

		productivity-based, collaborative, compliance-based and commitment-based, is associated with HC, but HC value and uniqueness differently exist in all quadrants.
Fitz-enz (2002)	Empirical study: 76 administrative personnel from 25 financial services companies.	This study examines antecedents and consequences for HC management. It is found that human resources factors like; intellectual capital, employee's sentiments, information technology, knowledge management, organizational Behaviour, and accounting are having strong association with HC that leads to HC effectiveness.
Jepsen and Montgomery (2002)	Empirical study: 3552 person from Department of labour	This investigates the relationship between age of employee and HC. The findings are that age and opportunity cost are having impact on HC. This study also reveals that you living area also affect HC.
Hatch and Dyer (2004)	Empirical study: 25 semiconductor manufacturing firms from USA	This study aims at to identify the sources of organizational performance. The finding suggested that firm specific capital enhance the performance of the firm. Results also indicate that employee selection, training, career management and learning also have a significant impact on organizational performance.
Skaggs and Youndt (2004)	Empirical study: 234 service organizations	This investigates the impact of strategic positioning and HC on organizational performance. A result indicates that strategic positioning and HC have positive impact on organizational performance.
Murthy and Abeysekera (2007)	Content analysis;	This study investigates the HC value creation practices in 17 software and service firm of India. It is found HC attributes and management perception is most prevailing HC value creation practices for the Indian firm.
Bronzini and Pisell. (2009)	Meta analysis	This study examines the relation between R&D, total factor productivity, public infrastructure and human capital. Results reveal that HC have stronger impact on productivity. R&D and public infrastructure also found

		strongly associated with productivity.
Gates and Langevin (2009)	Empirical study: 104 HR executives	This paper investigates the content of HC measure those linked to organizational performance. Differentiation strategy, innovation indicators, cost reduction strategy and efficiency indicators are found main contents for HC.
Beattie and Smith (2010)	Empirical study: 591 senior employees	This study investigates the contributors of HC to value creation and external relevance of HC. Results indicate that employee proficiency and education, employee motivation, employee positive job satisfaction and Behaviour and employee commitment are most important factors for firm value creation. It is also suggested by study that employee commitment, employee job satisfaction, communication and recruitment are externally related variable with the HC.
Birasnav et al.(2010)	Empirical study: 470 responses of middle and senior level executive from India	This study investigates employee's perception of leadership style and its impact on HC benefits. Results indicates leadership style and employee perception have a strong positive effect on HC benefits.
Ng and Feldman (2010)	Meta analysis	This study investigates the mediating effects of cognitive ability and conscientiousness between HC and career success. The finding suggests that cognitive ability and conscientiousness have mediating affect between employee education and tenure. Extra-role and in-role work performance sway employees 'pay and promotions.

2.5 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.5.1 Demographic Variables and Human Capital

Demographic variables play an imperative part in any construct, and same is the case with human capital too. Many of the studies have shown a link between different demographic variables and human capital creation (Borsch-Supan, 2002; Dahlberg and Nahum, 2003).

H1a: Male and female employees perceive HCC differently.

Scholars like Brooks and Volker (1986) have found significant difference in the perception of male and female while investigated 2600 employees of different sectors in Sweden. Evans and Saraiva (1993) and Ross and Saunder (1993), also investigated the gender-based human capital creation. They found significant difference in muscular and feminine employees with respect to the human capital, by quoting that male employees are logical than female employees.

H1b: Graduate and postgraduate employees perceive HCC differently.

Education plays an elementary role in structuring human capital. From the childhood to maturity an individual gain knowledge from the different educational institutions. That particular education enhanced the capabilities of the individual; it will also produce educated employees to gain competitive advantage. Kiker (1966) stated, "the quality of an organization's stock of human capital is decisive for the organization's long run development." Thus we can say that educational level of employees influences human capital of the organization. Conclusively, we can state that education not only affects that employee's personal life but also the entire organizational situation. Researchers of human capital argued that education as an important personal determinant that creates the differences in the efficiency of the employees.

H1c: Different age groups cause variation in HCC perception of employee.

Many social science researchers investigated the age's influence on human capital creation to attain the organizational core competencies (Evans, 1984). Wooden and Vanden Heuvel (1997) and Lucich (1997) used age as a predictor variable for the human capital creation. Findings obtained by the researchers supported the age and human capital relation. They argued that as the age increases employee maturity, forces employees to attain organizational capabilities.

H1d: Experience level causes variation in HCC of employee.

Experience is another important personal characteristic that also influences the human capital of the organization (Davidsson and Honig, 2003). Practical experience of an employee is hypothetically associated with the increment of human capital (Becker, 1970). Davidsson and Honig (2003) conducted an empirical study to find out the market and managerial experience in the creation of human capital. The findings of the study confirmed the influence of experience on human capital creation. Iyigun and Own (1997) also stressed that creation of human capital is

very much influenced by the practical learning and experience of an individual. As the experience of individual increases, it affects the human capital inventory of the organization (Schultz, 1980). All the above discussion of demographic variables and human capital creation allows us to form the demographic hypotheses for the study.

2.5.2 Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction

Numerous existing studies have presented the linkage of job satisfaction and demographic variables (Desselle, 1998; Gaither, 1998; Liu and White, 2011; Mott, 2000; Seston et al., 2009). Demographic variables like; age, gender, education, experience, job level and ethnicity have found the most influencing personal determinants of job satisfaction

H2a: Male and female perceives JS differently.

The literature with respect to gender and JS is inconsistent. Several studies have reported females with higher JS, whereas few other studies reported males with higher JS and few studies posited no difference related to JS in male and female workers. It is also found that females JS is constantly decreased in last decade and male's JS remained constant (Souza-Poza; 2003). Several studies also stated the notion that females show higher JS rather than males (Lambert et al., 2001; Loscocco, 1990; Ma and Macmillan, 1999). Contrary to this Al-Mashaan (2003), stated that males are more satisfied with their jobs. Miller and Wheeler (1992) advocated that women are less satisfied with their jobs because of glass ceiling effect.

H2b: Graduate and postgraduate employees perceive JS differently.

Over the years, many scholars have investigated the educational level with respect to JS (Camp, 1994; Loscocco, 1990; Ting, 1997). Previous empirical studies on the education level with JS have represented the mixed outcome. Some papers exhibit significant, positive or negative and non-significant relationship between education and JS (Ganzach, 2003; Gordon and Arvey, 1975; Herzberg et al., 1957). The variations in results are may be due to the factors associated with JS (Fabra and Camisón, 2009). Fabra and Camisón (2009) proposed a model that indicates, employee with higher education tend to be more satisfied, because they are having better chances to gain more than the less educated employees. Previous studies also supported the same view (Arrow, 1997; Martin and Shehan, 1989; Vila, 2000).

H2c: Different age groups cause variation in JS perception of employee.

Research studies are precise and have constantly established a link between age and JS (Chambers, 1999; Robbins, 2001; Tolbert and Moen, 1998). Literature has statistically proved that as the age increases simultaneously the level of JS also increases (Belcastro and Koeske, 1996; Cramer, 1993; Jones Johnson and Johnson, 2000; Loscocco, 1990; Saal and Knight, 1988). This disparity may be accredited to fine-tuning at work, better work setting and superior remuneration for work (Birdi et, al.1995). Blood et al. (2002) also supported the notion aged employees likely to enjoy greater levels of JS than newer once. This finding is indifferent to industries were aged employees plausibly to state higher levels of JS than younger once (Hodson, 1997; Spector, 1997). Similarly, Siu et al. (2001) also concluded in the study that age was positively related to JS and mental well-being. Blood et al. (2002) delineated that aged workers are more contented and forbearing of authority and may be fewer expectations from job. That's why aged employees tend to be more satisfied than the younger employees.

H2d: Experience level causes variation in JS perception of employee.

Experience refers to the span of an employee in an organization. This experience also used as a tool for retention, payment, promotion and staffing decision. Experience with the same organization enhances the chances for increased benefits and right (Gordon and Johnson 1982). Over here researchers stated that experience and age were associated with JS. However, literature has found a strong U shaped association between experience and JS. Numerous researchers have come up with empirical validation that, as experience of an employee increases; organization experience also increases (Benge and Copell, 1947; Gordon and Johnson, 1982). Herzberg et al. (1957) have also supported the U-shaped relationship between JS and experience, in which at the initial stage the employee feels less satisfied with the job, but as the span of employment of increases JS climbed up (Theodossiou and Zangelidis, 2009). Noel et al., (1982) in their study also found the strong association between experience and JS. In the study, they found employees with long span of employment are more satisfied than the beginners. Hence, above discussed demographic studies allows us to frame the hypothesis for the present study.

2.5.3 Demographic Variables and Organizational Commitment

Over the years, there are a number of studies that investigated the relationship of personal determinants (age, gender, experience and education) and OC and presented an unequivocal picture of their influence on OC.

H3a: Male and female perceives OC differently.

Studies on gender difference have recommended mixed results. Some studies stated female are more committed than male, some indicated the reverse result, and few found no significant difference in commitment between male and female perception (Singh et al., 2004). Loscocco (1990) stated that females were ready to accept every job offered by organization, and they feel proud while working; that reflects commitment by female employees. Harrison and Hubbard (1998) contrarily stated that females demonstrated better loyalty because they encounter fewer alternatives for employment. Researchers failed to prove this relationship due to less supportive evidence (Ngo and Tsang, 1998; Wahn, 1998).

H3b: Graduate and postgraduate employees perceive OC differently.

Many authors have found inverse relationship between OC and education (Angle and Perry, 1981; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Rowden, 2000). This negative relationship occurs may be due to employees feeling about compensation, which an employee is receiving (Lok and Crawford, 2001). Angle and Perry (2000) suggested that opportunities for the less-educated employees are less, so they tend to be loyal to the organization.

H3c: Different age groups cause variation in OC perception of employee.

Dinham (1994) delineated in their research as the employee's age increases constantly OC has also increased. This relationship is confirmed by diverse studies (Cho et al., 2001; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Lok and Crawford, 1999; Luthans, 1992; Sekaran; 2000). In addition Cho et al. (2001) added the effect of age and occupation on loyalty. Hence, age of employees is considered as significant contributors of OC. The reason being older employees made lots of investments and have lots of memories with organization; this force makes older employee committed to the organization (Kacmar et al., 1999). Therefore, aged employees are less willing to leave the organization as compare to young employees because they have less investment and mobility in nature (Hellman, 1997).

H3d: Experience level causes employee perception for OC of employee.

Experience of an employee is also a personal attribute that contributes in OC. Research confirmed the relationship between experience and OC (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Dinham 1994; Larkey and Morrill; 1995). Many studies vouch that experience has a positive impact on OC (Luthans, 1992; Luthans, et al, 1987; Mowday et al., 1982). The reason behind this relationship maybe fewer employment opportunities, increase personal investment and social interaction. This leads to psychological attachment of an employee towards organization (Lim et al., 1998; Luthans, 1992). Sekaran (2000) upholds that experience with organization is coupled with some position and status that enhance the commitment level of the employees. Researchers in general signify an opposite association between OC and an individual's education, still the domino effect is not explicit (Luthans et al., 1987; Mowday et al., 1982; Vorster, 1992). As in today's labour market numbers of female employees is increasing and the research on gender difference is also enhanced significantly. The above discussion forces us to frame the hypothesis for demographic analysis of organizational commitment.

2.6 LINKING JOB SATISFACTION AND ITS DIMENSIONS WITH HUMAN CAPITAL

H4a: job satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

The linkage of job satisfaction and competence enhancement is very well known, as they are very closely linked to each other (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2007). Koys (2001) posited job satisfaction as motivational aspect which boosts up the morale of employees in the organisational setup. Employees which are attain satisfaction with job, contributes more (Chen and Francesco, 2003) this contribution enhanced the capabilities of the employees which become an asset for the organization (Tziner et al., 2008). This is not only one way which enables job satisfaction as a force to create human capital there are several others also exists (Bono et al., 2001, Greguras et al., 2004) like dispositional/genetic components, discrepancies, need fulfillment, equity and value attainment, (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2007). Existing literature explained human capital as the sum of expertise, knowledge level and skills of employees which are derived by employee sentiment, i.e. job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Bontis and Fitz-enz, 2002). The extant of literature supported the positive correlation between employee sentiment and human capital creation. Ferreira and Taylor (2011) strongly emphasize on the relation of job satisfaction and

efficiency enhancement. Job satisfaction leads to a lower propensity of job withdrawal, and job dissatisfaction increases turnover, absenteeism and productivity (Hulin, 1991; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998).

H4a1: pay satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

In the previous section it has been outlined that several dimensions of the job satisfaction lead to human capital creation with respected to competence enhancement. Curme and Stefanec (2007) considered as the one of major force, for the efforts contribution for organizational development. Researchers considered pay as the prominent factors for the human capital creation (Lazear, 2000). Booth and frank (1999) also emphasize on the contribution of money as a source of competency building.

H4a2: promotion satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

Promotion is said to be the recognition of the employee's efforts by the top management. Anderson et al. (1981) stated that promotion enhances the sense of obligation in employees for the organization. Previous studies investigated promotion as the major aspect for organizational and personal development (Bluedorn, 1982; Price, 1977). In the review of promotional effect competency creation found to be the prominent one.

H4a3: supervision satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

Interpersonal relationship can be defined as the social relationship at work place with colleagues and supervisor. Good relationship at workplace boosts the morale of an individual to significantly help employees to enrich themselves. Allen (2001) investigated the 200 dyad relationships to measure the interpersonal satisfaction and its contribution towards the positive work approach. Allen in the study found a positive and significant relationship among interpersonal relation and positive work approach. A good supervisor can help for the development of their subordinates (Pertoft and Larsen, 2003).

H4a4: benefits satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a5: rewards satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

Compensation plan is said to be a strategic decision of the management that also regards that capabilities of the individual and employee's productivity has a strong association with human

capital (Roberts, 1959). A sound compensation plan includes rewards and benefits by default. Podaskof et al. (2005) considered benefits as the stimulators for the employees which force them to work with full efficiency. Judge et al. (1995) also suggested rewards as the key motivator to perform in the best way. Berger et al.(1983) also posited reward and benefits as the major aspects of the human capital creation.

H4a6: work itself satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

Smith et al. (1969) define work itself as the work done by the employees with satisfaction. It is said to be a person-job relationship. The extant literature clearly indicated that a good person-job fit enhance the productivity and effectiveness for the employee and organization (Elangovan, 2001; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). It can be deduce that work itself satisfaction also enhances the capabilities of the employees.

H4a7: operating procedure satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

Operating procedure can be defined as the policies and procedure to operate the organization in the smooth way. Stressful operating procedure can demolish the competence of a capable employee (Gross, 1995). Akbari et al.(2013) addressed the functions of sound operating system for the continuous development of the employees. Hadighi et al.(2013) have also advocates the impact of sound structure on competency building.

H4a8: communication satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

In organization information sharing propels the smooth functioning of the work (Quirke, 1995). A good communication system creates a healthy working environment which leads to skill development for the employee (Clampitt and Downs, 1993). The extent literature also suggests sounds information distribution system creates the human capital within the organization (Sias, 2005).

H4a9: co-worker satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

Communal interface with co-worker is another foremost aspect of the job satisfaction. It is closeness and faithfulness with colleagues on workplace which lead to sound working environment which propels employee to perform, better for the organization (Billings and Moos,

1982). Madhavi et al. (2014) also advocates the team support and structure for development of the employees.

2.7 LINKING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND HUMAN CAPITAL

H4b: organizational commitment significantly predicts HCC.

H4b1: affective commitment significantly predicts HCC.

H4b2: normative commitment significantly predicts HCC.

H4b3: continuance commitment significantly predicts HCC.

In today's competitive environment (Babakus et al., 2003), having a pool of committed and talent employees can reduces costs, increases revenues, builds market share and improves bottom lines. A loyal employee will perform his obligation for the betterment of the organization. There is direct and indirect relationship exists between loyalty and competency building. The involvement of talent people in organisations becomes decisive when novelty, continuous enhancement, high excellence values and cutthroat prices are demanded of companies and employee discretionary efforts come to be an essential resource (Gonzalez and Guillen, 2008). Verkhohlyad and McLean, (2012) have also proposed a positive relationship between organizational commitments and its dimension in creation of human capital. They stated that an employee through his loyalty can deploy his ability for the development of the organization. It also enhances the pool of talented people. Human capital can be created only when an employee enjoys his stay with the organization and has affirmative approach associated with staying. These distinctive features of organizational commitment contribute in the creation of human capital (Harrison et al., 2006; Hausknecht et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2004; Payne and Huffman, 2005). According to Fields (2002), affective commitment provides recognition for the employee in the organization. Increasing level of capabilities has a strong positive association with organizational commitment (Fields, 2002). Verkhohlyad and McLean, (2012) posited a significant effect of organizational commitment on human capital. Extant of literature demonstrated a necessity to investigate the relationship directly.

With respect to the above discussion, employee ability was chosen as the dependent variable and that is influenced by employee's sentiment (Mayo, 2000). A triumphant firm subsequently

enhances the employee's potential through sentiments. (McCowan et al., 1999). The present study basically based on future scope of Bontis and Fitz-enz (2002) study which explores the relationship between job satisfaction and human capital, and organisational commitment and human capital. Based on the above set of linkages between job satisfaction and organizational commitment with human capital creation energize us to carry the proposed study. Although said relationship is unexplored till date and this novelty of the study strengthened our hope. Based on the previous literature we have proposed the study hypotheses to achieve the main objective. We also proposed the hypotheses for the dimensions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment with human capital creation and to investigate the micro level relationship between dependent and independent variables.

2.8 CONCEPTUAL MODEL BASED ON RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

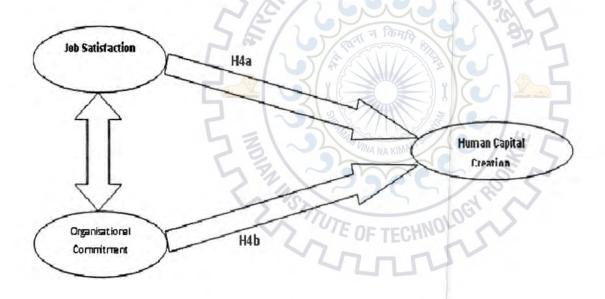


Figure 2.3 Proposed Conceptual Model of Study

2. 9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Focusing the study variables (JS, OC & HCC) a detailed review of literature has been done. Also approachable literature on dimensions of variables (pay, supervision, promotion, benefits, rewards, operating procedure, work itself, communication, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) has been reviewed. Also, a looming link has been

built up between dependent variable (HCC) and independent variable (JS and OC) have been developed. It can be seen from the existing literature that there is a scarcity of studies pertinent to proposed relationship. Present also focuses on the demographic (age, educational level, gender and experience) context of the study variables. Thus, considering all the facts present study will not only fill the gap of study relationship, but would also open new views for future researchers while implanting the study discussion.



RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Methodology generally defined as the outlay of the research process (Cooper and Schindler, 2000). The research methodology is the outline of research design, study population, instrumentation for data collection, sampling procedure and various data analysis techniques. The previous section of the present study discussed about the Human Capital Creation (HCC), and expected contribution of JS (Job Satisfaction) and OC (Organizational Commitment). Literature review has provided an understanding to identify the dimensions of dependent variable (HCC) and independent variables (JS and OC) for the present study.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The present study is an attempt to assess the creation of human capital, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in Indian organizations. Furthermore the study is also an attempt to explore the demographic variations with respect to human capital creation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The predictive functions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment towards the human capital creation also have been explored in the present study. The data for present study has been collected by non-experimental method. For the collection of responses standardized scales have been used.

3.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To examine the human capital creation in Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables (gender, education, age and experience).
 - H1a: Male and female employees perceive HCC differently.
 - H1b: Graduate and postgraduate employees perceive HCC differently.
 - H1c: Different age groups cause variation in HCC perception of employee.
 - H1d: Experience level causes variation in HCC of employee.
- 2. To examine the job satisfaction in Indian organization with respect to the demographic variables (gender, education, age and experience).
 - H2a: Male and female perceives JS differently.
 - H2b: Graduate and postgraduate employees perceive JS differently.
 - H2c: Different age groups cause variation in JS perception of employee.

H2d: Experience level causes variation in JS perception of employee.

3. To examine the organizational commitment in Indian organizations with respect to the demographic variables (gender, education, age and experience).

H3a: Male and female perceives OC differently.

H3b: Graduate and postgraduate employees perceive OC differently.

H3c: Different age groups cause variation in OC perception of employee.

H3d: Experience level causes employee perception for OC of employee.

4. To study the job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of human capital creation in select business organizations in India.

4a. To study the job satisfaction as predictors of HCC.

H4a: job satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a1: pay satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a2: promotion satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a3: supervision satisfaction significantly predicts HCC

H4a4: benefits satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a5: rewards satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a6: work itself satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a7: operating procedure satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a8: communication satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

H4a9: co-worker satisfaction significantly predicts HCC.

4b. To study the organizational commitment as predictor of HCC.

H4b: organizational commitment significantly predicts HCC.

H4b1: affective commitment significantly predicts HCC.

H4b2: normative commitment significantly predicts HCC.

H4b3: continuance commitment significantly predicts HCC.

5. To prove a new outlook to the study variables.

3.3.1 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 1

Table 3.1 Objective 1

Objective	Hypotheses	Statistical Techniques
01	H1a: male and female perceives HCC differently H1b: graduate and postgraduate employee perceives HCC differently	Independent sample t-test to check out difference.
	H1c: aged employee perceives HCC differently	One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to check the variance across sub-groups
4	H1d: experience level causes employee perception for HCC differently	One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to check the variance across sub-groups

3.3.2 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 2

Table 3.2 Objective 2

Objective	Hypotheses	Statistical Techniques
O2	H2a: male and female perceives JS differently H2b: graduate and postgraduate employee perceives JS differently	Independent sample t-test to check out difference.
	H2c: aged employee perceive JS differently	One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to check the variance across sub-groups
	H2d: experience level causes employee perception for JS differently	One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to check the variance across sub-groups

3.3.3 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 3

Table 3.3 Objective 3

Objective	Hypotheses	Statistical Techniques
03	H3a: male and female perceives OC differently H3b:graduate and postgraduate employee perceives OC differently	Independent sample t-test to check out difference.
	H3c: aged employee perceive OC differently	One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to check the variance across sub-groups
	H3d: experience level causes employee perception for OC differently	One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to check the variance across sub-groups

3.3.4 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 4

Table 3.4 Objective 4

Objective	Hypotheses	Statistical Techniques
O4	H4a: job satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Regression Analysis
H4a	H4a1: pay satisfaction significantly predicts HCC H4a2: promotion satisfaction significantly predicts HCC H4a3: supervision satisfaction significantly predicts HCC H4a4: benefits satisfaction significantly predicts HCC H4a5: rewards satisfaction significantly predicts HCC H4a6: work itself satisfaction significantly predicts HCC H4a7: operating procedure satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis

	H4a8: communication satisfaction significantly predicts HCC H4a9: co-worker satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	
H4b	H4b: organizational commitment significantly predicts HCC	Regression Analysis
	H4b1: affective commitment significantly predicts HCC H4b2: normative commitment significantly predicts HCC H4b3: continuance commitment significantly predicts HCC	Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis

3.4 TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Horsemen (1994) explained target population as "the total collection of all members, cases or elements about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions." The potential participants of the present study are middle and senior level executives of Indian organizations whose annual turnover is more than 100 crores INR. In the present study, data were collected from a heterogeneous nature of fifty one organizations, both public and private sector consisting manufacturing, service, IT-ITES (Information Technology and IT Enabled Services) and PME (Power, Mining and Exploration). A total of 670 self-report questionnaires were administered personally to the participants or with the assistance of human resource department of the organizations. The potential participants were ensured that their responses would be kept confidential and only used for academic purpose. From the distributed questionnaires 396 filled questionnaires were received. Out of which only 366 questionnaires were found suitable for the study.

Table 3.4 Demographic Statistic of the Target Population

Variables	Group	Number	Percent
Age In Years	<30	143	39.10%
	30-40	110	30.10%
	40>	113	30.80%
Gender	Male	315	86.10%
	Female	51	13.90%
Education	UG	186	50.81%
	PG	180	49.19%
Experience	<8	159	43.44%
	8-16	109	29.78%
	16>	98	26.78%
To	tal	366	100%

The average age of samples was 37 years with an average experience of 11 years. The study population was dominated by male (86.1%) and female respondents cover only a small part of the population (13.9%). Education wise it was a fifty-fifty ratio with UG (49.19%) and PG (50.81%). Over 74.31 percent respondents were married and 25.69 percent respondents were unmarried. Experience wise majority of respondents belong to a group 1st which is less than 8 years (43.44%) of experience, followed by 2nd and 3rd group 29.7 percent and 26.7 percent respectively.

Before applying any analysis demographic variables were quantified as follows (Gender = 0 for female and 1 for male, education = 0 for graduates, 1 for postgraduates and Experience is categories into three group= 0 for group one (0-8 years of experience), 1 for group one (8-17 years of experience), 0 for group one (16 above years of experience)

3.5 INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION

As discussed in the previous section, present study framework is based on JS (Job Satisfaction Survey) by Spector (1997), OC (Organizational Commitment Scale) by Meyer and Allen (1997) and HCC (Human Capital Creation Scale) by Birasnav and Rangnekar (2009). The measurement scales for data collection from Indian executives were highlighted with above mentioned name with close-ended questionnaire. The scale is also used for the collection of demographic

information like: name (optional), gender, marital status, age and experience. The portrayals of standardized questionnaires are discussed below.

3.5.1 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

JSS was developed by Spector (1997) for measuring the overall JS of employees on different aspects. JSS is consist of 36 items separated in 9 sub-factors, Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Benefits, Rewards Operating Procedures, Coworkers, Work itself and Communication each sub factor consists 4 items each. JS questionnaire is also consisting of few reverse scoring items for pay ("Raise are too few and far between." "I am unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me."), promotion ("There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.") supervision ("My supervisor is unfair to me." "My supervisor shows too little interest in feeling of subordinates.") benefits ("I m not satisfied with the benefits I receive." "The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer." "The benefit packages we have is equitable.") rewards ("I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated." "There are few rewards for those who work here." "I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.") operating procedure ("Many of our rules and procedure make doing a good job difficult." "I have too much to do at work.") co-worker ("I find I have to work harder at my job than I should because of the incompetence of people I work with." "There is too much bickering and fighting at work.") work itself("I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.") and communication ("The goals of this organization are not clear to me." "I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization." "Work assignments are often not fully explained."). The scores of reverse items have been reversed for the analysis of data. Respondent were asked to respond on to five point for the scale 5-Agree very much, 4-Agree, 3- Neither agree nor disagree, 2-Disagree, 1-Disagree very much. The reliability and validity coefficient for the questionnaire is very high to measure JS.

3.5.2 Organizational Commitment Scale

OC scale was developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) to measure employee's organizational commitment. OC scale consisting of 18 items covered by 3 sub-factors, AC, NC and CC. Present OC scale also have some reverse scoring item for AC ("I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization." "I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization." "I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.") and NC ("I do not feel any obligation to

remain with my current employer."). After collecting responses scores of reverse items have been reversed for the analysis. Respondent were asked to respond on to five point for the scale 5--Strongly agree, 4—Agree, 3-- Neither agree nor disagree, 2—Disagree, 1—strongly disagree. The reliability and validity coefficient for the questionnaire is very high to measure OC.

3.5.3 Human Capital Creation Scale

HCC scale was developed by Birasnav and Rangnekar (2009) to measure the creation of human capital by using different human resource strategies and perception of HCC. HCC scale consisting of 33 items covered by 6 sub-factors, recruitment strategies, career management, reward strategies, training, performance appraisal and perceived human capital creation. Sample items for the scale are "Recruitment strategies attempt to hold on to the best talent." "Availability of training facilities to meet the requirement of my job." "I consider appraisal process as an opportunity to overcome my weaknesses." "To what extent do you give importance to your career exploration?" "To what extent the offered reward in your organization motivated you to participate in a team." "Participation in a team which carries out high profile project". Respondent were asked to respond on to five point scale on different responses like: Definitely true (5), Probably true (4), Do not know (3), Probably false (2), Definitely false (1), Greatly in Existence (5), In existence (4), Not sure (3), Barely in existence (2) None in existence (1), Completely (5), To a great extent (4), To some extent (3), To a little extent (2), Not at all (1) A great deal (5), Quite a lot (2), A fair amount (3), A small amount (2), Very little (1), Very Important (5), Moderately Important (4), Somewhat Important (3), Slightly Important (2), Not at all Important (1) Very long (5), Long (4), Fair(3), Short(2), Very short(1). The reliability and validity coefficient for the questionnaire is very high to measure HCC.

3.6 RELIABILTY AND VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS

3.6.1 Reliability

"Reliability and validity are the hallmarks of good measurement practices" (Salkind, 2003, p. 107). Scale constant and steady score demonstrated the high degree reliability of the scale (Creswell, 2005). Neuman (2006) stated that "high degrees of instrument reliability suggest the occurrence of similar results under rater situations that are comparable, related, or nearly identical". Reliability defined as whether a scale can interpret constantly across different circumstances (Field, 2009). The Cronbach alpha (a) demonstrates the consistency of the

construct, called as reliability (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). To measure the reliability coefficient Cronbach alpha (a) of every study construct have been calculated. The reliability coefficient (α) is given in the Table 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 for scales and for their factors; Organizational Commitment.90 (Affective Commitment .87, Continuance Commitment .86, Normative Commitment.79), JS.74 (Pay.68, Promotion.65, Supervision.73, Benefits.64, Reward.72, Operating Procedure.63, Coworker.76, Work itself.68 and Communication.70), Human Capital Creation.86 (Recruitment Strategy.70, Training.76, Performance Management.74, Career Management.67, Reward Strategy.76 and Perceived Human Capital Creation.62).

3.6.2 Validity

Creswel (2005) define validity as "an instrument's results are meaningful, thus permitting the researcher to draw conclusions to populations based on the sample". Instrument validity is defined as the scale or set of items accurately represent the measure concept. In other words a scale is said to be valid if it measures what its intent to measure. "Validity is typically more challenging to attain than reliability" (Neuman, 2006). Colin (2009) has asserted that when different variables are used to measure the same construct and scores from these different variables are strongly correlated, then it indicates convergent validity.

In order to ascertain the scale validity we have calculated discriminant validity coefficient and convergent coefficient. Discriminant validity criterion (DVC) was tested by taking into account. The factor loading values obtained using EFA and low factor loading (less than. 40) of the items, on the dissimilar construct ensured the discriminant validity of the constructs (Hair et al., 2006). Table 4.2 provides the values of discriminant validity and convergent and for HCC constructs. Likewise, Table 4.3 stands for the values of convergent and discriminant validity for JS constructs. In Tables 4.4, discriminant validity of the constructs validity has been shown for the OC scale. The scores in (Tables 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4) for convergent and discriminant validity coefficient represents that scale uphold the validity with research convention.

High degrees of instrument validity are essential characteristics of a useful instrument. Validity infers an instrument's results are meaningful, thus permitting the researcher to draw conclusions to populations based on the sample (Creswell, 2005). A valid instrument measures what it purports to measure (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

3.7 Chapter Summary

The aim of the present chapter was to provide the detailed research design of the study. This chapter explains the research objectives along with hypotheses of the study. Hypothesis was framed on the basis of literature review. Furthermore, chapter describes the statistical tool like (t-test for the comparison of means, ANOVA for the comparison of more than group mean and regression analysis-that describes the predictor function of independent factor to dependent factor) used for the achievement of the objective. Afterward detailed information of the instruments used for data collection was explored. At last reliability and validity of the chapter was discussed in the chapter.

4.1 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter presents the results based on statistical data analysis for achieving the study objectives. As conferred in the previous chapter, SPSS ® 20 was used for performing Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), arrangement of data, descriptive statistics, reliability and validity of the instruments and AMOS® 21 was used for Confirmatory factor Analysis (CFA). After analysing the data, interpretation of results is presented followed by discussion and findings.

4.2 PRELIMINARY SCREENING OF DATA

Table 4.1 represents the normality coefficient (i.e. skeweness and kurtosis), non-multicollinearity (VIF) and reliability (i.e. Cronbach alpha) values. Skewness and Kurtosis values indicates that the spread of data is just about to be normal. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is found to be less than 10, which indicates that data is free from the presence of multi-collinearity.

4.2.1 Multicollinearity of the Data

Ho (2006) defines "multicollinearity as the situation in which, when the independent/predictor variables are highly correlated. When independent variables are multicollinear, there is an "overlap" or sharing of predictive power. This may lead to the paradoxical effect, whereby the regression model fits the data well, but none of the predictor variables has a significant impact in predicting the dependent variable. This is because when the predictor variables are highly correlated, they share essentially the same information. Thus, together they may explain a great deal of the dependent variable, but may not individually contribute significantly to the model. Thus, the impact of multicollinearity is to reduce any individual independent variable's predictive power by the extent to which it is associated with the other independent variables. Checking for multicollinearity: In SPSS, it is possible to request the display of Tolerance and *Variance Inflation Factor* "VIF" values for each predictor as a check for multicollinearity. He also suggested that less 10 value of the VIF deals with non-multicollinearity. The obtained results also advocates the absence of multicollinearity in the data of the study.

To avoid the tendency of multicollinearity, the VIF values for the each variable was checked and it was found less than 10 in every case. This indicates that there is no presence of Multicollinearity in the data set of the study. Table No.4.1 and 4.2 represents the results of Multicollinearity, Normality, and Reliability.

Table 4.1 Normality, Reliability and Non-multicollinearity Coefficients.

N 366	Skev	wness	Kur	tosis	Croanbach alpha	VIF
Scale	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error		
OC	214	.128	.593	.254	.90	1.034
JS	.298	.128	.180	.254	.74	1.342
HCC	.353	.128	.334	.254	.86	1.235

(Source: Primary data, N (Number of participants) 366, SE-standard error, Variance Inflation Factors (VIF), significance level <0.05)

Table 4.2 Collinearity statistics (Tolerance and VIF)

Predictor Variable	Tolerance	VIF
AC1	.591	1.691
AC2	.615	1.626
AC3	429	2.331
AC4	.438 MNA NA KIMARY SIN	2.286
AC5	.450	2.222
AC6	.670	1.492
CC1	.778	1.285
CC2	.790 OF TECHN	1.266
CC3	.742	1.348
CC4	.785	1.274
CC5	.792	1.263
CC6	.678	1.475
NC1	.724	1.381
NC2	.791	1.265
NC3	.705	1.418
NC4	.806	1.241
NC5	.709	1.410
NC6	.676	1.479
Pay1	.550	1.820
Pay2	.728	1.374
Pay3	.677	1.476

Pay4	.496	2.017
Prm1	.561	1.782
Prm2	.505	1.980
Prm3	.535	1.867
Prm4	.514	1.947
Sup1	.540	1.850
Sup2	.503	1.988
Sup3	.555	1.802
Sup	.564	1.774
Ben1	.794	1.259
Ben2	.559	1.789
Ben3	.764	1.310
Ben4	.639	1.565
Rew1	.580	1.723
Rew2	.592	1.688
Rew3	.607	1.646
Rew4	545	1.835
Ope1	.486	2.057
Ope2	.679	1.473
Ope3	.659	1.518
Ope4	.565	1.771
Cow1	.687	1.455
Cow2	MA NA KIMAY.549	1.820
Cow3	.646	1.547
Cow4	.593	1.686
Wi1	.440	2.275
Wi2	.492	2.033
Wi3	.411	2.431
Wi4	.437	2.288
Com1	.463	2.158
Com2	.481	2.081
Com3	.601	1.663
Com4	.412	2.429

(Note: source primary data, 01 AC: Affective Commitment, CC: Continuance Commitment, NC: Normative Commitment, OC- Organizational Commitment, PRM: promotion, SUP: supervision, BEN: benefits, REW: Rewards, OPE: operating procedure, COW: Coworker, WIT: Work itself, COM: Communication, HCC: Human Capital Creation, JS: Job Satisfaction)

4.2.2 Linearity And Homoscedasticity of the Data

The presence of homoscedasticity in the data is checked using Scatter Plots. Ho (2006) explained homoscedasticity as "the assumption of equal variances between a pair of variables". Violation of this assumption can be detected by either residual plots or simple statistical tests. SPSS provides the Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance, which measures the equality of variance for a single pair of variables." It can be seen in the figure 4.1 and 4.2 that data fulfils this precondition of multivariate analysis.

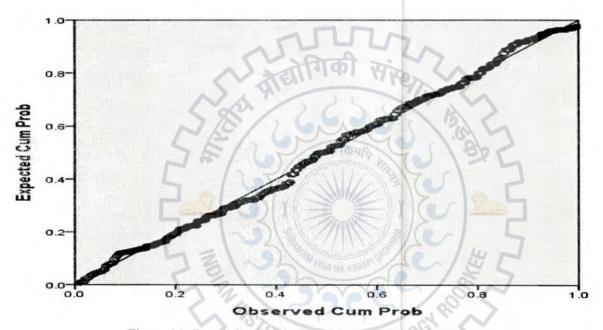


Figure 4.1: Regression Residuals plot between OC and HCC

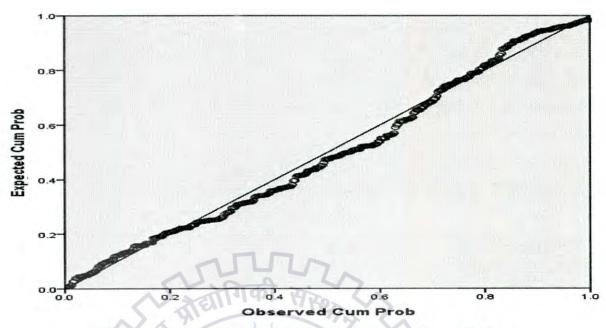


Figure 4.2: Regression Residuals plot between JS and HCC

4.3 FACTOR STRUCTURE OF THE INSTRUMENTS

4.3.1 Factors Structure of Human Capital Creation Scale

In order to confirm original factor structure for HCC, CFA was employed by using AMOS-21. The original factor structure has been explained in chapter 3. Results from CFA provide a moderate satisfactory fit statistic for the scale $\{\chi^2 \text{ (Chi-square)} = 970.459 \text{ and df } 440\}$, p > 0.01, CMIN/df = 2.3, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = .84, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .83, Tucker-Lewis Coefficient (TLI) = .82, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .063. Although it was an accepted model fit index, but to improve the model fit index 3 items (2 items from reward strategy (Rews4 and Rews5 and 1 item from perceived human capital creation (PHCC5)) have been eliminated due to low factor loading. After elimination of the said items model fit indices increased substantially $\{\chi^2 \text{ (Chi-square)} = 834.257 \text{ and df } 390\}$, p > 0.01, CMIN/df = 2.1, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = .87, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .85, Tucker-Lewis Coefficient (TLI) = .88, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .056. HCC scale with its factors loading has been explained the Table No. 4.3. And confirmatory model of HCC has been elaborated in Figure 4.3.

Results of factor analysis (CFA and EFA) validated the factors such as recruitment strategy, training, performance appraisal, career development and perceived human capital creation as the imperative elements of human capital creation in Indian context. The Obtained results were

aligned with the original factor structure of HCC (Birasnav and Rangnekar, 2009) with little divergences. Therefore, study data have confirmed the reliability and validity coefficients for human capital creation scale. In contrast to the earlier human capital studies, which had focused at the individual level (career development, employability and performance) and organizational level (knowledge management, abilities, tenure and investment) (Garavan et al., 2001), the present study gives special emphasis on the human resource practices (Ojha, 2013) leading to human capital creation. Existing literature also confirms the perspective that human resources practices can be applied to enhance the capabilities and competence of an individual (Lado and Wilson, 1994; Wright and Snell, 1991; Snell, 1992). Wright and Snell (1991) used a human resource (HR) model for development of competence. Lado and Wilson (1994) extended this perspective in their study and confirmed the magnitude of HR practices for competence development. These three studies have provided the base for the HR practices as the genesis for human capital. In order to confirm the contribution of HR practices Birasnav and Rangnekar (2009) conducted a factor analysis in Indian context and obtained observations supported the proposed factor structure (Birasnav and Rangnekar 2009). Inline to the past studies, the study observed HR practices as significant contributors for the competency development (Lado and Wilson, 1994; Wright and Snell, 1991; Snell, 1992). Moreover, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to confirm the factor structure of scale for the present study and with little deviation CFA confirms the generic of the measures.

The mean values of HCC scale items varied from 1.67 to 3.55 (Table 4.5). Items like money spent in selecting a talent in a given job (item 4), to what extent are your performance-related discussions useful? (Item 15) and the aspects used in my performance appraisal (item 18) also showed the high mean values. Therefore, recruitment strategy and performance appraisal are the prevailing HR practices that mostly contributes for the skill development in Indian organizations. Other items like career oriented workshops in your organization (item 19), authority and status (item 28) participation in a team which carries the high profile project (item 29) were found in the lower side. It represents career management practices and perceptions of human capital creation are squat in Indian organizations. These things are needed to be taken care into account for skill development of the employees.

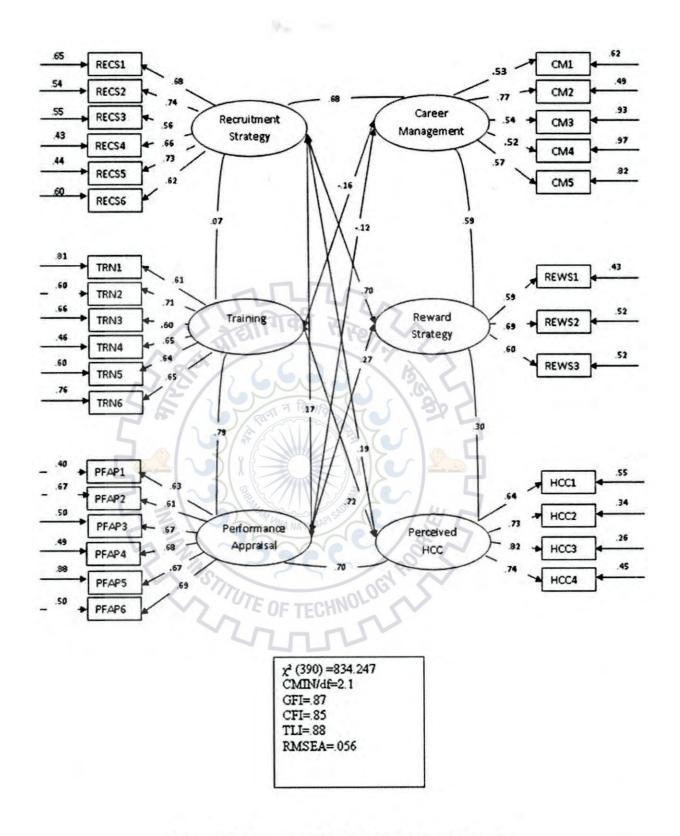


Figure 4.3: Measurement Model for Human Capital Creation

Table 4.3 Factor structure for HCC Scale

No.	Items	Factor	RC	CVC
		Recruitment Strategy		
HCC1	RECS1	Recruitment strategies attempt to	.86	.69
HCC2	RECS2	Creation of new job	.78	.74
HCC3	RECS3	How well developed recruitment	.76	.56
HCC4	RECS4	Generally, money spent	.59	.66
HCC5	RECS5	Selecting a best candidate	.72	.73
HCC6	RECS6	Time taken to select talents	.52	.62
Cronbach	alpha (α)	WELL WIS	.70)
	(1)	Training	A	
HCC7	TRN1	Organization sponsors employees	.80	.61
HCC8	TRN2	Availability of training facilities	.77	.71
HCC9	TRN3	I am very keen to attend	.80	.60
HCC10	TRN4	To gain knowledge & qualification	.83	.65
HCC11	TRN5	Appropriateness of the	.65	.64
HCC12	TRN6	Time spent on for a	.77	.65
Cronbach	ronbach alpha (α)		.76	
		Performance Management	,	
HCC13	PRAP1	I consider appraisal process	.55	.63
HCC14	PRAP2	On average in a year	.85	.61
HCC15	PRAP3	To what extent are	.77	.67
HCC16	PRAP4	Organization's performance	.81	.68
HCC17	PRAP5	Sources of collecting feedback	.82	.67
HCC18	PRAP6	The aspects used in my	.72	.69
Cronbach	alpha (α)		.74	1

		Career Management		
HCC19	CM1	How many different kinds of	63	
HCC20	CM2	To what extent do you	.61	.77
HCC21	СМЗ	To what extent you have	.45	.54
HCC22	CM4	How confident you are	.44	.52
HCC23	CM5	How often you inform	.62	.57
		Cronbach alpha (α)	.67	
		Reward Strategy		
HCC24	REWS1	To what extent the offered reward	.81	.59
HCC25	REWS2	Impact of reward on	.77	.69
HCC26	REWS3	How much importance given	.74	.60
	76	Cronbach alpha (α)	.76	
		Perceived Human Capital Creation		
HCC27	PHCC1	The return I give is more than	.54	.64
HCC28	PHCC2	Chances of considering me	.58	.73
HCC29	PHCC3	My authority and status	.71	.82
HCC30	PHCC4	Participation in a team	.79	.74
		Cronbach alpha (α)	.62	
		Cronbach alpha (α) for whole HCC scale	.86	

(Note: source primary data, RC reliability coefficient i.e. Cronbach alpha (α), CVC: Convergent, Validity coefficient, RECS- Recruitment Strategy, TRN- Training, PRAP-Performance Appraisal, CM- Career Management, REWS- Rewards Strategy, PHCC- Perceived Human Capital Creation.)

4.3.2 Factors Structure of Job Satisfaction Survey

In order to confirm the original factor structure for JS, CFA was employed by using AMOS-21. The primary factor structure has been explained in chapter 3. Results from CFA provides a moderately satisfactory fit statistic for the scale $\{\chi^2 \text{ (Chi-square)} = 938.430 \text{ and df } 558\}$, p > 0.01, CMIN/df =1.7, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = .82, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .83, Tucker-

Lewis Coefficient (TLI) =.82, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) =.067 has been obtained. After employing CFA few items which were having factor loading less than .50 were dropped (Janssens, 2008). To improve the model fit index, 5 items (1 item from promotion, 1 item from benefit, 1 item from operating procedure, 1 item from work itself, and 1 item from communication) has been eliminated. After the elimination of said items, results for model fit index were improved by $\{\chi^2 \text{ (Chi-square)} = 629.193 \text{ and df } 395\}$, p > 0.01, CMIN/df = 1.5, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = .90, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) =.90, Tucker-Lewis Coefficient (TLI) =.88, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) =.040. JS scale with its factors loading has been explained the Table no. 4.4. And confirmatory model of JS has been elaborated in Figure no. 4.4.

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was initially developed by Spector (1985) to measure the job satisfaction of the social service sector. At the initial stage, the scale has 36 items under 9 factors (Pay, Coworkers, Fringe Benefits Promotion, Supervision, Contingent Rewards, Operating Procedures, Nature of Work, and Communication). Even so, Spector (1997) refined the structure of the scale with the same patterns of items and factors. JSS has been used in numerous studies with original pattern and got significant academic acceptability. Instead of this acceptability, the statistical validity of the measure was not established. To fix this issue, we applied CFA on the scale. From the obtained, CFA results it has been proved that the scale has a sound association with it factor structure. The scale with some deviations has superior psychometric features and is vigorously able to measure the job satisfaction on its various facets. Our CFA confirms the consistency of original factor structure of Spector (1997). In continuation, reliability and validity measurements also uplift the significance of the scale. Therefore, after the little deviation factor structure with reduced items 36 to 31 under same 9 factors has been retained.

Pay, benefits and reward satisfaction measure the satisfaction level of an individual with respect to compensation structure of the organization. Supervisor and co-worker satisfaction reveals the satisfaction level of interpersonal relationship. Organizational policy's satisfaction can be measured by operating procedure and communication satisfaction. Promotional opportunities and work itself satisfaction advocates the attitude of the individual with respect to job autonomy (Spector, 1997). In the skill development, employee sentiments play an imperative part. And sentiments are linked with employees' satisfaction level. Job satisfaction with its various facets enhances the skill inventory of the organization.

The mean values for the job satisfaction scale varies from 1.67 to 4.25. Other items like: I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work do (Item1), I am unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me (Item 3), I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive. (R) (Item 13), There is too much bickering and fighting at work. (R) (Item 25) have obtained the maximum mean value. The results indicate that compensation and interpersonal satisfaction contribute most in job satisfaction of Indian managers that force them to work hard. However, satisfaction related operating procedure and communication found low. So, it can be interpreted that Indian organizations are needed to be liberal and more frequently communicative. These amendments will help Indian organization to fill the stock of human capital.

Table 4.4 Factor structure for JS Scale

No.	Items	Factor	Factor Loading	CVC	(a)
		Pay Satisfaction	36		.68
JS1	Pay1	I feel I am being paid	.74	.76	
JS2	Pay2	Raise are too	70	60	
JS3	Pay3	I am unappreciated by	.67	.76	
JS4	Pay4	I feel satisfied with	73	57	
		Promotion Satisfaction	47		.65
JS5	Prm1	There is really too little	.79	.71	
JS6	Prm3	People get ahead as	67	.56	
JS7	Prm4	I am satisfied with	.75	.67	
		Supervision Satisfaction			.73
JS8	Sup1	My supervisor is quite	.60	.64	
JS9	Sup2	My supervisor is	74	65	
JS10	Sup3	My supervisor shows	.79	.72	
JS11	Sup4	I like my supervisor	.69	.57	
		Benefits Satisfaction			.64
JS12	Ben1	I m not satisfied with	.59	.68	
JS13	Ben3	The benefit packages	.60	.50	
JS14	Ben4	There are benefits we	.69	.68	
		Rewards Satisfaction			.72
JS15	Rew1	When I do good job	.44	.60	
JS16	Rew2	I do not feel that the work	.51	.50	
JS17	Rew3	There are few rewards	.63	.53	
JS18	Rew4	I don't feel my efforts	.62	.51	

		Operating Procedure Satisfaction			.63
JS19	Ope1	Many of our rules and	.47	.80	
JS20	Ope2	My efforts to do a	.79	.69	
JS21	Ope3	I have too much	.78	.58	
		Co-worker Satisfaction			.76
JS22	Cow1	I like the people	.66	.57	
JS23	Cow2	I find I have to work harder at my job than	.78	.66	
JS24	Cow3	I enjoy my co-workers	.72	.67	
JS25	Cow4	There is too much bickering	74	65	
		Work itself Satisfaction			.68
JS26	Wit1	I sometimes feel	.74	72	
JS27	Wit2	I like doing the	72	54	
JS28	Wit3	I feel a sense of pride	.74	57	
		Communication Satisfaction			.70
JS29	Com1	Communication seems good	.85	.60	
JS30	Com3	I often feel that I do not	53	51	
JS31	Com4	Work assignments are	.79	.69	
		Cronbach alpha (a) for whole scale	.74		1/4

(Note: source primary data, RC reliability coefficient i.e. Cronbach alpha (α), CVC: Convergent,

Validity coefficient)

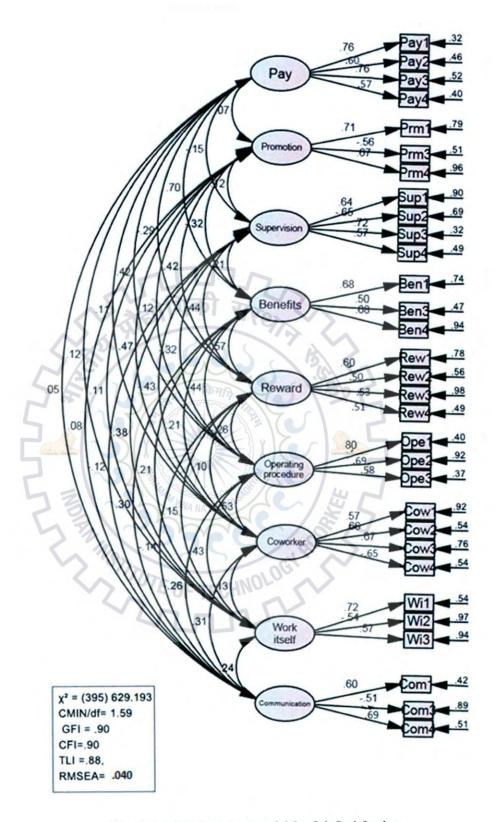


Figure 4.4: Measurement model for Job Satisfaction

4.3.3 Factors structure of Organizational Commitment Scale

As discussed in chapter 3 original factor of OC scale has been considered. CFA was employed to confirm the original factor structure of OC scale and the fit indices shows a good fit of the scale on the present data i.e. $\{\chi^2 \text{ (Chi-square)} = 371.459 \text{ and df } 171\}$, p>0.01, CMIN/DF=2.9, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = .90, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .91, Tucker-Lewis Coefficient (TLI) =.89, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) =.065. Results are reported in Table no. 4.5. And confirmatory model of OC has been elaborated in Figure 4.5. In order to measure employee's loyalty towards the organization, a scale consisting of 3 factors (affective, continuance and normative commitment) covering 18 items was used to collect the response from the participant. Allen and Meyer (1990) re-conceptualized the organizational commitment scale by surveying 500 employees of two manufacturing firms. The survey testing included 51 items, consisting of 15 items of organizational commitment scale by Mowday (1979). The initial instrument developed was of 24 items, but subsequent content redundancy by scholars reduced this scale from 24 to 18 items capping by 3 factors affective (emotional attachment), continuance (cost association while leaving of job) and normative commitment (bound by norms and obligation) (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Swailes (2002) also confirmed the 3 component factor structure of organizational commitment. OC scale is the most prominent instrument to measure employee commitment because this instrument measures organizational commitment on different parameters (Meyer & Allen, 2004). Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) categorized 18 items into 3 factors; affective commitment (item1 to item 6), continuance commitment (item7 to item 12) and normative commitment (item11 to item 18). Our CFA results confirmed the original factor structure of the instrument. Reliability and validity assessment of the scale supported the persistence of the instrument. Therefore, original factor structure and taxonomies of organizational commitment instrument have been retained. The mean values of the scale items vary from 2.50 to 3.70. Items like; I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization (item 1), I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own (item 2), I owe a great deal to my organization (item 18) have found with higher mean values. This indicates that in Indian context if the employee found his career progress in organization bound by some norms, then he is likely to show his commitment to the organization. On the other side, items such as: It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to (item 8), If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere (item11) and few negative consequences of leaving this organization

would be the scarcity of available alternatives (item 12) was found with low means values, indicates that some people stay with the organization because leaving cost is much more than staying. This also bounds employee with the organization.

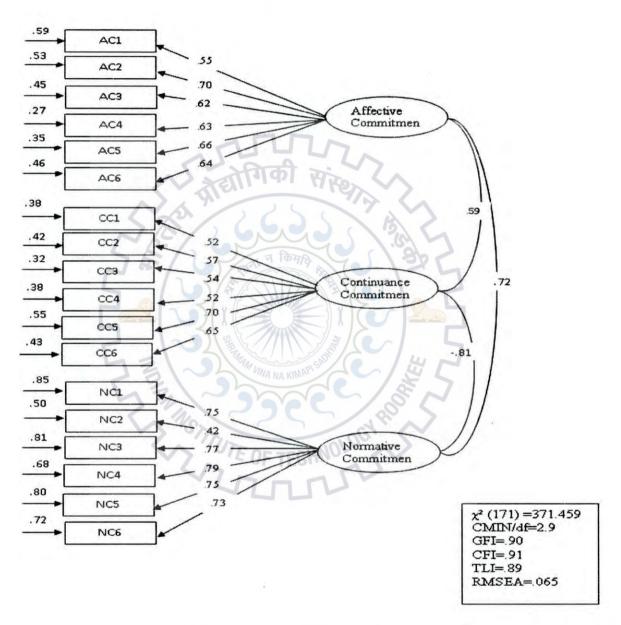


Figure 4.5: Measurement model for Organizational Commitment

Table 4.5 Factor structure for OC Scale

No.	Items	Factor	Factor Loading AC	Factor Loading CC	Factor Loading NC	CVC
		Affective Commitm				
OC1	AC1	I would be very happy to spend	.56			.55
OC2	AC2	I really feel as if this	.58			.70
OC3	AC3	I do not feel a strong	.55			.62
OC4	AC4	I do not feel "emotionally attached"	.58		4	.63
OC5	AC5	I do not feel like	.75			.66
OC6	AC6	This organization has a great	.78	2		.64
		Cronbach alpha (α)		.87		
		Continuance Commit	ment	13/1		
OC7	CC1	Right now, staying	THE	.54	2	.52
OC8	CC2	It would be very hard for me	TO SERVICE SER	.58	7	.57
OC9	CC3	Too much of my life		.60	4	.54
OC10	CC4	I feel that I have too few	Self-Re	C.41	7	.52
OC11	CC5	If I had not already put	CIMARY	.66	5	.70
OC12	CC6	One of the few negative	55	.64	>	.65
		Cronbach alpha (α)	ECHNOL	.86		
		Normative Commitm	nent			
OC13	NC1	I do not feel any obligation			.72	.75
OC14	NC2	Even if it were to my advantage			.59	.42
OC15	NC3	I would feel guilty if			.73	.77
OC16	NC4	This organization			.77	.79
OC17	NC5	I would not leave			.79	.75
OC18	NC6	I owe a great			.78	.73
		Cronbach alpha (α)		.79		1
	Cron	bach alpha (α) for whole scale		.90		

(Note: source primary data, reliability coefficient i.e. Cronbach alpha (α), CVC: Convergent, Validity coefficient)

4.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistic for all three scales HCC, JS and OC was calculated next. Mean score for HCC scale varies from 1.67 (lowest for HCC19 (CM1)) to 3.55 (highest for HCC17 (PFAP5)). In the JS scale it ranges from 1.67 lowest for JS30 (Com2) to 4.25 highest for JS3 (Pay 3). In the OC scale OC6 (AC6) secure the highest mean value 3.70 and OC12 (CC6) with a mean value 2.50 was found on lower side.

Table 4.6 Descriptive Statistics of HCC items

No.	Items	Min	Max	Mean	SD
HCC1	RECS1	1	5	2.17	.91
HCC2	RECS2	(1,)	5 13	2.92	.94
HCC3	RECS3		5 .0	2.33	.89
HCC4	RECS4	विसा व किमीव	5 3	3.20	.87
HCC5	RECS5	\$ 1	5	2.48	.96
HCC6	RECS6		4 5	2.81	.98
HCC7	TRN1	1	5	2.23	.96
HCC8	TRN2	1	5	2.87	.94
HCC9	TRN3	WWALVA KIMAPIS	5 / 5	2.29	.91
HCC10	TRN4		5 8	2.36	.89
HCC11	TRN5	775	5	2.82	.93
HCC12	TRN6	1	005	2.77	.98
HCC13	PFAP1	OFITECHN	5	2.28	.80
HCC14	PFAP2	Dhd	5	2.70	.93
HCC15	PFAP3	4 1	5	3.10	.95
HCC16	PFAP4	1	5	2.86	.95
HCC17	PFAP5	1	5	3.55	.95
HCC18	PFAP6	1	5	3.11	.97
HCC19	CM1	1	5	1.67	.90
HCC20	CM2	1	5	2.65	.96
HCC21	CM3	1	5	2.98	.92
HCC22	CM4	1	5	2.34	.93
HCC23	CM5	1	5	2.93	.95
HCC24	REWS1	1	5	2.34	.81
HCC25	REWS2	1	5	2.82	.99
HCC26	REWS3	1	5	2.65	.90

HCC27	PHCC1	1	5	2.74	.96
HCC28	PHCC2	1	5	2.18	.85
HCC29	PHCC3	. 1	5	2.20	.89
HCC30	PHCC4	1	5	2.38	.86

(Note: Source Primary Data, N=366, HCC1 to HCC30 are dimensions of HCC scale under 6 factors, SD Standard Deviation)

Table 4.7 Descriptive Statistics of JS items

No.	Items	Min	Max	Mean	SD
JS1	Pay1	1	5	4.13	1.01
JS2	Pay2	1	5	2.64	1.21
JS3	Pay3	1	निवर्ग क	4.25	1.05
JS4	Pay4	1-018	5	2.61	1.40
JS5	Prm1	\alpha\)	5550	2.29	.81
JS6	Prm3	7/21/7	5	2.69	1.07
JS7	Prm4	(1)	न किमार	2.75	.96
JS8	Sup1	1	5	2.54	1.35
JS9	Sup2	1 2/4	5	2.99	1.26
JS10	Sup3		5	3.52	1.20
JS11	Sup4	11) (9	5	3.36	1.35
JS12	Ben1	1	Man 5 08 5 101	3.92	.96
JS13	Ben3	2 1	NA NASCIMIN	4.06	.99
JS14	Ben4	1	55	3.98	.93
JS15	Rew1	To To	5	2.94	1.21
JS16	Rew2	(1)	FOR 5-CHN	2.16	1.26
JS17	Rew3	1	5 SEGM	2.40	1.23
JS18	Rew4	1	5	3.53	1.15
JS19	Ope1	1	5	3.52	1.01
JS20	Ope2	1	5	3.51	1.09
JS21	Ope3	1	5	3.61	.95
JS22	Cow1	1	5	3.45	1.17
JS23	Cow2	1	5	3.56	.97
JS24	Cow3	1	5	3.34	1.17
JS25	Cow4	1	5	3.98	.86
JS26	Wi1	1	5	3.64	1.06
JS27	Wi2	1	5	2.53	1.24
JS28	Wi3	1	5	3.32	1.18
JS29	Com1	1	5	2.34	.82

JS30	Com2	1	5	1.67	.90
JS31	Com3	1	5	2.65	1.10

(Note: Source Primary Data, N=366, JS1 to JS301 are dimensions of JS scale under 9 factors, SD Standard Deviation)

Table 4.8 Descriptive Statistics of OC items

No.	Items	Min	Max	Mean	SD
OC1	AC1	1	5	3.57	1.12
OC2	AC2	1	5	3.48	1.03
OC3	AC3	1	5	3.70	1.02
OC4	AC4	1	5	3.04	1.11
OC5	AC5	1	5	3.54	1.06
OC6	AC6	अविकी :	5	3.55	.99
OC7	CC1	SILLIA	5	2.58	1.23
OC8	CC2	525	5	2.80	1.11
OC9	CC3	G.P.	5	2.97	1.25
OC10	CC4	न किसक	5	3.24	1.05
OC11	CC5	1	5	2.67	1.11
OC12	CC6	\$ 1 P	3 5	2.50	1.12
OC13	NC1		5	3.24	1.12
OC14	NC2	£ 1	3 (5	2.68	1.24
OC15	NC3	Burn 1	5	3.31	1.07
OC16	NC4	1 NA KIMAR	5	2.94	1.07
OC17	NC5	1	5	3.12	1.06
OC18	NC6	15	.5	3.57	1.05

(Note: Source Primary Data, N=366, OC1 to OC18 are dimensions of OC scale under 3 factors, SD Standard Deviation)

4.5 Correlation among the Variables

Table 4.9 provides the correlation results between the independent variables (JS, OC) and their dimensions with the dependent variable (HCC). Correlation results were indicated that OC and JS (OC and HCC= .45** and JS and HCC= 44**, p<.01 two tailed) are positively and significantly associated with HCC. The correlation between JS and OC also found positive and significant (.55**). Further analysis has been conducted to explore the relationship JS and OC towards HCC. In additional analysis, association of dimensions of OC (AC .35*, CC .45**, NC .46**) and dimension of JS (pay .38* PRM .52**, SUP.23*,BEN .17: , REW .38**, OPE .18, COW .23**,WIT .25*, COM: .37**) also found significantly associated with HCC.

Table 4.9 Correlation Coefficient Results of Variables and Their Factors

	CC	NC	PAY	PRM	SUP	BEN	REW	OPE	COW	WIT	COM	HCC	OC	JS
AC	.24**	.49*	.37	.37	.44**	.29	.34	04	.28	.46*	.36*	.35*	.77*	.52*
CC	1	.38	.36	.30	.12	.18	.29	.25	.12	.20	.06	.45**	.71	.33
NC		1	.38	.45	.31	.07	.39**	08	.27	.39**	.08	.46**	.80**	.39**
PAY			1	.43	.39	.31	.29	.09	.19	.36	.23	.38*	.48**	.58**
PRM				1	.44	.25	.34**	.13	.25	.39	.23	.52**	.49*	.64**
SUP					1	.27	.35*	05	.37	.48	.41	.23*	.36*	.68**
BEN						1	.30**	.28	.29	,26	.23	.17*	.21	.61**
REW							P	.32	.25	.27	.22	.38**	.39**	.61**
OPE					1	1	TC.	I,	.17	09	04	.18	.07	.31*
COW					72	-	76		90	.39**	.33**	.23*	.27**	.59**
WIT			7		1	1	7/20	ता न पि	4119	Fi	.51	.25*	.23**	.67*
СОМ				5		V	1 5		13	1	<i>f</i> 1	.37*	.40**	.60*
HCC					400	(A)	1			1	5	i	.45**	.44**
OC				E		J.	SERVE		, Die	1	1	4	1	.55**
JS					3	1	5	VINA NA S	MAPISI		18	5		1

(Note source primary data, 2 tailed Pearson correlation coefficient, *p<0.05, **p<0.01 AC: Affective Commitment, CC: Continuance Commitment, NC: Normative Commitment, OC-Organizational Commitment, PRM: promotion, SUP: supervision, BEN: benefits, REW: Rewards, OPE: operating procedure, COW: Coworker, WIT: Work itself, COM: Communication, HCC: Human Capital Creation, JS: Job Satisfaction).

4.6 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE ONE

Objective one of the present study is to examine the HCC in organization respect to demographic variable (gender, education, age and experience). For the accomplishment of the objective, four hypotheses have been formed. Results of tested hypotheses are:

Table 4.10
Independent sample t test and One way ANOVA (IV: Gender, Education, Age and Experience, DV: Human Capital Creation)

Hypothesis 1a			Independe	nt sample	t test		
Gender	N	Mean	SE Mea	ın	t value	Df	P value
Male	315	2.63	1.62		032	364	.952
Female	51	2.60	1.56				
Hypothesis 1b			Independen	t sample t	test		
Education	N	Mean	SE Mea	lean t value Df		Df	P value
UG	180	2.60	.81	.81		364	.622
PG	186	2.71	190 .77	Kon V			
Hypothesis 1c		S) All	One way A	NOVA	4		
Age	N	Mean	SE Mean	f value	A S	Df	P value
<30	143	2.64	.93 Mg	.769	Between	Groups 2	.454
30-40	110	2.59	1.04	1	Within	Groups 363	
40 above	113	2.65	.95	1	Total	365	
Hypothesis 1d		3) (§	One way A	NOVA		1	
Experience	N	Mean	SE Mean	f value	WE	Df	P value
0-8	159	2.61	.86	.228	Between	Groups 2	.796
8-16	109	2.62	1.04	OCHPI	Within		
16 above	98	2.64	E 0 1.05 CHN	OFFICE	Total	365	

(Source Primary Data, SE Standard Error, df Degree of Freedom, p*<0.05)

4.6.1 Hypothesis 1a

Hypothesis 1a was framed to analyze the perception of male and female towards HCC. It was proposed in hypothesis that male and female perceives HCC differently. Independent sample t test has been used to test this hypothesis. The results are presented in Table 4.10, the mean score for HCC for male was 2.63 and that for female was 2.60. To compare the mean and find out the variances in the perception of male and female employees, Levene's test for equality variance was employed by using SPSS 20. Levene's test found insignificant differences between the male and female groups. p .952 (p > 0.05) and insignificant difference was found between the mean

values of male and female participants (t (364) -.032, p .954 > 0.05). Therefore, Levene's test of variance was insignificant at $p \le .05$ level and perceptual homogeneity of male and female employees cannot be violated. Hence, Levene's test of variance was not varied at $p \le .05$, and we do not have enough evidence to accept the hypothesis. Thus hypothesis 1a of the study was not supported by the findings of the study.

Hypothesis 1a of the study was proposed to identify the variation in gender-based perception for human capital. Studies on gender variations for human capital have always supported the significant difference, due to perceptual and preferential differences. For example, men were found to show lower preference for risk-taking and challenging job and women were found to opposite this notion (Buttner and Moore, 1997; Sexton and Bowman-Upton, 1990). Some other researchers found that women with job oriented attitude and men were found with businessoriented mental setup (Carter et al., 1997; Carter et al., 2003: Gatewood et al., 1995). Findings of the present study have not revealed any variation in perception of male and female with respect to human capital creation. Our finding was contrary with the exiting studies which proposed that there was a gender wise significant difference exists in creation of human capital (Aldrich, 1989; Manolova et al., 2007). Female personal, social and professional experiences have played an imperative role in these gender differences (Koeber and Wright, 2006). However, finding of the study is in alignment with the previous studies, which confirm the similarity in the manly and womanly perceptions (Friedman, 1988; Williams, 1988). They furthermore proposed that if there is no variation in the perception of male or female, this is a matter of moment, milieu and circumstances.

4.6.2 Hypothesis 1b

Hypothesis 1b was framed to analyze the perception of under graduate (UG) and post graduate (PG) employees toward HCC. It was proposed in hypothesis that UG and PG employees perceive HCC differently. Independent sample t test has been used to test this hypothesis. The results are presented in Table Table 4.10. The mean score for HCC of UG employees was 2.60 and that for PG employees was 2.60. To compare the mean and find out the variances in the perception of UG and PG employees, Levene's test for equality variance was employed by using SPSS 20. And Levene's test was found insignificant differences between the UG and PG group. p .622 (p > 0.05). There was insignificant difference was found between the mean values of UG and PG

participants (t (364) -.241, p .622 > 0.05). Therefore, Levene's test of variance was insignificant at $p \le .05$ level and perceptual homogeneity of UG and PG employees cannot be violated. Hence, Levene's test of variance was not varied at $p \le .05$ and then we do not have any sufficient evidence to accept the hypothesis. Thus hypothesis 1b of the study was not supported by findings of the study.

Hypothesis 1b was framed to analyze the perceptual variance of under and post graduate employees for the human capital creation. Although a significant effect of education was found on the human capital creation study conducted by Lochner and Moretti (2004). Their finding suggested that education stabilized the behaviour of a human that boosted the productivity of employees. Higher educational level encouraged employees to participate in the organizational decision making (Friedman 1963). Barro and Lee (1993) support the decisive role of education for human capital and also find the difference in the attitude of under and post graduate employees. Krueger and Lindahl (2000) supported the imperativeness of educational effects. Our finding proposed similar perception of under and post graduate employees. Our findings are contradictory with previous findings, which have proposed substantial benefits of the education for under and postgraduate employees (Acemoglu and Angrist, 2000; Moretti 2003, 2004). Extant literature also confirms the spill over effects of the education (Liu, 2008; Muravyev, 2008) Indian context studies also confirm that expansion of education creates an impact on the human capital (Tilak, 2002; Shri Prakash and Chowdhury, 1994) But in the contradiction of all above discussed studies, Pradhan (2002) found a fascinating results of the study, which has proposed no change in the human capital perception due to educational expansion effect. The above findings are in the alignment of present study.

4.6.3 Hypothesis 1c

Hypothesis 1c was framed to analyze the HCC on the basis of age. One way ANOVA was employed to investigate the difference in the (<30, 30-40 and 40 above) age groups. Results are presented in the Table Table 4.10 mean scores for <30, 30-40 and 40 above were 2.64, 2.59 and 2.65 respectively and p value obtained found to be insignificant hence results were not supported the hypothesis p .454 (p>.05). Results obtained from the analysis stated that there is no increment in human capital as age increases.

Hypothesis 1c was framed on the extant literature which has proposed significant difference in the age group with respected to human capital. In the table Table 4.10, it can be seen that age group >40 scores the highest mean value. However, our finding of the study did not support the proposed hypothesis and analysis projected no significant variation in the constructed age groups. Our finding contradicts with the previous studies like Guest and Shacklock (2005) and Skirbekk (2005) which projected difference in the age groups. For example, manager reported that younger employees were having better vision, cognitive processing, endurance, intellectual ability and adaptability. While aged employees were good in decision making, managing, judgement and loyalty. The whole notion supported that as the age increases the attitude, personality, perception and cognitive ability differ from the younger employees. McGoldrick (1996) and Taylor and Walker (1994) reported the difference in the different age group. Wooden and VandenHeuvel (1997) and Lucich (1997) have found strong association of age and human capital creation. They concluded that age increases the cognitive ability as well as experience; this contributes for the organizational and individual productivity. In the recent study, Ng and Feldman (2013) also proposed positive strong effect of age on employee productivity. In the support of our finding Barron et al. (1994) stated in terms human capital creation age group does not vary, due after a long tenure with same organization, individual likely to gain some frustration. This frustration demolishes his/her productivity.

4.6.4 Hypothesis 1d

Hypothesis 1d indicated that experience enhances the HCC, projected that as the experience increases HCC is also increases. One way ANOVA was employed to investigate the difference in the 0-8, 8-16 and 16 above experience group. Results are presented in the Table Table 4.10, the mean scores for 0-8, 8-16 and 16 above were 2.61, 2.62 and 2.64 respectively and obtained p value was found to be insignificant hence results are not supported the hypothesis, p .796 (p>.05). Results obtained from the analysis stated that there was no increase in human capital as experience increases.

Hypothesis 1d was proposed to analyse the difference among various experience groups. Findings depicted that no significant difference exists among the experience groups of the employees. Extant literature demonstrated that experience like other factors; demographic and job factor, influences the human capital creation (Borghans and de Grip, 2000; Hartog, 2000b). Another researcher has accentuated the same concept (Hartog, 2000a). In general, an expert

employee is called as the human capital of the organization. Organizational expertise comes from the experience and as proposed by few authors, experience was found to be a significant factor for the creation of human capital. However, our finding contradicts with prior findings and aligning with Leuven et al. (1998) finding. Their finding illustrates that schooling and experience does not influence the human capital creation. To discuss these findings in the Indian context, we can say that experience needs to be industry specific then only it enables an employee to increase the efficiency of individual and organization. Non industry experience does not allow any employee to be settled in any organization. By the above discussion, it can be represented that demographic variables play an important role in the creation of human capital. However, our statistical finding does not support any of the proposed hypotheses. This maybe controlled by contextual factors that enable demographic variables to contribute for human capital creation.

4.7 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE TWO

Objective two of the present study is to examine the JS in Indian organizations respect to demographic variables (gender, education, age and experience). For the accomplishment of the objective, four hypotheses have been formed. Results of tested hypotheses are:

4.7.1 Hypothesis 2a

Hypothesis 2a was framed to analyze the perception of male and female towards JS. It was proposed in hypothesis that male and female perceives JS differently. Independent sample t-test has been used to test this hypothesis. The results are presented in Table 4.11, the mean score for HCC for male was 3.16 and that for female was 3.14. To compare the mean and find out the variance in the perception of male and female employees, Levene's test for equality variance was employed by using SPSS 20. And Levene's test was found insignificant differences between the male and female group. p. 820 (p > 0.05). There was insignificant difference found between the mean values of male and female participants (t (364), .358, p.820 > 0.05). Therefore, Levene's test of variance was found insignificant at $p \le .05$ level and perceptual homogeneity of male and female employees cannot be violated. Hence, Levene's test of variance was not varied at $p \le .05$, then there was insufficient evidence to accept the hypothesis. Thus hypothesis 2a of the study was not supported by finding of the study.

Table 4.11
Independent sample t test and One way ANOVA (IV: Gender, Education, Age and Experience, DV: Job Satisfaction)

Hypothesis 2a			Independent	sample t	test		
Gender	N	Mean	SE Mean	t value	Df	P value	
Male	315	3.16	.94	.358	364	.820	
Female	51	3.14	.41				
Hypothesis 2b	5===	I	ndependent	sample t te	est		
Education	N	Mean	SE Mean	t value	Df	P value	
UG	180	3.13	.55	-1.48	364	.882	
PG	186	3.17	.52	गका ।	Re S		
Hypothesis 2c		No	One way A	NOVA	NA NA		
Age	N	Mean	SE Mean	f value	Df	P value	
<30	143	3.13	.61	1.223	Between Groups 2	.295	
30-40	110	3.14	.65		Within Groups 363		
40 above	113	3.18	.71		Total 365		
Hypothesis 2d		E =	One way A	NOVA			
Experience	N	Mean	SE Mean	f value	Df	P value	
0-8	159	3.15	57	.728	Between Groups 2	.483	
8-16	109	3.14	.65	OF TECH	Within Groups 363		
16 above	98	3.17	.79		Total 365		

(Source Primary Data, SE Standard Error, df Degree of Freedom, p*<0.05)

Hypothesis 2a was proposed that gender caused the variation in job satisfaction. To explain this variation, we can assume two probable justifications. One is man and woman has dissimilar individual and work characteristics; another is selective bias (Sanz de Galdeano 2002). A group of studies on gender differences postulates that female employee is more satisfied than male employees (Bender and Heywood 2006, Kaiser 2007, Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza 2003, 2007). Instead, they are receiving fewer promotional opportunities, lesser wages rate and suffering from workplace complexity wages (Blau and Kahn 2006, Booth et al., 2005; Welsh 1999). Reasons for this conception are that female employees are having fewer expectations than male employees;

whatever they received from the workplace they feel satisfied with that (Clark 1997; Sloane and Williams; 2000). On the contrary side, a number of studies posited the male community with higher level of satisfaction (Fiorentino 1999; Hagedorn 1996, 1998). Ward and Sloane (2001) have found that male higher satisfaction levels are high. Bender and Heywood (2006) furthermore provided the support for the same concept. Mora and Ferreri-I-Carbonell (2009) conducted a study on gender difference related to job satisfaction. Their study favours the male in terms of higher level of job satisfaction. Considering the above discussion, we have furthermore framed the hypothesis to test the gender differences for job satisfaction. The obtained results from the analysis found no significant difference in the perception of male and female employees with respect to job satisfaction. Our study results are contradictory with existing studies (Dalton and Marcis, 1987; Oshagbemi 1997, 2001) where they found significant difference between male and female employee's perception. Nevertheless, obtained results from our study is aligning with a number of studies, which have found no difference in the perception of male and female employees in terms of job satisfaction (Donohue and Heywood, 2004; Long, 2005). Recent literature also supported that proposed hypotheses.

4.7.2 Hypothesis 2b

Hypothesis 2b was framed to analyze the perception of under graduate (UG) and post graduate (PG) employees toward JS. It was proposed in hypothesis that UG and PG employees perceive JS differently. Independent sample t test has been used to test this hypothesis. The results are presented in Table 4.11, the mean score for JS of UG employees was 3.13 and that for PG employees was 3.17. To compare the mean and find out the variances in the perception of UG and PG employees, Levene's test for equality variance was employed by using SPSS 20. Levene's test was found insignificant differences between the UG and PG groups, p .882 (p > 0.05). Insignificant difference was found between the mean values of UG and PG participants (t (364) -1.48, p .882 > 0.05). Therefore, Levene's test of variance was insignificant at $p \le .05$ level, and perceptual homogeneity of UG and PG employees cannot be violated. Hence, Levene's test of variance was not varied at $p \le .05$ and we do not have any sufficient evidence to accept the hypotheses. Thus hypothesis 2b of the study was not supported by finding of the study.

Hypothesis 2b proposed the perception of job satisfaction in terms of education level. Although a number of studies proposed some mixed results for the above perception. Some authors

proposed that the educational level increased job satisfaction (Burris, 1983; Glenn and Weaver, 1982; Hall, 1994) while the other proposed the opposite to it, by depicting as the level of education decreases the job satisfaction increases (Clark, 1999; Grund and Sliwka, 2005; Oswald, 1996). This is due to high level of inspirations, which are associated with high level of education (Sliwka, 2005). Obtained results from the analysis found no significant differences in the perception of under and post graduate employees. Although our study did not support the proposed hypothesis but few studies like, (Brown and McIntosh, 1998; Clark and Oswald, 1996; Gazioglu and Tansel, 2006; Hartog and Oosterbek, 1998; Verhofstadt, et al. 2007) empirically supported the study results. The probable explanation for this may be the Indian origin employee might be focusing more on skill rather higher level of education.

4.7.3 Hypothesis 2c

Hypothesis 2c was framed to analyze the JS on the basis of age. One way ANOVA was employed to investigate the difference in the (<30, 30-40 and 40 above) age groups. Results are presented in the Table 4.11, mean score for <30, 30-40 and 40 above are 3.13, 3.14 and 3.18 respectively and p value obtained found to be insignificant, hence results are not supported by the hypothesis p .295 (p>.05). Results obtained from the analysis stated that there is no increase in satisfaction level of employee as age increases.

It is important to analyze the connection of job satisfaction and age of an employee due to widely accepted form of research. Existing studies have provided a conflicting outlay of the results on the said relationship due to different research methodologies and factors' inclusion in the job satisfaction (Kacmar and Ferris, 1989). Herzberg et al. (1957) in their study stated a U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction. It means that when a newcomer started his employment with high level of satisfaction due to conflict (Cahyono and Hartijasti, 2012), followed by dwindle and as age increases job satisfaction is also significantly increases. In addition, Warr (1992) and Clark et al. (1996) have founded U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction. Whereas, a number of studies found the direct relationship with age by stating aged employees were more satisfied than younger ones (Barber, 1980; Henderson, 1982; Garskof, 1984). The probable reason for this older employee became more familiar with organizational culture, policies and system. However, our obtained results state that there is no significant difference between the various age groups. Our results may not be aligning with the previous research finding. However, Davis (2002) and Lord and Farrington (2006) in their

research found no significant differences between various age groups and job satisfaction. Pook et al. (2003) and Sarker et al. (2003) also confirm the obtained results of the study. Hence, we can state that in today's competitive environment every age group employee needs to be perfect in his work and for this enhancement they always ask for more and more facilities. Therefore employee's perception does not differ with job satisfaction.

4.7.4 Hypothesis 2d

Hypothesis 2d indicated that experience enhances the JS, projected that as the experience increases JS also increases. One way ANOVA was employed to investigate the difference among the 0-8, 8-16 and 16 above, experience groups. Results are presented in the (Table 4.11), mean score for 0-8, 8-16 and 16 above experience are 3.15, 3.14 and 3.17 respectively and p value obtained found to be insignificant hence results do not support the hypothesis p .483 (p>.05). Results obtained from the analysis stated that there is no increase in job satisfaction as experience increases.

Demographic research upholds the subsequent studies on job satisfaction and experience (Bowditch and Buno, 1982; Hardman, 1996). Friesen et al. (1984) delineated a positive significant relationship between job satisfaction and experience. In continuation, Sodoma (2006) stated that as the level of experience increases succulently, job satisfaction furthermore increases. The researchers have posted higher level of job satisfaction in the group of 10-15 and 15 above years of experience. Eckman (2004) has provided support for the above relation by stating that prompt years of experience is indulged with conflict, so employee is less satisfied at primary year of job. Mack (2000) in addition provides the empirical support for the said relationship. Our obtained results of the study do not find any significant difference in the perception of experienced and less experienced employees with respect to job satisfaction. Our study results are contrary with above discussed studies but aligning with Schroder (2008), who has not found any significant difference in relation of experience and job satisfaction. The reason of perspective may be studies might be having different approaches to represent the proposed hypothesis. And situation and personality factor may influence the job satisfaction perspective. Other causes may be the recognition and rewards strategy, which might influence the perception of the experienced and less-experienced employees.

4.8 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE THREE

Objective three of the present study is to examine the OC in the organizations with respect to demographic variables (gender, education, age and experience). For the accomplishment of the objective, four hypotheses have been framed. Results of tested hypotheses are:

Table 4.12
Independent sample t test and One way ANOVA (IV: Gender, Education, Age and Experience, DV: Organisational Commitment)

TT 41 1 2	77.		, ,		(Commitment)	
Hypothesis 3	a		Independe	ent sample	t test	
Gender	N	Mean	SE Mean	t value	Df	P value
Male	315	3.11	.93	598	364	.535
Female	51	3.14	.36	त्रिगक	HKon W	
Hypothesis 3	3b		Independer	nt sample	t test	
Education	N	Mean	SE Mean	t value	Df .	P value
UG	180	3.13	.51	211	364	.180
PG	186	3.14	.43		3/00/	
Hypothesis 3	3c		One wa	y ANOVA		
Age	N	Mean	SE Mean	f value	Df Lu	P value
<30	143	3.10	.48	1.686	Between Groups 2	.187
30-40	110	3.13	.63	23	Within Groups 363	
40 above	113	3.18	.66		Total 365	
Hypothesis 3	3d		One wa	y ANOVA	ECHNOC	
Experience	N	Mean	SE Mean	f value	Df	P value
0-8	159	3.10	.46	1.030	Between Groups	2 .358
8-16	109	3.16	.70		1	53
16 above	98	3.15	.63			65

(Source Primary Data, SE Standard Error, df Degree of Freedom, p*<0.05)

4.8.1 Hypothesis 3a

Hypothesis 3a was framed to analyze the perception of male and female towards OC. It was proposed in hypothesis that male and female perceives OC differently. Independent sample t test has been used to test this hypothesis. The results are presented in Table 4.12, the mean score for

HCC for male was 3.11 and that for female was 3.14. To compare the mean and find out the variance in the perception of male and female employees, Levene's test for equality variance was employed by using SPSS 20. Levene's test was found insignificant differences in the male and female group, p .535 (p > 0.05). Insignificant difference was found between the mean values of male and female participants (t (364), -.598, p .535 > 0.05). Therefore, Levene's test of variance was insignificant at $p \le .05$ level and perceptual homogeneity of male and female employees cannot be violated. Hence, Levene's test of variance was not varied at $p \le .05$ and do not have any sufficient evidence to accept the hypothesis. Thus hypothesis 3a of the study was not supported by finding of the study.

Table 4.12 presented the mean difference of the male and female for organizational commitment. The comparison of the mean of manly and womanly subjects in t-test found at the .535(p>.05) level of significance. This indicated that there is no ensuing difference in the perception of male and female with organizational commitment, although there are numerous studies exist which have proposed a consequential relationship of gender and organizational commitment (Cohen, 1994; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Scandura and Lankau, 1997; Angel and Perry, 1986; Mortaz, 1981). Our finding of the study is contrary to other studies which also proposed significance of said relationship. Our finding contradicts the views of previous studies (Cidars et al. 2003; Gautam et al. 2004; Karakus and Aslan, 2009; Mirzamohammadi and Abdolmaleki, 2007) which indicate that there are significant differences exist between the male and female employees for organizational commitment. However, besides all contradictions findings were aligned with Eskandaricharati et al. (2009), indicating that there is no difference in the gender perception for organizational commitment, due to inequality redundancy for the female employees in the perception of organizations, society and individuals.

4.8.2 Hypothesis 3b

Hypothesis 3b was framed to analyze the perception of under graduate (UG) and post graduate (PG) employees toward OC. It was proposed in hypothesis that UG and PG employees perceive OC differently. Independent sample t test has been used to test this hypothesis. The results are presented in 4.12, the mean score for OC of UG employees was 3.13 and that for PG employees was 3.14. To compare the mean and find out the variances in the perception of UG and PG employees, Levene's test for equality variance was employed by using SPSS 20. And Levene's

test was found insignificant differences between the UG and PG group. p .182 (p > 0.05). There was insignificant difference was found between the mean values of UG and PG participants (t (364) -.211, p .182 > 0.05). Therefore, Levene's test of variance was insignificant at $p \le .05$ level, and perceptual homogeneity of UG and PG employees cannot be violated. Hence, Levene's test of variance was not varied at $p \le .05$ and do not have any sufficient evidence to accept the hypothesis. Thus hypothesis 3b of the study was not supported by finding of the study.

Hypothesis 3b was proposed to analyze perceptual difference of undergraduate and post postgraduate employee for organizational commitment. The results of the study have found insignificant differences in the perception of under and post postgraduate employee. Our study findings are contrary with existing studies, (Dornstei and Matalon, 1989; Imami, 2005; Mirzamohammadi and Abdolmaleki, 2008; Saki, 1994) which have proposed that significant difference exists in the perception of low and high educated employees (Gholipour and Rezaei, 2009; Rahimpour Ata Abadi, 2005; Sohrabi, 2005; Jafarzadeh, 2006; Shokri; 2008). The finding of the study is also in consistence with the Mathieu and Zajac (1990); March and Simon (1958) and Eshqi et al. (2011), which supported the proposed study hypothesis but contradicted to the findings of present study. The difference in the finding may be due to the cultural and time differences in the study. All the contrary studies have been conducted in different culture and time. So perception of under and post graduate employee may vary. Another explanation of this notion can be higher level of education stimulates with the high level of expectation and understanding. In the support of the current study, finding Hafezi (1998) and Tella (2003) empirically tested the proposed hypothesis and found no significant difference at the educational level for organizational commitment. Our finding is in consistence with existing studies, which also indicated no significant difference in educational level (Haqiri, 2010; Talebpour, 2002; Vahedi, 2001;).

4.8.3 Hypothesis 3c

Hypothesis 3c was framed to analyze the OC on the basis of age. One way ANOVA was employed to investigate the difference in the (<30, 30-40 and 40 above) age group. Results are presented in the Table 4.12, mean score for <30, 30-40 and 40 above are 3.10, 3.13 and 3.18 respectively and p value obtained found to be insignificant hence results are not supported the

hypothesis p .187 (p>.05). Results obtained from the analysis stated that there is no increase in commitment level of employee as age increases.

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Numerous studies proposed the significant association between age and organizational commitment (Aldag and Brief, 1975; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Shore et al., 1990; Steers, 1977; Stevens et al., 1978). All the above discussed studies concluded that as the age increases organizational commitment of the employee also increases. The relevance of the notion based on exchange theory, the more an employee has hoarded the organizational resource, the high level his/her organizational commitment delivered. McNeese-Smith (2000) in his paper also found aged employees with high level of commitment. Obtained results of the proposed hypothesis demonstrate no significant difference between the proposed age group. However, findings of the present study are in contrary with previous findings, which indicates that as the age increase commitment of an employee also increases (Chang, 2003; Eskandaricharati et al. 2009; Gautam et al. 2004; Mathieu and Zajac; 1990) due to high investment at workplace and social interaction that forces aged employee's loyalty for the organization. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) after analyzing two hundred studies concluded that, aged employees show more commitment rather than the younger ones, as the aged employees having fewer opportunities and high cost of leaving the organization. In the support of this above concept, Meyer and Allen (1997) also proposed the difference in diverse age groups of the employees. In contrary of above studies and support of findings of the present study (Hafezi, 1997; Putti et al., 1989; Saki, et al., 2009; 2010; Talebpour, 2001) proposed insignificant relationship between different age groups subjected to organizational commitment Jolideh and Yeshodhara (2009), Shokri (2007), Yaqoubi (2007) and Zaki (2004) have concluded no significant relation between age and organizational commitment

4.8.4 Hypothesis 3d

Hypothesis 3d indicated that experience enhances the OC, projected that as the experience increases OC also increases. One way ANOVA was employed to investigate the differences among the 0-8, 8-16 and 16 above, experience group. Results are presented in the table 4.12, mean score for 0-8, 8-16 and 16 above are 3.10, 3.16 and 3.15 respectively and p value obtained results were found to be insignificant hence results were not supported the hypothesis p .358

(p>.05). Results obtained from the analysis stated that there is no increment in OC as experience increases

Comparison of the mean scores of different experience groups of the employee, experience group of 8-16 years was indicating highest mean value. Finding of the study proposed that there is no consequential difference in the perception of experience groups of employees with respect to organizational commitment. Our finding was in contrary to the previous findings, which have proposed a relevant relation between experience and organizational commitment (Baron and Greenburg, 19; Eskandaricharati et al., 2009; March and Simon, 1958; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al. 1982). Meyer et al. (2002) also confirmed the significant relationship between experience and organizational commitment. More experienced employees tend to be more committed due to the number of investments made by them at the workplace. They ought to be with the organization because they want to (Jafarzadeh, 2005; Mathieu, 1991; Saki, 19; Sohrabi, 2004). However there are few studies available, which have not confirmed the relationship between experience and organizational commitment. Gholipour and Rezaei (2009-2010) have supported our study findings by obtaining insignificant similar perception of different age group. Hafezi (1998) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between year and experience and organizational commitment and results depicted no significance association. Our study results also align with existing studies like: Emami (2004) and Vahedi (2004) who moreover proposed no significant relationship between experience and organizational commitment.

4.9 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE FOUR

Objective four is the objective which the present thesis is all about. The whole thesis is based on the objective four, which proposed predictor functions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment towards human capital creation in select business organizations in India. Objective four was designed to investigate the JS and OC role on HCC. Stated objective includes two main hypothesis (4a, 4b) and twelve sub hypothesis (4a1 to 4a9 and 4b1 to 4b3). To test the hypothesis weather factors of JS: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, reward, operating procedure, work itself, co-worker and communication and factors of OC: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment have significant contribution on HCC while controlling the demographic variables: gender, education, marital status and experience a hierarchical regression was employed to obtain the results for the said hypothesis. To analyze the

predictor function of JS and OC functions, two separate hierarchical regressions were performed. To analyze the functions of JS on HCC, predictor variables were entered as following, step one: control variable (gender, education, marital status and experience), step two: steps one + pay, benefits and rewards, step three: step two + supervision and co worker, step four: step three + promotion and work itself, steps five: step four + operating procedure and communication.

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4.9.1 Hypothesis 4a and 4b

Hypothesis 4a and 4b was framed to analyze the contribution as independent factors (JS and OC) respectively. To obtain the total variance explained by JS and OC in the HCC the simple regression was employed. Results of the analysis were presented in Table 4.13. Results indicates that both independent factors JS (R².194, 440, 9.359, p<.001) and OC (R².203, 450, 9.272, p<.001) positively and significantly explained the variance in dependent variable. Thus empirical analysis of the study support the proposed hypothesis and hypothesis 4a and 4b is accepted for the present study.

Table 4.13 Results of Regression Analysis (IV: Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, DV Human Capital Creation)

IV	DV	R^2	Adjusted R ²	В	t value	Sig.
JS	HCC	.194	.192	.440**	9.359	.000
OC	HCC	.203	.201	.450**	9.272	.000

Note: (*p<0.05, **P<0.01, IV Independent Job Satisfaction, OC- Organizational Commitment, DV- Dependent Variable, HCC- Human Capital Creation. N=366, b Standardized beta Score)

4.9.2 Hypothesis 4a1 to 4a9

Results of hierarchical regression were presented in Table 4.14 stated that demographic variables explain only .06 (R^2 .006; f (4,361) .50, p > .005) percent contribution into dependent variable. In the second model after adding pay, benefits and rewards satisfaction into step 1 this contribution increased by 17.1 (R^2 .197; f (6,359) 13.723, p < .005) percent. In third model added the supervision and co-worker, also increased the contribution by 2 (R^2 .177; f (5,360) 15.509, p < .001) percent variance. Promotion and work itself were the additions in the model four (step 3₊ Promotion and work itself) also noted significant and increased R^2 by 6.2(R^2 .259; f (7,358) 17.895, p < .001). In the fifth model operating procedure and communication was added and total

variance explained by 26.2(R².262; f (8,357) 15.871, p <.001) percent. Thus hypothesis 4a1 to 4a9 has been accepted for the present study, which empirically proved the analysis.

Table 4.14 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis (PV: Factors Job Satisfaction, DV

Human Capital Creation)

	Human Capital Creation)							
	Predictors	Step 1 B	Step 2 B	Step 3 B	Step 4 B	Step 5 B		
1	Constant	2.646	5.917	6.494	6.313	6.769		
	Gender	009	.029	.032	.016	.326		
	Marital Status	.079	.073	.069	.074	1.280		
	Education	.028	.026	.025	.031	.620		
	Experience	026	.018	.011	037	694		
2	1+ pay, benefits and rewards	\$.419**	.370	.244	.543**		
3	2+ supervision and co- worker	16	#	.108*	036*	363**		
4	3+ promotion and work itself		I		.356**	.014		
5	4+ operating procedure and communication		TRANSMAN VINA NA KI	API SATINDE		.333**		
	F change	.501	15.509	13.723	17.895	15.871		
	Sig. F	.735	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	R ²	.006	.177	.197	.259	.262		
	Adjusted R ²	005	.166	.183	.245	.246		

Note: (*p<0.05, **P<0.01, PV Predictor Variable: pay, benefits, rewards, supervision, co-worker, promotion, work itself, operating procedure and communication and Dependent Variable HCC- human capital creation AC: Affective Commitment, CC: Continuance Commitment, NC: Normative commitment. N=366, b Standardized beta Score)

4.9.3 Hypothesis 4b1 to 4b3

Just like above analysis to check the functions of OC's dimensions on HCC, predictor variables were entered as following, step one: control variable (gender, education, marital status and experience), step two: step one + affective commitment, step three: step two + continuance commitment, step four: step three + normative commitment. Results of hierarchical regression

are presented in Table no 4.15. Analysis are presented in table stated that demographic variables gender, education, marital status and experience explain only 1.6 (R² .016; F (4, 361) .501, p >.05) percent variance in HCC. In the second, adds affective commitment into step one and variance increased to 2.6 (R² .026; F (5, 360) 1.956, p >.05) percent. After adding continuance commitment in the second model, variance significantly increased up to 22.7 (R² .227; F (6, 359) 17.557, p<.005) percent. Normative commitment adds into the forth model and which also increased the variance significantly by 10.1 percent (R² .328(7,358) 24.921 p<.005). The original model of OC significantly explained the HCC. The findings reveal an interesting pattern that the strength of association of AC, CC and NC with dependent variable increases (from .147** to .385**). Thus it was empirically proved in the analysis that OC factors significantly contributes in the HCC. So, hypotheses 4b1 to 4b3 have been accepted for the present study, which leads to the fulfilment of objective four.

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Table 4.15 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis (PV: Factors of Organizational Commitment, DV Human Capital Creation)

	Predictors	Step 1 B	Step 2 B	Step 3 B	Step 4 B
1	Constant	2.646	5.208	5.819	5.808
	Gender	009	.003	.079	.089
	Marital Status	VIII NA 1.079	.075	.067	.089
	Education	.028	.032	.064	.060
	Experience	026	050	052	062
2	1+ AC		.147**	.134**	130
3	2+ CC	OF TECHNO	10.	.470**	.363
4	3+ NC	OF TEOM			.385**
	F change	.501	1.956	17.557	24.921
	Sig. F	.735	.014	.000	.000
	R^2	.016	.026	.227	.328
	Adjusted R ²	.015	.013	.214	.313

Note: (*p<0.05, **P<0.01, PV Predictor Variable, AC: Affective Commitment, CC: Continuance Commitment, NC: Normative commitment. Dependent Variable HCC- Human Capital Creation, N=366, b Standardized beta Score)

Present study findings in Table No. 4.13, 4.14 and 4.15 highlighted the significant predictor functions of employee job attitude i.e. job satisfaction and organizational commitment. As expected, proposed study hypotheses dimensions of both the job satisfaction and organizational commitment, significantly contributed to the human capital creation. The findings of the study are in alignment with Bontis and Fitz-enz (2002) findings who also proposed job satisfaction and

commitment as prominent contributors to human capital. Novelty of our study can be seen, by the micro level investigation of the proposed objectives. So far till today the present relationship has not been explored in any context. That's why we have very less supportive evidences for the present study results. Instead of all, we have attempted this paradox in the Indian context. The obtained results of the study proposed positive and significant contribution of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment were considered as the main job attitude of the employees that contribute to employee productivity (Curme and Stefanec; 2007) and employee productivity, skills and abilities were considered as the sum of human capital. From the current industrial perspective, we can state that satisfaction and commitment are the most prevailing exercises in the Indian context. Indian origin employees are ready to contribute for the organisation on a high knot; but in return, expectations of job facilities are also high. Their commitment level is very much affected by organisational structure. Park (2013) especially has different viewpoints concerning the efficacy and effectiveness of smart work depending on the industries, characteristics of the work, etc. The demographic results of the study are also found at similar level. This eliminated the obstacle of the human capital creation in the organisation. If there is any insignificant relation exists for any demographic hypothesis then organisation need to deal with these issues and most of human capital creation time will go futile in there. On the organisational perspective they are ready to offer any amount of amenities to the employees for their productive contribution. At the end we only want to state that employee's sentiment should be take into consideration, as they are the major contributors for the organisational skill, strength and capability for gaining competitive advantage.

4.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

H1a: Male and female employees perceive HCC differently.	Not supported
H1b: Graduate and postgraduate employees perceive HCC differently.	Not supported
H1c: Different age group cause variation in HCC perception of employee.	Not supported
H1d: Experience level cause variation in HCC of employee.	Not supported
H2a: Male and female perceive JS differently.	Not supported
H2b: Graduate and postgraduate employee perceive JS differently.	Not supported
H2c: Different age group cause variation in JS perception of employee.	Not supported
H2d: Experience level cause variation in JS perception of employee.	Not supported
H3a: Male and female perceive OC differently.	Not supported
H3b: Graduate and postgraduate employee perceive OC differently.	Not supported
H3c: Different age group cause variation in OC perception of employee.	Not supported
H3d: Experience level causes in employee perception for OC of employee.	Not supported
H4a: job satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a1: pay satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a2: promotion satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a3: supervision satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a4: benefits satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a5: rewards satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a6: work itself satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a7: operating procedure satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a8: communication satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4a9: co-worker satisfaction significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4b: organizational commitment significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4b1: affective commitment significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4b2: normative commitment significantly predicts HCC	Supported
H4b3: continuance commitment significantly predicts HCC	Supported

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE SCOPE

The present chapter addresses the concluding remarks of the thesis based upon theoretical genesis, literature review, analysis and results of the study. The present chapter is divided into four parts; first part of the chapter discusses the concluding remarks and second part of the chapter presents the practical implications of the present study. The third and fourth part of the study discusses about the limitations and future scope of the study respectively.

5.1 CONCLUSION

The rationale behind the study is to explore the least explored predictors (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) of human capital creation in the Indian context. The current study started with the examination of theoretical genesis of study variables. In the continuation, second chapter (literature of review) presented related literature of the study variables and connection between dependent variable (Human capital creation) and independent variables (job satisfaction and organizational commitment). In the chapter three, based on literature review, a quantitative research design was proposed to answer the research questions. Subsequently, in chapter four, statistical analysis was performed on the obtained data. Obtained results by the analysis have presented mixed results for the proposed hypotheses. Analysis of the study clearly indicated that obtained results of the study were in favour of few hypotheses and contrary to this few hypotheses, which was not able to get supported by the analysis. Out of the supported hypotheses, results of the study clearly indicated that job satisfaction and organisational commitment as significant predictors of human capital creation.

First objective of the study, intended to examine human capital creation with respect to the demographic variables: gender, education, age and experience (Borsch-Supan, 2002). Findings of the study advocate that there is no significant difference exists in the perception of human capital creation among the male and female employees. The results of the perception of undergraduate and postgraduate employees were also inconsistence with the proposed hypothesis. Perception of age and young employees was also not varied with respect to human capital creation. In addition to this, there was insignificant difference exists in the perception of different experience groups of employees. Therefore it can be concluded that all the proposed hypotheses were not supported

by the analysis of the present study. This shows that the organizational and national culture affects the human capital creation.

From the obtained results, following conclusion can be stated:

- There is insignificant gender wise difference exists with respect to human capital creation.
- · Education does not have any effect on human capital creation in Indian context.
- · Employee age groups are found insignificant for the creation of human capital.
- There is no significant difference found between different experience groups and human capital creation.

Second objective of the study was framed to analyse the perception of employees, related to job satisfaction, based on demographic factors: gender, education, age and experience (Mott, 2000; Seston et al., 2009). For the achievement of the objective, we have proposed that demographic factors like gender, education, age and experience influence the employees with respect to job satisfaction. The obtained results denied the proposed hypotheses by indicating that there was insignificant difference exist between demographic variables perception and job satisfaction. Hence it can be concluded that in Indian context employee's satisfaction is more focused on the facets of job satisfaction rather demographic differences.

From the obtained results, following conclusion can be stated:

- Both female and male employees have equivalent job satisfaction perception.
- Educational level of the employees does not have any varied perception in terms of job satisfaction.
- Both age and experience groups are found insignificant with respect to job satisfaction perception.

The third objective examines the organizational commitment perception of employees with respect to demographic features like: gender, education, age and experience. Hypothesis 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d were proposed to analyse the demographic effects on organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997, Luthans, 1992). The results of the present study did not support the proposed hypotheses. However, female employees mean scores were found more than the male employees. Further, post graduate employees, mean score was found higher than the mean score of undergraduate employees but perception is not varied. Similar to the above trend the mean

difference of age groups and experience groups were found insignificant difference perception with respected to commitment. All the four proposed hypotheses were found to be insignificant results.

From the obtained results, following conclusion can be stated:

- Both male and female has equal organizational commitment perception.
- Organizational commitment does not vary corresponding to the educational level.
- Both age and experience group perception also does not vary with respect to organizational commitment.

Objective four intends to examine the predictor functions of the job satisfaction and organizational commitment towards human capital creation (Bontis and fitz, 2002, Mayo, 2000). Further, predictor functions of job satisfaction dimensions (William et al., 2002) and organizational commitment dimensions (Verkhohlyad and McLean, 2012) toward human capital creation was also analysed. To achieve the desired objective, all the twelve dimensions (Nine of job satisfaction and three of organizational commitment) were regressed with human capital creation by employing hierarchical regression analysis. Separately, two-time hierarchical regression analysis were used to analyse the predictive function of dimensions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. All the twelve dimensions have provided significant results, which indicates that: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, reward, operating procedure, work itself, co-worker, communication, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment contributes significantly towards human capital creation (Fields, 2002; Gomez-Mejia and Balkin, 1992; Harrison et al., 2006). To measure overall job satisfaction and organizational commitment contribution toward human capital creation, simple linear regression was employed. From the obtained results, it can be concluded that job satisfaction and organization commitment are the significant predictors of the human capital creation. Hence we can conclude that employees with high level of job satisfaction and commitment enhance the inventory of the skill and capabilities of the organizations. After analysing the objective four we have arrived to the following conclusion, which are as follows:

 Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have a positive and strong association with human capital creation.

- Pay, rewards and benefits satisfaction also have strong influence on human capital creation.
- Human capital creation can be significantly predicted by work itself and promotional
 opportunities within organization.
- Organizational communication system and operating procedure also influence the human capital creation.
- Interpersonal satisfaction like supervisor and co-worker satisfaction also influences human capital creation.
- Affective commitment significantly predicts human capital creation.
- Normative commitment has positive influence on human capital creation.

Conclusively, the present study demonstrated both job satisfaction and organizational commitment as a function of human capital creation. Job satisfaction creates favourable working environment that foster employees to enhance skills inventory within the organization. In the same manner, organizational commitment creates a sense of career development and belongingness to stay in organization. It also synergizes role occupants' ability by linking it with other members. This in turn contributes towards the creation of human capital.

5.2 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

India is the second the most populous country in the world, but it fails to create the talented pool of employees. Most of the talent is deployed or migrated to other nations for pursuing the employment. The major contribution of the current study is to focus on every single employee and provide opportunities. In order to identify the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and human capital creation in the Indian context a number of proposed ideas and concepts have been tested, analysed and explained in the present study. The findings of the study has come up with practical implications for managers and academicians.

Firstly, the present study comes up with reliable and validated questionnaires of Human capital Creation, Job satisfaction and organizational commitment in contemporary Indian context. This will benefit the managers and academicians in the evaluation of Human capital Creation, Job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The study will help in formulating the new policies

and alteration in old policies, particularly for human capital creation which is scarcely used practice in Indian and foreign context.

Secondly, the obtained results of the present study concluded that job satisfaction positively affects the human capital creation. Therefore, it is important for the organization to provide financial and non-monetary satisfaction for the employees to fill the pool of talented employees. The study suggests that compensation factors of satisfaction contribute more than other factors. It is prominent at organizations to implement a sound compensation package for the deserving candidates of the organization. Other factors such as interpersonal satisfaction, employee advancement and organizational policies implementation need to take care into account for creation of human capital in the organization. Pay stimulates an employee to work more, promotional advancement attached an employee with organization and facilities of the organization retain a talented employee for the long run. Hence is can be concluded that, diverse facets of job satisfaction, encourage an employee to perform in the more efficient and productive way. Therefore, to create human capital within organizations, top management needs to focus on different facets of job satisfaction.

Third, the present study also exhibits the importance of organizational commitment to the creation of human capital. Out of the three dimensions of organisational commitment, the first affective commitment psychologically bounds an employee with the organisation and this type of commitment retains the talent by providing them a shining future ahead. Secondly, continuance commitment bound the employees while balancing the cost of association in the separation. Third, the normative commitment retained the key employees with organization by norms and obligation. The result of the study suggests that loyalty of employees covering all aspects of loyalty and contributes to the pool of human capital. So, these arguments with significant results of the study proposed organizational commitment as a predictor of human capital creation. In order to make an employee an asset for the organization, top management should concentrate on the dimensions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They should know the imperativeness of the employees. The acknowledgment of the employees can make an organisation to gain competitive advantage over its rival firms.

Next finding of the study, exhibits the demographic impact on the study variables. These findings suggest that organization should understand the different causes of variations. Although obtained

results of our study do not support any proposed demographic hypothesis, but literature provided the base for variation in the proposed hypotheses. Present study, was not found any significant difference with respect to demographic features of participant, then top management can concentrate on the organizational development. In the Indian context, where females are having less exposure in skill enhancement, open minded women were considered as taboo. These perception need to be eliminated by organization fair rule and regulation, which do not support any gender base perception.

Further, the findings of the study, effectively contribute to the literature pool of study variables, i.e. human capital creation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The present study also enhances the number of antecedents of human capital creation. Obtained results and theoretical linkage of the study variables will help the researchers and academicians to understand the relationship of employee sentiments and human capital creation. The present study empirically established various facets like pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, reward, operating procedure, work itself, co-worker, communication, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment and their significant influence on creation of human capital. These results will help in future expansion of the dimensions.

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Just like other studies the presented study also not free from the limitations. The limitations for the present study are as follows:

• The obtained results of the study are based on cross sectional research design. Although it has been supported by the number of the studies that cross sectional research design help in the collection of the large number of data, but this design has the limitation in establishing relationship of causality. It can be argued that human capital is not only influenced by employee's sentiment (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) but there are other factors like: management leadership, knowledge management, employee performance, value alignment, education and experience, which also lead to the human capital creation.

- The present study focuses only on direct relationship of job satisfaction and organizational commitment towards human capital creation. Any moderating and mediating effect has not measured, this can be a limitation of the study.
- The present study has few numbers of feminine participants in comparison of male participants. This number difference made it difficult to draw inferences in the perception of the male and female participants with respect to the job satisfaction, human capital and organizational commitment. And due to this, insignificant difference has been found in the results of the study.
- The collected data were heterogeneous in nature, as no industry-specific data were collected. Organizational culture for manufacturing and service, public and private may be varied in understanding the scales items.
- A number of responses can be another limitation of the study. A large number of responses might be able to support the demographic hypothesis.
- The present study considered only the job attitude Behaviour in the creation of human capital. It might be possible that respondent provided the favourable answer to be in the safer side of the organization. The participant self-serving biasness is another limitation of the study.

5.4 FUTURE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

- The present study is based on cross sectional research design. Further, studies on the same topic can be conducted on longitudinal survey research design to achieve more favourable causality relationship.
- The present study is restricted to geographic location of the country that is north part of India.
 Further studies can be conducted on huge geographical area and substantial number of participants.
- Another important aspect is that many scales have been invented by researchers to examine
 the human capital creation; our study used the least used scale developed by Birasnav and
 Rangnekar (2009). Considering this notion another scale can be used to present the best
 human capital creation model for Indian context.
- The study exhibits the importance of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in predicting the human capital creation; more research is required to explore the direct and

indirect relationship of the study variables. As this is very less researched relationship in Indian context.

- Present study provides the scale validation of human capital creation scale by Birasnav and Rangnekar (2009). The outcome of the scale reinforces the conceptual background of the scale. This measure needs to be tested repeatedly.
- The future studies should focus on the equal number of male and female participants. So that perception of the male and female employees can be measured on ideal methodology bases.
- Lastly, the present studies open the new vistas for the future studies, stimulating human capital creation by the employee sentiments. Another factor like job characteristics, personal determinant factors can be considered for the further studies.

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter highlighted the concluding remarks, implications, limitations and future scope of the present study. The conclusion was drawn from the results and discussion and which were further based on the proposed study hypotheses. Research concluded that by enhancing job satisfaction and organizational commitment, human capital can be created within the organization. The implication of the study includes the contribution made by study for the organizational researchers and academicians. Limitations of the study include cross sectional study, limited geographic area, and industry specifications. Future scope of the study includes, conducting a longitudinal research design for proper understanding of causality relationship and further expansion of antecedents of dependent variable and consequents of independent variables will provide new vistas for the future research.

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APPENDIX-A

Dear Participant,

Thanks for being willing to take time to fill this questionnaire. The information provide here will be kept confidential and will be used for academic purpose .Please be open and honest in your response

ORGANISATIONAL Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1991, 1997)

AMMA

Name:	Organization:
Age:	Job Position:
Gender:	Experience in the present job:
Marital Status:	Total years of experience:
Education:	Email
58/2	न क्रिक

The following statements concern how you feel about the organisation where you work. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5.

5-- Strongly agree, 4—Agree, 3-- Neither agree nor disagree, 2—Disagree, 1—strongly disagree

Circle	Circle the number in appropriate column		disagree			Strongly agree		
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5		
2.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5		
3.	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5		
4.	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5		
5.	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5		
	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5		
7.	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5		
8.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5		
9.	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5		

10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.	(4)	2	3	4	5



APPENDIX B

Job Satisfaction Scale (Spector, 1997)

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from $1\ \mathrm{to}\ 5$

5—Agree very much, 4—Agree, 3-- Neither agree nor disagree, 2—Disagree, 1—Disagree very much

Circle the number in appropriate column		ree very	Agree very Much		
1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work do.		2	3	4	5
2. Raise are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am unappreciated by the organisation when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel satisfied with my chance for salary increase.	1	2	3	4	5
5. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	PI	2	3	4	5
7. People get ahead as fast here as they do in their places.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My supervisor is unfair to me.	, 1	2	3	4	5
11. My supervisor shows too little interest in feeling of subordinates.	17	2	3	4	4
12. I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	4
13. I m not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	4
14. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organisations offer.	1	2	3	4	3
15. The benefit packages we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	-
16. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	:
17. When I do good job, I receive the recognition for it that should receive.	1	2	3	4	4
18. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	:
19. There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	
20. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	,
Many of our rules and procedure make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	1
22. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	
23. I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	
24. I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	

25. I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I find I have to work harder at my job than I should because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I enjoy my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
28. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
33. My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Communication seems good within this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
35. The goals of this organisation are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organisation.	/1	2	3	4	5



APPENDIX C

Human Capital Creation Scale (Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2009)

Please indicate the extent of your response with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5

Circle the number in appropriate column					
Definitely true-5, Probably true-4, Do not know-3, Probably	false-2	, Defir	nitely fa	alse-1	
Recruitment strategies attempt to hold on to the best talent.	1	2	3	4	5
Organization sponsors employees to attend workshops and conferences.	1	2	3	4	5
To gain knowledge & qualification, organization sends employees to educational institutes.	1	2	3	4	5
I consider appraisal process as an opportunity to overcome my weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5
The return I give is more than what organization invested at me.	1	2	3	4	5
Greatly in existence-5, In existence-4, Not sure-3, Barely in a Creation of new job position for new talents Availability of training facilities to meet the requirements of many job.	1	2	3	4	5
my job	1	2	3	4	5
Offering best employee award	7.				
Completely-5, To a great extent-4,To some extent-3,To a lit How well developed recruitment strategies are able to attract	tle exte	nt-2, 1	Not at	all-1	5
	1				_
	1 /		3	4	_
I am very keen to attend training program.	1	2			5
TATAL TOTAL CONTROL OF THE CONTROL O	1	2	3	4	5
I am very keen to attend training program.	1	2	3	4	
I am very keen to attend training program. Appropriateness of the given training. A great deal-5, Quite a lot -4, A fair amount-3, A small amount-3, money spent in selecting a talent in a given job.	1 ount-2,	2	3	4	5
I am very keen to attend training program. Appropriateness of the given training. A great deal-5, Quite a lot -4, A fair amount-3, A small amount-3, money spent in selecting a talent in a given job. To what extent are your performance-related discussions useful?	1 ount-2,	2 Very	3 little-1	4	5
I am very keen to attend training program. Appropriateness of the given training. A great deal-5, Quite a lot -4, A fair amount-3, A small amount-3, money spent in selecting a talent in a given job. To what extent are your performance-related discussions useful? To what extent do you give importance to your career exploration?	1 ount-2,	2 Very	3 little-1	4	5 5
I am very keen to attend training program. Appropriateness of the given training. A great deal-5, Quite a lot -4, A fair amount-3, A small amount-3, money spent in selecting a talent in a given job. To what extent are your performance-related discussions useful? To what extent do you give importance to your career	1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1	2 Very 2 2	3 little-1 3 3	4 4	

Motivated you to participate in a team? How much importance given to reward your risk-taking? Very Important-5, Moderately Important-4, Somewhat Imp Not at all Important-1 Selecting a best candidate for a job is	1 oortan	2 t-5, Sli	3	4	5
Not at all Important-1 Selecting a best candidate for a job is	ortan	t-5, Sli			
			ghtly I	mport	ant-2
	1	2	3	4	5
Very long-5, Long-4, Fair-3, Short -2, Very short-1					
Time taken to select talents for critical & sensitive projects	1	2	3	4	5
Time spent on for a training program	1	2	3	4	5
Sources of collecting feedback about my performance in the organization are	1	2	3	4	5
Impact of reward on your competency	1	2	3	4	5
Chances of considering me as a future leader	1	2	3	4	5
My authority and status nowadays	2/1	2	3	4	5
Participation in a team which carries out high profile project	110	/2	3	4	5
Comparing last year, my earning in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
Always 5, Frequently-4, Sometimes-3, Rarely-2, Never-1 How often you inform superiors about your interests, skills, and accomplishments?	1	2	3	4	5
How often does top management appreciate your work on doing something new?	0100	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree-5, Agree-4, Neither agree nor disagree -3, Disa	gree-2	2,Stron	gly dis	agree-	1
On average in a year, organization appraises our performance more than once	1	2	3	4	5
Excellent-5, Very good -4, Good-3, Fair-2, Poor-1					
Organization's performance appraisal system is	1	2	3	4	5
Strongly relevant-5, Relevant-4, Undecided-3, Irrelevant-2, St	rongl	y irrele	evant-1		

Very many-5, Many-4, Moderate-3, Few-2, Very few-2					
How many different kinds of career oriented workshops you attended in your organization?	1	2	3	4	5



