

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE & JOB INVOLVEMENT AS PREDICTORS OF MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS

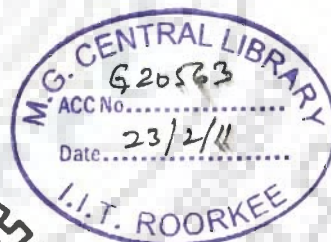
A THESIS

*Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of the degree*

of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
in
MANAGEMENT STUDIES

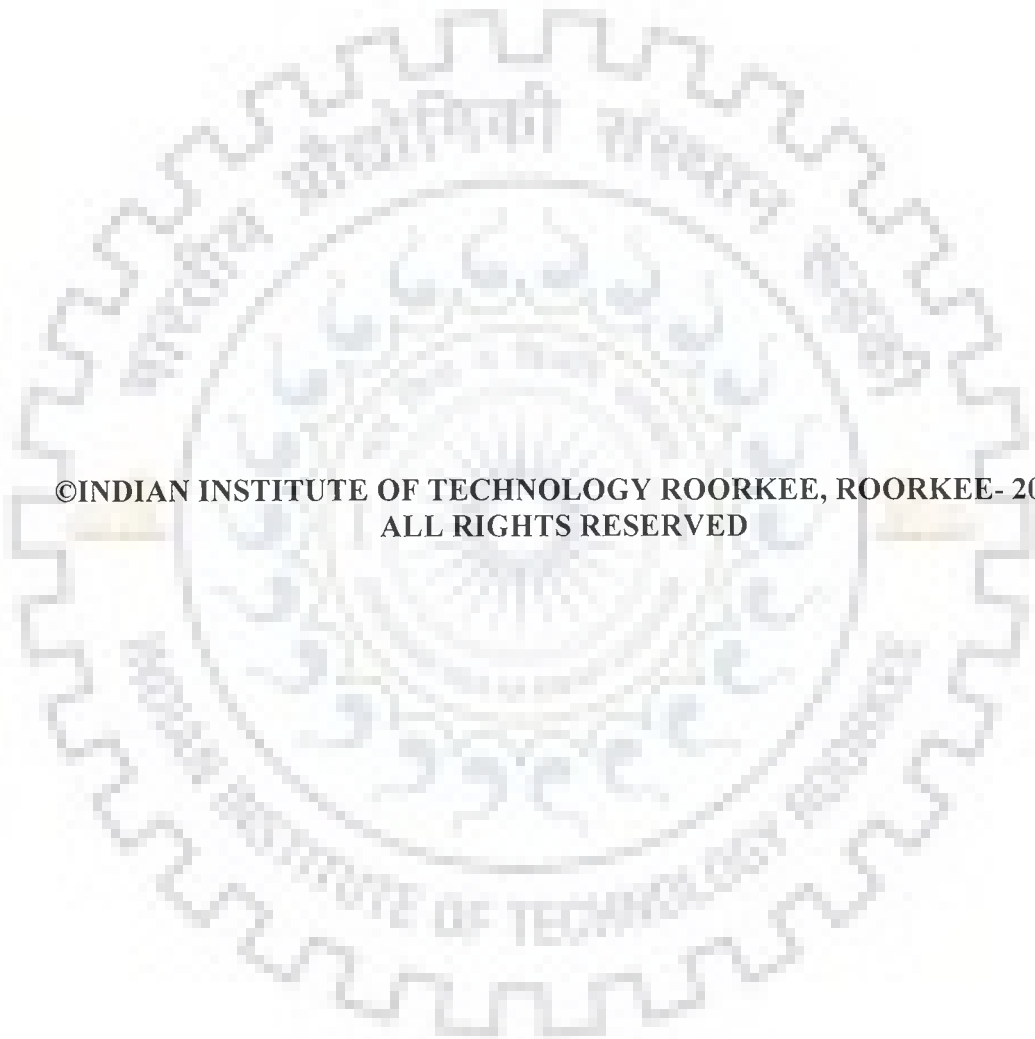
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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION**

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in this thesis entitled ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE & JOB INVOLVEMENT AS PREDICTORS OF MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee, is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from January 2007 to January 2010 under the supervision of Dr. Santosh Rangnekar, Associate Professor, Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee, India.

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.

(SHYAM NARAYAN)

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of my knowledge.

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The Ph.D. Viva-Voce Examination of **Shyam Narayan**, Research Scholar, has been held on 24.5.10.

Signature of Supervisor

Signature of External Examiner

ABSTRACT

The present study on “organizational culture and job involvement as predictors of managerial effectiveness” was taken up for the Indian organizations to explore the relationship of organizational culture and job involvement with managerial effectiveness. Managers are responsible for their subordinates’ performances. Employees are concerned with their own interests and benefits. Linkages between employees’ interest and organizational objectives are to be established by effective managers. The most important aspect which binds an employee to the organization is organizational culture. Managers regard their organizational culture as the most important asset and create an environment of facilitation to the employees. The present study has taken into consideration the factors of organizational culture namely – openness, confrontation, trust, authenticity, proaction, autonomy, collaboration and experimentation. In case of job involvement, the factors considered are job identification and job centrality. In managerial effectiveness, the factors considered are productivity, flexibility and adaptability. The independent variables i.e., organizational culture and job involvement were studied for their influence on managerial effectiveness as the dependent variable. The study is based on primary data collected from the select Indian organizations. Suggestions have been made on the basis of the obtained results. The cultural elements have shown the influence upon managerial effectiveness. Similarly, managers’ job involvement has influence upon managerial effectiveness. The independent variables were explained in the Indian context and their definitions, concepts and approaches were compared with those given by other researchers.

The Chapter 1 contains an exhaustive Introduction. The organizational culture is described in the context of definitions and types of organizational culture. National culture and its influence with respect to internal and external environmental changes are described. Individualism versus collectivism, role of society, organizational climate and environment has been reported. The job involvement has been studied with the help of definitions and concepts provided by different researchers. The relationship of job identification with job involvement has been explained as a significant phenomenon connecting with organizational culture and managerial effectiveness. The organizational goals and job involvement integration has been studied with an objective to understand perceptions of individual and organization. The relationship of job involvement with financial and non-financial incentives has been studied. The work environment, ergonomics and welfare practices were narrated. Job redesign strategies, impact of positive changes and motivation of employees were discussed in the context of job involvement and job satisfaction. The influence of HR practices like participative decision making, the shared values and goals on job involvement have been reported. The promotion opportunities, career planning and other related factors create job involvement intensity. Managerial effectiveness has been studied with an objective of it being a dependent variable of organizational culture and job involvement. The relationship of effectiveness and efficiency has been elaborated. Managerial functions, roles and skills have been described for better understanding. The managerial excellence as a source of competitive advantage to the managers has been recognized. The study also distinguishes between effective managers and successful managers.

The chapter 2 deals with the literature review relating to the independent and dependent variables. The research papers related to the organizational culture, job involvement

and managerial effectiveness have been carefully reviewed. The relevant research papers were reported and discussed to establish the relationship. The literature review opened the scope of the present study as no such study has been reported in the Indian context. The chapter ends with the need of the objectives of the present study.

The chapter 3, the methodology, describes the numbers and level of samples, the data collection tools and the data analysis techniques. The chapter also explains the three standardized scales used to measure the variables.

The chapter 4 reveals the results and discussion. The results are presented with the support of relevant studies. The relationship amongst the variables is also reported in the study. The chapter ends with the explanation of the objectives of the study and their accomplishments. Thus organizational culture and job involvement reliably predicts the managerial effectiveness.

Finally the chapter 5 concludes, summarizes, and provides suggestions, implications and the limitations of the study.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE (OC)

1.1.1 Organizational Culture - Definition and Concept

According to Hofstede (1980), “Culture is to a human collectivity what personality is to an individual. Culture could be defined as the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group’s response to its environment. Culture determines the identity of a human group in the same way as personality determines the identity of an individual”. Organizations may develop their own unique cultures that differentiate them from other organizations within the same industry or society. No organization can operate in isolation from its cultural environment. In other words, organizations are social systems that must inevitably operate to survive within the frame work of a larger cultural system. Managers in organizations come from different cultural back grounds. They have different beliefs, customs, understandings and preferences. Managers should not impose a style blindly on any organization. Attempts should be made to evolve a management style that is in harmony with the culture of the specific economy. An organization’s culture has different characteristics like individual autonomy, the rules and regulations, systems of direct supervision, superior and subordinate relationship, holistic view of the organization, performance-rewards systems, conflict tolerance and risk tolerance, etc. According to James and Jones (1974), in organizational context management philosophy is evident from the goals, policies and

functions of the organizations. The organizational structure of a company also represents management philosophy.

The organizational culture has been defined by different authors in different ways.

Table 1.1.1 shows some of the most widely used definitions of organizational culture.

Table 1.1.1: Selected definitions of organizational culture

<p>Elliot Jaques (1952:251)</p>	<p>‘The culture of the factory is its customary and traditional way of thinking and doing of things, which is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all its members, and which new members must learn, and at least partially accept, in order to be accepted into service of the firm.’</p>
<p>Andrew Pettigrew (1979:574)</p>	<p>‘Culture is a system of publicly and collectively accepted meanings operating for a given group at a given time. This system of terms, forms, categories, and images interprets a people’s own situation to themselves.’</p>
<p>Meryl Reis Louis (1983:39)</p>	<p>‘Organizations [are] culture-bearing milieux, that is, [they are] distinctive social units possessed of a set of common understandings for organizing action (e.g., what we’re doing together in this particular group, appropriate ways of doing in and among members of the group) and languages and other symbolic vehicles for expressing common understandings.’</p>
<p>Edgar Schein (1985:6)</p>	<p>‘The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems.’</p>

John Van Maanen (1988:3)	‘Culture refers to the knowledge members of a given group are thought to more or less share; knowledge of the sort that is said to inform, embed, shape, and account for the routine and not-so-routine activities of the members of the culture....A culture is expressed (or constituted) only through the actions and words of its members and must be interpreted by, not given to, a fieldworker....Culture is not itself visible, but is made visible only through its representation.’
Harrison Trice and Janice Beyer (1993:2)	‘Cultures are collective phenomena that embody people’s responses to the uncertainties and chaos that are inevitable in human experience. These responses fall into two major categories. The first is the substance of a culture – shared, emotionally charged belief systems that we call ideologies. The second is cultural forms – observable entities, including actions, through which members of a culture express, affirm, and communicate the substance of their culture to one another.’

[Source: Hatch, M.J. and Cunliffe, A.L. (2006). *Organization Theory – Modern, Symbolic and Postmodern Perspectives*]

1.1.2 Types of Organizational Culture

The organizational design is influenced by power-based culture, role based culture, supportive culture and achievement oriented culture (Prasad, 2005). Miles and Snow (1978), who recognized the potential of leadership in shaping the organizational culture, defined three typology, viz., defender organization, analyzer organization and prospector organization. The organizational designs are influenced by these typologies. The current market driven economy requires the organizations to reinforce their culture.

The organizations have both strong and weak cultures. In a strong culture, values are intensely held and widely shared (Wiener, 1988). The maximum numbers of the managers accept the core values and they have higher commitment to those values. A strong culture has a great influence on the behavior of the employees and high degree of intensity to create an internal locus of control. A strong culture lowers employee turnover and shows high agreement amongst the employees of the organization. This builds cohesiveness, loyalty and organizational commitment (Mowday et. al., 1982). A strong organizational culture supports behavioural consistency and, as a result, it acts as a substitute for formalization. According to Robbins et. al. (2007), the formalization and culture of organization are two different roads to a common destination. The stronger the culture, the lesser is the need of developing formal rules. The research indicates that national culture has a greater impact on employees than on organization's culture. This means that national culture reflects more contribution in shaping employees' behaviour. Culture performs a boundary defining role which differentiates different organizations. A strong culture develops a sense of identity for organizational membership. It supersedes individual over general interest.

According to Deal and Kennedy (1983), culture is elusive, intangible and implicit. Conformity to the rules becomes primary basis for rewards and upward mobility. The role of culture also influences organizations' span of control, flattened structure, formalization and empowerment of employees. Strong cultures are to be in agreement with the factors of organizational effectiveness. Strong culture can be a liability in unique strengths of the employees who possess different backgrounds. In case of mergers and acquisitions with strong cultures, it becomes the barrier for production strategy. To create

and sustain the culture, the knowledge of different cultural parameters is necessary. The spirituality and organizational culture recognizes the managerial effectiveness. To develop spiritual organizational culture, managers should have a strong sense of purpose, focus on individual development, and create a trustful and respectful environment and tolerance of employee expressions.

1.1.3 Organizational Culture - National Cultural Influences & Change Management

Jaques (1952) in his book “The Changing Culture of a Factory” has conceptualized that organizational culture focuses on structure of human and emotional elements of organizational life. His work inspired organizational scholars like Barry Turner and Andrew Pettigrew in the UK, Pasquale Gagliardi in Italy, Gareth Morgan and Peter Frost in Canada, Lou Pondy and Linda Smircich in the United States. Peters and Waterman promoted the idea that strong cultures breed excellence, while Ouchi described the culture as a desirable alternative to both market mechanisms and bureaucratic control systems. Organizations are sub-cultures of national cultural systems.

Hofstede (1997) in his study on IBM employees concluded that employees do not accept power distance i.e. the extent to which the members of a culture are willing to accept an unequal distribution of power, wealth and prestige. Their unwillingness to accept an unequal distribution of wealth can be seen in the exceptionally high income tax paying group. Organizations from high power distance cultures (like Brazil, Singapore and the Arabic countries) rely heavily on hierarchy that involves the unequal distribution of authority with lack of opportunities for upward mobility of opportunities. In higher power distance cultures, subordinates expect to be told what to do; for them hierarchy is

an existential inequality (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). In low power distance cultures, hierarchy is considered an inequality of roles created for convenience rather than reflecting essential differences between people; thus subordinates in this culture are expected to be consulted by their superiors. As a result, the ideal boss in a low power distance culture is a resourceful democrat whereas in a high power distance culture the best boss is a benevolent autocrat.

Hofstede (2001) argued that different societies have different level of tolerance for uncertainty and these differences can be defined as a degree to which members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguity and risk. In low uncertainty avoidance culture, people are ready to accept innovative ideas, differences of opinion and eccentric or deviant behaviour, whereas in cultures of high uncertainty behaviour these things are resisted. Rules, regulations and controls are all the more acceptable to employees in high than in low uncertainty avoidance cultures. Hofstede claimed that organizations in these cultures have more formalization and standardization whereas organizations in cultures with weak uncertainty avoidance dislike rules and resist formalization and standardization. In his original study of IBM employees', uncertainty avoidance was highest in Greece, Portugal and Japan while it was lowest in employees from Singapore, Hong Kong and Sweden.

1.1.4 Organizational Culture – Individualism Vs Collectivism

Individualism versus collectivism is a degree to which individuals in a culture are expected to act independently of other members of the society. In individualism versus collectivism, i.e. people living alone versus people living together, the belief of personal

relationship also varies. In United States, individualism is seen as a source of well being whereas in India, China and other like cultures, individualism is seen as undesirable and alienating. According to Hofstede, tasks take precedence over relationships in organizations from individualistic culture to collectivism culture. Hofstede and Bond (1988) in their study on long term versus short-term orientation described that high long term orientation scores indicate that hard work will lead top long term rewards and also that it may take longer to develop business in these countries. The short-term orientation culture of the organizations represents small challenges and fewer commitments.

1.1.5 Organizational Culture & Role of Society

The Hofstede's work not only identified specific measurable cultural differences but also showed that organizational culture is also influenced by society. Hofstede's dimensions of cultural differences supply information about core beliefs and assumptions that define organizational culture.

Managers play a great role in changing their organization's culture. Managers believe culture can be managed (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). This belief creates new forms of managerial effectiveness. If culture changes the norms and values of the organization, it will also result in change in the organizational performances. Managers may hire compatible employees and allow them to undergo socialization process and train them for organizationally preferred values (Kilmann, Saxton and Serpa, 1986). Top management is the most influential factor of the organizational culture. Top managers have relatively high visibility to other organizational members. They have the desired effects on other members of the cultures. Managers have high potential to become

powerful symbols within their organizations. The successful leadership rests on a leader's ability to adapt to the symbolism of organizational culture. Italian organizational theorist Gagliardi (1986) proposed a theory of the relationship between culture and strategy which affect the dynamics of organizational culture. Instrumental strategies are operational in nature which operates for the attainment of specific measurable objectives. Expressive strategies operate in the symbolic realm and protect the stability and coherence of shared meanings.

The cultural dynamics are based on assumptions and values of the managers which create expectations about the world. This creation is called the manifestation. One's culture influences action by manifesting values. It develops cultural artifacts like objects, events and verbal statements. Similarly, Schein's model demonstrates that values with artifacts create specific dynamics of organizational culture (Hatch, 2004).

1.1.6 Organizational Culture & Organizational Environment

Organizational cultures have complex relationship with the environments in which they operate and they recruit their managers (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). The organizational managers influence values, identities and skills on the overall aspects of the occupational and professional culture of the organization (Phillips, Goodman and Sackmann, 1992). According to British sociologist Jenks, (1993), the concept of culture originally referred to the cultivation of crops. It was extended to include the cultivation of human beings when the academic disciplines of anthropology and sociology were created some time during the nineteenth century. The similar interest and close association has been shown by Jeffrey (2003). Tylor (1871), British social anthropologist, defined culture

as, “that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society”. Jaques (1952) in his book entitled *The Changing Culture of a Factory* first time conceptualized the organizational culture. He argued that research should be focused on human and emotional life which leads to overall organizational culture.

1.2 JOB INVOLVEMENT (JI)

1.2.1 Job Involvement – Definition & Concept

Job involvement is the degree to which employees immerse themselves in their jobs, invest time and energy in them, and view work as a central part of their overall lives (Blau and Boal, 1987, 1989). Achieving good positions and performing well help the employees to create their self images and also protect from job loss on their dire needs. Job involved employees normally believe in the work ethics, exhibit high growth needs and enjoy participation in decision making. They always remain present on jobs and they are willing to work long hours and they attempt to be high performers (Newstrom and Davis, 1997).

Job involvement is different for different employees. For some employees, it is up to the extent that their work is a central life interest (Sharon, Lynne and Homer, 1988). It is possible, they may over-involve in their jobs. Over-involvement i.e. becoming a workaholic can be identified when work affects ones personal life negatively. For other people, active participation in their work to an extent is job involvement. Some employees perceive their work as self-esteem while others relate to self concept. Job satisfaction is directly related to job involvement.

The rewards and efforts ratio plays a significant role in job involvement. If the ratio between the two is heavy on the efforts side, employees generally feel less satisfied. Employees also compare their effort reward ratio to the ratio of other employees/colleagues. If they believe that their ratio is less than their colleagues' ratio, they feel less satisfied. In this entire analysis, employees look at total rewards from work and not just monetary compensation. Employees who relate job involvement with self concept are more committed towards job. A difference in the perception of what the employee considers also affects organizational commitment, employee's turnover and absenteeism (Blau and Boal, 1987).

The job involvement is affected by the personal goals which are present on the job, the social identification which the job provides and affective feeling on the job (Blauner, 1964). Seeman (1959) clarified the concept of "self-estrangement" as "essentially to the inability of the individual to find self rewarding - activities that engage him". Blauner (1964) defines self-estrangement as a state where work becomes primarily instrumental as a means toward future considerations rather than an end in itself. Dean (1961) has proposed a related aspect of alienation which is purposelessness, i.e., absence of values that might give purpose or direction to life. The employees who are highly motivated have a sense of solidarity with the organization and achieve a sense of pride from their work; we may identify them as highly involved in their jobs.

1.2.2 Job Involvement & Job Identification

The job identification is a significant phenomenon of job involvement. The feeling of solidarity with the organization is labeled apparently with organizational

culture. Job identification helps an employee to understand his membership role in some group or organization as an important part of his self image (Miller, 1963; French and Sherwood, 1965). Identification in this sense is self labeling behaviour. The behaviour of an employee, in the context of organizational identification, varies and affects other organizational members. The identification may voluntarily result into work over time without pay, defend the organization to outsiders, express enthusiasm about organizational goals and so on. This type of behaviour represents “loyalty” to the organization. Another relevant concept of identification has been proposed by Stotland and others (Stotland, 1962; Stotland, Zander and Natsoulas, 1961; Stotland and Dunn, 1962). They see identification as a cognitive process based on the perception of similarities between oneself and another person. The cognitive process whereby a person sees in himself qualities that are similar to those he perceives in his group is designated here as identification with the group.

One important similarity among organizational members is regarding their common membership. The job involvement of that employee, whose tenure is likely to be less in the organization, is expected to be at lower level. Identification with the job encourages participation in the organization.

1.2.3 Job Involvement & Organizational Goals

The job involvement is also the integration of individual and organizational goals. The organizational goals may be implicit or explicit and employee has to sense these goals to link with his personal goals. The process of giving an opportunity to participate in decision making may create more involvement in job. The non-financial incentives

may be like better office space or more appealing work. In addition to this, sharing of rewards, the absolute level of formal rewards, employees' shares on profits (ESOP) and other pragmatic incentives tend to add value to the organizational and job commitment.

1.2.4 Job Involvement & Job Satisfaction

The job involvement may be improved through job redesign strategies. The positive changes at work place will also change attitude and motivation of employees (Glick, Douglas and Gupta, 1986). Coworkers also affect job satisfaction and as a result job involvement.

Through the process of participative decision making, the shared values and shared goals are likely to emerge; as a result level of job satisfaction also shows high trend. The job satisfaction further increases loyalty to the organization. The reward systems also raise job involvement of the employees. Besides money non-financial incentives may also be included to achieve greater involvement of the employees.

1.2.5 Job Involvement & Career

Promotion opportunity is an important factor to create job involvement intensity. To rise high in status within an organization, an employee may like to involve more and more in his job. Opportunities for deriving pride from performance on the job may be expected to affect an employee's job involvement in various ways. Firstly, job satisfaction makes the individual more ready to accept the challenges in the organization. Secondly, an employee may accept more roles to enhance his self-image. Finally, where work goals provide important personal satisfaction, the individual may come to see his goal as a potential leader (Patchen, 1970).

Career commitment and job involvement are associated with organizational behaviour (Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, 1998). According to Blau (1989), high career commitment is related to low turnover. In his study, he distinguished between career commitment and job involvement with commitment referring to attitude about a career in banking organizations. Individuals can have a positive attitude about a career in banking but be little involved in the job, although the two should be positively associated for most individuals. Important to management is the recognition of the career committed individuals and to differentiate them with lower job involved individuals.

1.2.6 Job Involvement & Socialization

Interpersonal relationships in an organization also affect job involvement. Friendly, cooperative and supportive relationships may lead an individual to perceive things positively and create a sense of interdependence. Positive interpersonal relations should lead the individual to associate important social satisfactions with organizational memberships related to work situation. A sense of organizational identification contributes to good channels for communication and smooth working functional interdependencies. However, individual's network of personal association is not sharply distinguished from the rest of the organization. One important dimension of the organizational members will perceive similarities or differences in identifying the status. The status of some employees of the organization is not to be different with the status of the other employees of the same rank. The demographic similarities also lead to job involvement. Such similarity may contribute to the feelings of solidarities and the expectations of mutual help from others.

Johnson et al. (1997) quoted some significant behavioral differences that differentiate human capital of men such as competitiveness, creativity, and risk-taking from that of women. Constructive feedback on good performance is a strong motivator; employees accept it and respond positively. A timely appreciation increases job involvement (Mullins, 2002).

1.3 MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS (ME)

1.3.1 Managerial Effectiveness – Definition & Concept

An organization has man, machine, material, money, methods and minutes as resources for the output but results cannot be produced unless these resources are efficiently managed by the managers. Managers are important catalyst for the production process and accomplishment of organizational objectives. As remarked by the Peter F. Drucker, “Management is a dynamic, life giving element in every business. Without it the resources cannot be converted into high production” (Drucker, 1974). Effective managers reconcile the objectives of the enterprise and those of the individuals. Managers direct and coordinate the activity of the individuals in the use of physical resources for the achievement of organizational goals. Efficient managers provide leadership to the business and help in achieving the objectives. Managerial effectiveness comprises of scientific thinking, deciding and thoughtful organization, direction and control to ensure better results (Chhabra, 1999). The role of professional managers has increased to achieve growth and prosperity, to coordinate human efforts to meet challenges and for economic development of the organization.

The development of any organization virtually depends upon the quality of management and its use of resources. Efficient managers, who enable the developing conditions of an organization, are the most critical factor for overall success of the organization (Farmer and Richman, 1965). There is bound to be a great diversity in the profile of managers in the different organizational cultures. In the organizations, integrity of the managers is a more important qualification for holding the jobs as compared to becoming yes man to the bosses (Rangnekar, 1973). The important features which distinguish between the professional and traditional managers are professional qualification, age, mobility of managers, job satisfaction and adaptability. The Indian managers give high value to job satisfaction. They would prefer the job of their aptitude and they would want to excel in the area of their specialization.

1.3.2 Managerial Effectiveness & Efficiency

The managerial effectiveness depends on how a manager develops a relationship with organizational goals and utilization of resources. Effective managers communicate clearly and explain organizational goals to the employees for their achievement. Managers involve employees and delegate responsibilities accordingly. They develop a climate of openness and trust by providing straight information. The approach has been seen helpful creating constructive environment and by developing superior subordinate relationship (Ivancevich, Donnelly, Gibson, 2003). Managers must recognize contributors and should give them preferences over to those employees who create problems. The principle of equity must be related to the quality of performance and incentives provided for performance. To keep right person at right job is the basic requirement to be a good manager.

Managers try to achieve the balance between three Es namely Efficiency, Effectiveness and Equity. Managerial success many times sacrifices one E at the expense of the other two. Efficiency is a measure of how well resources are transformed into outputs. Effectiveness is an assessment of how far a stated objective is achieved. Efficiency leads to a quantity of production however effectiveness focuses on quality and quantity both. Equity is the fairness to all. Managers are always concerned with efficiency, effectiveness and equity. The blend of the three is a changing choice for all managers. The balance among the three Es has clearly shifted towards overall managerial effectiveness. Managers have to form the equilibrium as per organizational objectives (Naylor, 1999). Most of the organizations are managing the market fluctuations by changing their business strategies with the help of continuous growth of both information technologies and globalization concepts (Haq and Kannan, 2006).

1.3.3 Managerial Effectiveness & Managerial Functions

Organizational culture creates the thinking process for the managers; as a result it spreads to all employees of the organization. Managers must develop a system for commitment to quality. A large amount of time management is required for the promotion of quality and establishment of the relationship between competitiveness and performance. Entrepreneurship is another criterion of managerial effectiveness which harvests technological innovations. Entrepreneurship is the ability of a manager to consider the resources and use these resources for the betterment of the business performances. Here we can take the example of Ford Motors where Henry Ford neither invented the automobiles nor the division of labour but applied the labour force for the production of automobiles in a new way *viz.*, the assembly line. Another example is that

of Akio Morita, the President of Sony, who used the vision of creation of a new product viz, Walkman personal stereo (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, Jr., 1998). The manager always looks towards the opportunities to create value addition for customers, employees and other stakeholders. Managers make all the moves towards business development to achieve the performance close to perfect. The perfect performance cannot be accomplished without proper planning, organizing, leading and controlling of manpower and other recourses. Many companies reinvent themselves through adjustments and the new ways of managing. Management also involves the coordination of the production process (Wilken, 1979).

1.3.4 Managerial Effectiveness & Managerial Roles

Mintzberg (1980) has defined different roles for managers. He described that managers have three types of roles, i.e., Interpersonal roles, Informational roles and Decisional roles. The interpersonal role is more focused on formal authority, i.e., figurehead role. The figurehead role requires a leadership in approach and creates work culture in the organization. The informational role mainly involves creation of policies and dissemination to all the stakeholders of the organization. It also provides an image of the spokesperson of the organization. Informational roles help in monitoring the organizational performances. The decisional roles search the organizational culture and create the strategies for improving the business status. Manager, while executing the decisional role, also takes corrective actions and effectively faces unexpected disturbances. While performing the function of resource allocation, manager controls unforeseen problems and designs the strategies accordingly. The final role of the manager is of a negotiator for optimum utilization of the organizational resources.

In an organization, manager faces rapid changes on a regular basis. These changes may be of social, political, economical, legal and technological dimensions. Managers have to bring in stability in all the extreme environments to maintain the productivity. An organization faces immensely tough competition with the customers and internal resources. Manager, while executing the above functions, role and skills must maximize the productivity and output for the overall growth of the organization.

1.3.5 Managerial Effectiveness & Managerial Skills

Managers must possess different skills for organizational development (Katz, 1974). A skill is an ability of performing a particular task. Managerial skills can be learned and developed through practices. The technical skill is an ability to use the specific knowledge, techniques and resources at work place. Technical skill means possessing the expertise in job knowledge. The technical skills are especially important at the frontline management level. Another important skill is analytical skills. This skill involves conceptual ability. It is the ability which identifies key factors and explores relationship in them. It is a research oriented ability for correct diagnosis of the problem and provides the solution. It also forecasts plan of action for future. It is a key for long term success. Managers accomplish their work through other employees. This accomplishment requires an ability to work with and to understand others for achieving the results. This skill is nothing other than human relations skill. It is equally essential at every organizational level. The decision making skills determine the degree of success. A manager's decision making skill creates a great future for the organization. Poor decision making skills will result in inefficient and inadequate contribution from the managers. Many managers make massive changes in the organization by taking right decisions at

the right time. In today's world of techno-managers, the decision making skills are linked and supported by information technology. This technical ability is an important skill because of substantial input of technology for manager's productivity. In current business scenario, manager is required to analyze financial and other resource planning to take effective decisions.

1.3.6 Managerial Effectiveness & Managerial Excellence

Managers earned worldwide respect for their carefully planned yet highly aggressive action. They plan for short term, medium term and long term goals for restructuring of the overall organizational objectives. Their skills improve short term efficiency, entrepreneurial imagination and willingness to make long term competitive investments. Presently, managers are meeting the challenges of the changing world and thus proving their managerial effectiveness. They know the technology; understand the market and production problems. They come up with a synthetic solution for their work plans and to control the risk of failures. Managers are spokespersons for their organizations and employees. Manager's performance is important to recognize for productivity growth. The managerial decisions are based on initiative and innovative ideas. Managerial efficiency may be achieved by attaining the production targets (Hayes and Abernathy, 1996). The managerial effectiveness is the next source of competitive advantage. Managers create leadership out of effectiveness (Stalk, 1996).

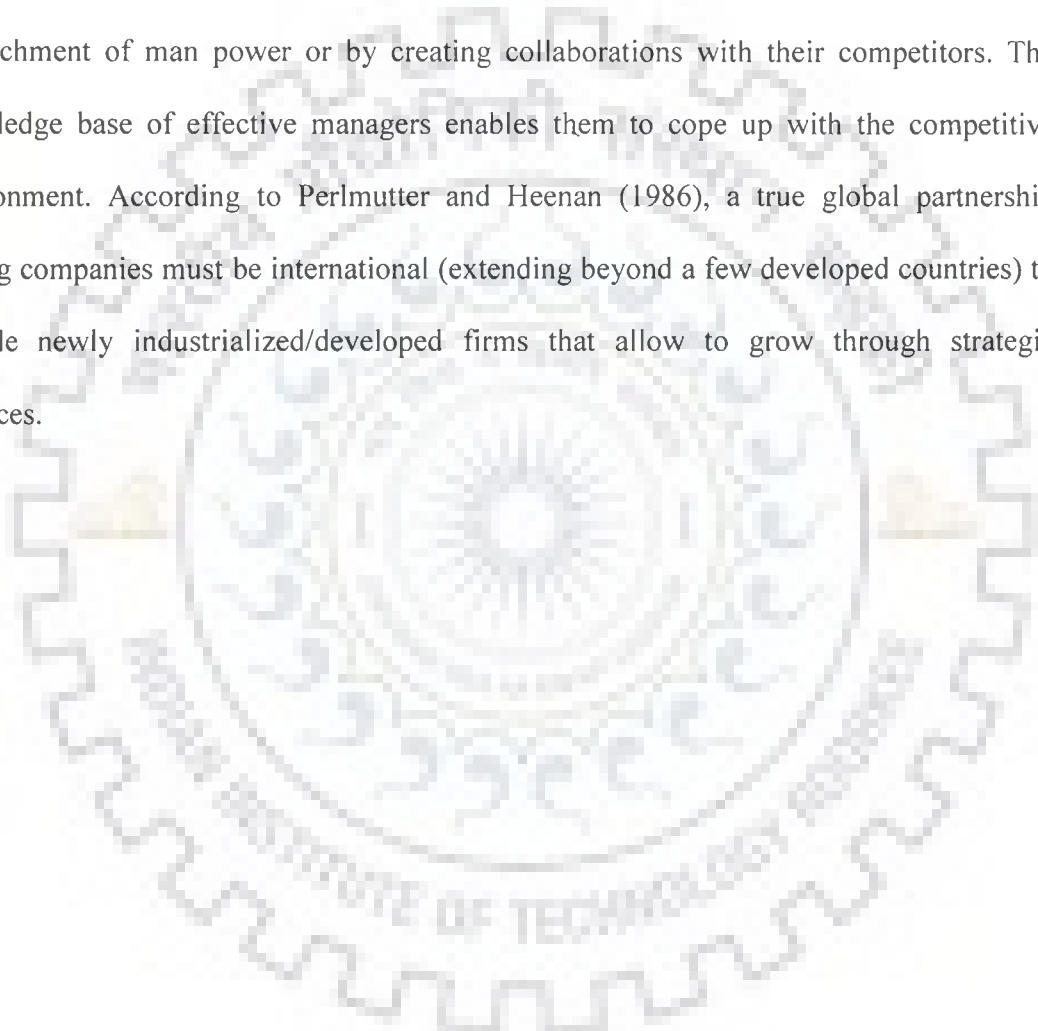
Luthans (1988) distinguished between effective managers and successful managers by stating that effective managers are providing satisfaction and commitment to the subordinates while successful managers are defined operationally in terms of speed

of their promotion within their organization. According to Luthans, the biggest contribution to effectiveness came first from communication and then from human resource management. The manager's effectiveness may be assessed by the strength of motivation and morale of staff, the success of their training and development and the creation of an organizational environment in which the staff works willingly and effectively (Mullins, 2002). Rees (1996) suggests that activity centred behaviour is in any case much more likely to spring from incompetence and/or insecurity rather than adroit political behaviour. Langford (1979) identifies four broad groups of criteria of managerial effectiveness and a single overall criterion of general effectiveness. The four criteria are –

- (a) The manager's work - decision making, problem solving, innovation, management of time and handling information.
- (b) The manager himself - his level of motivation, role perception, coping with stress or ambiguity, seniority and average salary/grade for age.
- (c) The manager's relationship with other people – subordinates, superiors, peers and clients; handling conflict and leadership power.
- (d) The manager as part of the organization – maintenance of the organization and technical and financial control.

The single criterion of general effectiveness is – Allocation of resources, achieving purpose, goal attainment, planning, organizing, coordinating and controlling. Managers are likely to be judged not just on their own performance but also on results achieved by other staff.

Managers need to place a higher priority on competitiveness. Thus they operate in a climate surrounded by social, political, economical and legal issues. A manager's success depends on how expert he is in his technical, human and conceptual skills. In current scenario, world economy is declining and challenges for managers are on the increase. The managers are responding to the economic situation either through retrenchment of man power or by creating collaborations with their competitors. The knowledge base of effective managers enables them to cope up with the competitive environment. According to Perlmutter and Heenan (1986), a true global partnership among companies must be international (extending beyond a few developed countries) to include newly industrialized/developed firms that allow to grow through strategic alliances.



LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE - CREATION AND CHANGE

2.1.1 Rewards & Performance

Wallace, Hunt and Richards (1999) in their paper entitled 'The relationship between organisational culture, organisational climate and managerial values' observed that there is a link between rewards and performance. This link also has effect on levels of motivation and job satisfaction among achievement oriented individuals. In organizational culture, job variety and challenges, work-group cooperation and *esprit de corps* provide interesting and challenging work environment. The team work and mateship are highly valued and positively encouraged managerial values for healthy organizational climate. The study mapped out cultural climate and managerial values and develop an inter relationship with the orientation of managerial behaviour.

2.1.2 Employability Skills

Estienne (1997) in his paper entitled 'An organizational culture compatible with employability' examined the organizational cultures which develop employability for its employees. The culture must not only create a climate of challenge for employees but also motivate and empower them. The second characteristic of an organizational culture which encourages employability would be that it values and rewards learning as a vehicle for change. These qualities develop skills of motivation and commitment required in the

process. The organization supports employee ambitions and career ownership. In the case of a person culture, the most appropriate model is what could be called as fishnet organization (Swigart, 1995). It describes an organization which is formed by fluid teams and interdependent structures. The organizational culture which encourages career ownership and employability provides empowerment to the employees and motivates them towards achievement as well as sense of belongingness. Synchronous and asynchronous communication modes largely prevalent in the organization (Cho et al., 2008) and other such communication modes improve employees' commitment towards organization (Birasnav and Rangnekar, 2009).

2.1.3 Interventions

Buch and Wetzel (2001) in their paper entitled 'Analyzing and realigning organizational culture' revealed that there are interventions which may be used for analyzing and realigning organizational culture. The authors identified that there is a gap between the espoused culture and true culture (Schein, 1999) and this misalignment between two cultures may be very harmful to the organization. An environment of trust and commitment to the change process must be built to minimize misalignment. The organization can initiate the process for deeper change in the form of rebuilds and replacement. The authors proposed that organizational leaders and members with a working mental model of culture can bring powerful effects on alignment of culture.

2.1.4 Organizational Culture in Manufacturing Industries

Erdem and Satir (2003) in their study entitled 'Feature of organizational culture in manufacturing organizations: a metaphorical analysis' examined organizational culture

within manufacturing organizations. The study is completed through metaphors to uncover quickly and easily true feelings about an organization. Employees are having strong feelings about organizational cultures. The important feelings are common in general and in a period of significant organizational change employees may have negative perceptions of the organizations and its culture. The positive opinion was more accepted by the employees like working hours, superior subordinate support, organizational membership and power distance relationship. In the old and well structured manufacturing organization the cultural climate was strong and the perception of the employees towards the culture is homogeneous. However, in the relatively younger organizations the cultural climate was weak or negative. Authors suggested that a shared history of an organization might strengthen the perceptions amongst employees of the organization.

2.1.5 Organizational Culture in PSUs

Parker and Bradley (2000) in their paper entitled 'Organizational culture in the public sector: evidence from six organizations' have mentioned that organizational culture in public sector is required to be changed from traditional values to flexibility, entrepreneurship, outcomes, efficiency, change in the system and overall productivity as found in their study on six Australian public sectors. The Australian public sector has undergone different reforms to achieve cost-efficiency and customer satisfaction (Dixon et al, 1996). The decentralization of operations have supported more flexibility and adaptability and improved performance management (Hoggett, 1996).

The research on organizational culture indicates that it is a continuous change process to attain strategic objectives (Bluedorn and Lundgren, 1993). In the study authors have incorporated a system of flexible and participatory management. They also suggest that public sector organizations continue to balance between flexibility and bureaucratic or hierarchical organizational culture. The culture of public sector employees is different from that of private sector employees in respect of values and motivation levels (Perry, 1996). The public sector employees are more altruistic than private sector employees (Sinclair, 1991).

2.1.6 Innovations

In another study entitled 'Improving organisational culture through innovative development programmes' Jackson and Hinchliffe (1999) recognized that changing culture is the most important role of a leader. The study revealed that when the characteristics of the prevailing culture are compared with those associated with one that is ideal, many gaps were identified. In an attempt to overcome these gaps, the leaders within the organization worked with the staff and identified that learning and development was a priority, if improvements were to be attained. Management conducted a series of activities with the aim to promote openness and an understanding of the strategic and operational issues. In another program, learning and development program was designed. Authors in their findings concluded that the development program had achieved their original aims. The study identified that creating and managing organizational culture was the most important role of a leader. However, it was also deemed paramount that the culture contained characteristics like behaviour being supportive for the organizational goals, decisions being made at appropriate levels by

people, cooperation and team work, support to employees' needs and good upward, downward and lateral communication.

2.2 JOB INVOLVEMENT - HRM ASPECTS

2.2.1 Job Satisfaction

Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes and Dick (2007) in their study entitled "Taking a sickie": Job satisfaction and job involvement as interactive predictors of absenteeism in a public organization' explored simple correlations between work attitudes such as job satisfaction or job involvement and absenteeism. The correlation of work attitude and job satisfaction of employees has been found disappointing. Authors tested a hypothesis formulated by Sagie (1998) that a comprehensive account of the influence of such work attitudes on absence behavior has to be considered by not only simple correlations but also potential interactions between attitudes. In that study, job satisfaction and job involvement were assessed in a sample of 436 employees working in a large civil service department. Absence data (frequency, time lost) were drawn from personnel records and referred to a period of 12 months after the administration of questionnaires. A moderated regression documented that the hypothesized interaction between satisfaction and involvement was significant for both indicators of absence behavior. As several other variables (e.g., age, job level) were controlled, these findings lend support to the basic proposition of Sagie. Authors proposed that research on absenteeism should benefit from analyzing how different attitudes of employees combine to influence absenteeism. In their findings authors concluded that job satisfaction and job involvement exert quite similar interactive influences on both absence measures: for employees with low job

satisfaction the impact of job involvement on absence behavior is much more pronounced than for employees with high job satisfaction. The results of that study are important in several ways. Authors have supported our conceptual introduction in Chapter 1 that work attitude and behaviour are important factors of job involvement. Based on their finding it is clear that employees' absenteeism has relationship with attitude towards involvement in job. However, the study was carried out in a large civil service department of a federal state in Germany and study has not correlated organizational culture and managerial effectiveness. The other factor of job involvement is self-esteem and authors proposed that employees with high job satisfaction experience higher self-esteem at work.

2.2.2 Inter-role Conflict

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined inter-role conflict as a form of role conflict in which the sets of opposing pressures arise from participation in different roles, when pressures arising in one role are incompatible with pressures arising in another role.

Inter-role conflict plays an important affect on job involvement (Zatz, 1995). Frone and Rice (1987) defined inter-role conflict as "incompatibility between the role expectations of different role". Inter-role conflict was also related to lower satisfaction with the job (Cooke and Rousseau, 1984; Jackson and Schuler, 1985; Jones and Butler, 1980; Pleck, Staines and Lang, 1980; Staines and O'Connor, 1980; Wiersma and van den Berg, 1991).

2.2.3 Self Identification

The identity theory explains that the individuals are different in the similar type of a job because of their differences in self identification (Burke, 1991; Thoits, 1991, 1992).

Job involvement represents the degree to which a job is central to an individual's self concept or sense of identity (Frone and Major, 1988). The employees who are highly involved in job achieve high self-esteem from their successful job performance. Job performance has a stronger impact on job related outcomes for highly job involved workers as compared to workers who have low level of job involvement (Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1995; Locke, 1976). Frone, Russell and Cooper, (1995) have found that highly job involved employees reported heavier alcohol use than those less strongly job involved employees, when work pressure or role ambiguity were high. Likewise, highly job involved employees reported poor physical health. Job involvement is a key that unlocks motivation (Brown, 1996). Highly job involved employees also lead for innovations. As a result, highly job involved employees have high job satisfaction. Jassen (2003) in his paper entitled 'Innovative behaviour and job involvement at the price of conflict and less satisfactory relations with co-workers' explains that innovative behaviour evokes conflict with co-workers and adversely affects relationship with co-workers.

Kanungo (1982) defined job involvement as "psychological identification with a job" and it implies that job involvement is seen as an important part of employee self concept (Lawler and Hall, 1970). Higher the job involvement, the high is the job identity (Kanungo, 1982). If job involvement increases, the potential for segmentation of the job decreases and as a result inter-role conflict rises. Job involvement has been clearly linked to absenteeism (Farrell and Stamm, 1988; Shore, Newton and Thornton, 1990; Scott and McClellan, 1990) and to turn over or intent to leave (Baba and Jamal, 1991; Huselid and Day, 1991; Ingram, Lee and Lucas, 1991). Job involvement is significantly correlated

with job satisfaction (Elloy, Everett and Flynn, 1991; Gerpott, 1990; Mathieu and Farr, 1991; Paterson and O'Driscoll, 1990).

Frone and Rice (1987) suggested job involvement may increase role pressures. Others have also found that job involvement was related to off-work time devoted to the job (Greenhaus et. al., 1989; Wiener and Gechman, 1977).

2.2.4 Self Esteem

Cortis and Cassar (2005) in their paper entitled 'Perceptions of and about women as managers: investigating job involvement, self-esteem and attitudes' revealed that job involvement and work based self esteem of male and female managers are same. The increase of women in managerial positions is still less as compared to the men in managerial positions (Ott, 1998; Vianen and Fischer, 2002; Vinnicombe, 2000). The study indicated that women often have to face several attitudinal barriers which in turn may result into lack of female participation in managerial occupations. Organizational policies may bring changes to help women to overcome these barriers. Women's performances at work place get affected by domestic responsibilities and create work overload (Keene and Reynolds, 2002). Cromie (1981) argued that employees who are involved in job believe in their work ethics and to exhibit growth needs enhance activities within the organization. The job involvement and work based self esteem are two intertwined concepts and having positive impact on employees self esteem. Studies on work based on self esteem indicated no significant difference between how males and females perceived themselves within the organization (Tang, Singer, and Roberts, 2000).

External factors are also clustered into attitudinal and structural barriers (Laufer, 2000; Powell, 2000).

Career advancement for women also barriers by transparent and upward mobility and family stability (Cooper Jackson, 2001; Davidson, 1996; Kelly and Marin, 1998; Marongiu and Ekehammar, 1999; Mavin, 2001; Morrison and Glinow, 1990). Organizational practices are important factor and contribute to the formation of the glass ceiling (Cooper Jackson, 2001; Rutherford, 2001). Many forms of implicit unequal treatment of women still persist (Brannon, 2002). Despite the achievement of women, negative attitude and stereotypes of women as leaders still prevail in many cultures (Bass et al., 2001; Ching-Yim and Harris Bond, 2002; Mostafa, 2003). Traditional male characteristic is a better predictor for success, reinforces “think manager – think male” (Schein, 1994, as cited in Sauers et al., 2002). The successful women managers are usually taken as imitators of characteristics believed to be utterly a male domain (Coates, 1998; Rajan and Krishnan, 2002; Stanford et al., 1995). Female subordinates prefer working for a female boss (Borg, 2001; Davidson, 1996). Burke (2002) demonstrated no gender differences regarding job involvement of male and female managers. Female managers tend to be younger than their male counterparts and more likely to be single; these limit the number of social roles and the degrees of role conflict (Keene and Reynolds, 2002).

Cortis and Cassar (2005) in their study further compared job involvement of married and unmarried women. The results showed that marital status had no impact on job involvement of women. Cromie (1981) argued, job involvement more influenced by hierarchical status within the organization rather than by ones gender. Married female

managers suffer from stress due to pressure of dual role of a married women as well as a manager (Lee 1994; Nelson and Burke, 2000). Mavin (2001) argued that the model of the successful manager has traditionally been masculine. Brannon (2002) in his study indicated that male managers are viewed more frequently than women on the media and are more likely to be viewed in authoritative roles or appeared as professionals. According to Cordano et al. (2002), the studies can be enhanced on women managers to avoid simple assumptions that the translated meaning of words and phrases are applicable as it is irrespective of different organizational culture.

2.2.5 Self Efficacy

Sonnentag and Krueger (2006) in their paper on 'Psychological detachment from work during off-job time: the role of job stressors, job involvement, and recovery-related self-efficacy' suggested that workload, job involvement and recovery-related self-efficacy were significant predictors of both self-rated and family-rated psychological detachment. The stressors encountered at the job have a negative effect on employees' mental and physical health (De Lange et. al., 2003; Kahn and Byosiere, 1992; Sonnentag and Frese, 2003). Employee well-being improves during off-job time (Strauss-Blasche, Ekmekcioglu and Marktl, 2000; Westman and Eden, 1997; Westman and Etzion, 2001). Recovery experiences were found to be positively related to subsequent on the job behaviour (Sonnentag, 2003). Employees who face highly stressful work situations express a high need for recovery (Sluiter et. al., 2001). Research suggests that psychological detachment from work during off-job time is highly relevant for recovery to occur (Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005). The job stressors and high job strain situations make it difficult to detach from work during off-job time (Cropley and Millward Purvis,

2003; Grebner, Semmer and Elfering, 2005; Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005). Role conflict was found to be associated with negative affective reactions to one's job (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). Janssen (2003) found that workers with greater job involvement are psychologically more at stake. Job involvement differs between part and full time employees (Thorsteinson, 2003). High job involvement may even strengthen the negative relationship between job stressors and psychological detachment. Individuals with a high degree of job involvement take their job very seriously and therefore job stressors might be more important for them. Employees should give importance to time management skills so that they will be able to handle their workload more easily (Koch and Kleinmann, 2002; Peeters and Rutte, 2005).

2.2.6 Personality Traits

Mudrack (2004) in his paper entitled 'Job involvement, obsessive-compulsive personality traits and workaholic behaviour tendencies' discussed undesirable effects of high job involvements. Highly involved employees may be manifesting obsessive-compulsive tendencies and spend all their time and energies into the job in order to avoid some painful realities of their life (Schwartz, 1982). The link between procedural and distributive justice to predict commitment indicates that employees are likely to show high commitment if they perceive distributive justice. But, procedural justice will lead to commitment through distributive justice. Practicing managers need to pay attention not only to the rewards but also to the processes through which the rewards are determined (Bhal and Ansari, 2007).

Naughton (1987) suggested that high job involvement coupled with high scores on a measure of obsessive–compulsive personality might produce individuals who are “workaholics” i.e. who have an inappropriate “addiction” to work (Oates, 1971; Porter, 1996). Mudrack and Naughton (2001) argued that job involvement positively correlated with workaholism. A highly job involved person seems uninterested in non-work activities (Cohen, 1995; Ettington, 1998; Porter, 1996; Rosin and Korabik, 1995). These individuals tend to focus on job activities such as thinking of ways to perform work better. Research also suggests that job involvement tends to correlate positively with citizenship behaviour (Cohen, 1999; Hoffi-Hofstetter and Mannheim, 1999). Highly involved employees may be inclined to assist others at work, although such assistance may be an attempt to get involved in and control the work of others. Mudrack and Naughton (2001) determined that high job involvement coupled with high scores on specific obsessive-compulsive traits lead to tendencies to engage in non-required work.

Wyk, Boshoff and Cilliers (2003) in their study entitled ‘The prediction of job involvement for pharmacists and accountants’ explored the predictiveness of job involvement and accountancy through personality characteristics and job satisfaction. A small proportion of job involvement developed a relationship with career orientation and entrepreneurial attitude orientation.

2.2.7 Organizational Commitment

The relationship between organizational commitment and job involvement has been studied by different researchers. Huselid and Day (1991) in their study on ‘Organizational commitment, job involvement and turnover; a substantive and

methodological analysis' argued that organizational commitment and job involvement influence turnover. Employees with low levels of organizational commitment and job involvement are most likely to leave the organization voluntarily. Blau and Boal (1987) designated employees with high job involvement and low organizational commitment as lone wolves and called employees with low job involvement and high organizational commitment as corporate citizens. Because of their stronger organizational identification, corporate citizens were predicted to leave the organization less frequently than lone wolves.

2.2.8 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Chiu and Tsai (2006) in their paper on 'Relationships among burnout, job involvement, and organizational citizenship behavior' found that job involvement mediate the relationships among emotional exhaustion; diminish personal accomplishments and organizational citizenship behaviour. Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin and Lord, (2002) in an empirical study on relationship between job involvement and organizational citizenship behaviour investigated and found that after controlling for work centrality, job involvement had a positive and direct effect on task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour. Diefendorff and colleagues were the first researchers to demonstrate the direct relationship between job involvement and organizational citizenship behaviour. Researchers have found a negative relationship between burnout and job involvement and a positive relationship between job involvement and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Dimitriades (2007) in his paper entitled 'The influence of service climate and job involvement on customer-oriented organizational citizenship behavior in Greek service organizations: a survey' explored the usefulness and highlighted the nature of inter-relationships between service climate and job involvement. The results indicated that customer oriented organizational citizenship behaviour is complex and influences organizational citizenship. The cultural context has potential impact on citizenship behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The studies suggested a direct relationship between employees perceptions of work climate and organizational citizenship behaviour (Bell and Menguc, 2002; Hopkins, 2002), as well as between organizational culture behaviour and employees' job involvement (Hoffi-Hofstetter and Mannheim, 1999). High job involvement is an inherently desirable attitude of employees (Mudrack, 2004). Business must be concerned with improving employees' perception of service climate because those perceptions help to define employee attitudes (Little and Dean, 2006; Lux et al., 1996). The importance of an autonomous innovative climate in providing employees with the behavioural latitude to engage in relevant customer oriented organizational citizenship (DeJong and Vermeulen, 2003). The job involvement interacts with service climate in influencing customer oriented organizational citizenship behaviour through moderated mediation (Muller et al., 2005; Preacher et al., 2007).

2.2.9 Career Management

Hoff (1998) in his research paper entitled 'Physician executives in managed care: characteristics and job involvement across two career stages' examined job involvement and career stage differences among physician executives in the American College of Physician Executives. The findings of this paper suggested that younger executives'

involvement in their management work depends more importantly upon how they perceive conditions in their surrounding work environments than older executives' involvement. Younger doctors having less of an established identity as clinicians may need to feel a certain level of closeness with and acceptance by their fellow colleagues in order to dedicate themselves to the work of management. Older executives pursuing management as the capstone to a successful clinical career may not need to feel this closeness with colleagues in order to become involved in the job. The physician executives increase their chances of becoming effective management partners with stakeholders in health care organizations.

2.2.10 Work Attitudes & Work Experience

Conte et. al., (2005) in their study entitled 'The relationship between work attitudes and job analysis ratings: do rating scale type and task discretion matter?' examined the association of work attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement) with job analysis ratings. The results indicated that the work attitudes were significantly associated with job analysis ratings of task frequency and importance. All three work attitudes had significantly higher correlations with frequency ratings of tasks that allow high levels of discretion than those with low discretion tasks. Job analysis is the foundation of all human resource activities and as such plays an important role in all human resource systems (Brannick and Levine, 2002). Similarly Sackett and Laczko (2003) suggested that respondent job satisfaction is a potential source of bias in job analysis ratings. Gatewood and Feild (2001) noted that satisfied individuals may see their jobs more important than that of their colleagues who are not satisfied with

their jobs. Traits and situations are examined whenever work behaviour is analyzed (Greenberg, 2002).

Igbaria, Parasuraman and Badawy (1994) in their paper entitled 'Work experiences, job involvement, and quality of work life among information systems personnel' discussed the relationship between job involvement and work experiences factors. The findings indicated that job involvement serves as a complex moderator role in the pattern of relationships of work experiences and of job characteristic with career expectations and career outcomes. It has both linear and non-linear relationship of the study variables. In some cases high levels of job involvements tend to enhance the beneficial effects of work experiences on the quality of work life; in others such involvement tends to heighten the negative effects of role stressors.

2.2.11 Innovation

A study on Innovative behaviour and job involvement at the price of conflict and less satisfactory relations with co-workers was conducted by Janssen (2003). In the study author suggested that innovation at work place may cause a conflict with the co-workers, in this work condition also a worker can be innovative with full job involvement. The findings of the study indicated that conflict with co-workers and reduced satisfaction with co-worker relations do indeed emerge for innovative workers who consider their job performance to be a central aspect of their self-concept or sense of identity (high job involvement). The study also supported that employee's greater job involvement may make him more innovative and resist conflict issues with co-workers. The innovation, job

involvement and conflict model depends on ability and willingness of individual employee. The mutual relationship might facilitate the commitment of co-workers.

2.3 MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS - EFFICIENT PERFORMANCE

2.3.1 Perceptions & Knowledge Management

Fraser and Fraser (2003) in their paper entitled 'Investigating the effectiveness of managers through an analysis of stakeholder perceptions' have shown that perceptions of each of the performance elements vary significantly across professional groups. Authors also concluded that opinions of high performing managers differ from those of low performing ones. Managers are supposed to be aware of their superiors, subordinates and organizational expectations, in order to meet performance targets. The need and attitudes of stakeholders is a valuable part of managerial effectiveness. The knowledge about stakeholders is an integral part of organizational planning (Kaplan and Norton, 1996; Winterton and Winterton, 1999). The managerial effectiveness also depends on knowledge management (KM) practices and systems of the organizations. KM researchers frequently quote the kinds of knowledge discussed in KM process as: explicit knowledge, which is document-able and sharable knowledge through information technology; and tacit knowledge, which resides in the employee's mind, behavior, and perception (Yahya and Goh, 2002; Chaudhary, 2005). This organizational planning is also a pillar for managerial success (Blair, 1998). However, project managers are isolated from management stakeholder theory (Morgan and Morgan, 1991; Mustapha and Naoum, 1998). The results of managerial effectiveness studied in an industrial management setting are not directly applicable to the specific conditions of the construction industry

(Mustapha and Naoum, 1998). According to Boyatzis and Kolb (1995), the success for technical managers is associated with different characteristics as compared to technical managers with engineering responsibilities. This clearly indicates that managerial effectiveness is an industry specific concept. In the study authors summarized that managers' focus on attributes which are likely expectations of the stakeholders.

Singh, Narayan and Rangnekar (2007) in their study entitled 'Designing a knowledge management strategy for retailing business performances' reported that the retailers who are more involved in sales management and customer retention are more successful. Under an able leadership, the retailers can essentially manage well the resources like inventory, cash, employees and train them and work within the constraints.

Temtime and Pansiri (2006) in their paper entitled 'Perceived managerial problems in SMEs: evidence from Botswana' revealed that the performance and development of SMEs depend on managerial effectiveness. Managerial problems perceived by the SMEs were financing, competition, marketing, inventory, etc. The failure of small business was due to poor management and owners of SMEs needed to develop basic managerial skills and knowledge. The respondents in the study have clearly recognized the importance of managerial adequacy and competency as critical success factors. The managerial competency has been affected by seven factors related to two issues *viz.*, human resource development issues and organizational development issues. SMEs required effective managers who could implement the changes successfully with effective recruitment policies and practices.

2.3.2 Individual Characteristics & Locus of Control

Managerial effectiveness is influenced by internal and external locus of control. Locus of control is a prominent vital variable in affecting the managerial effectiveness (Rangnekar and Dhar, 2007). In an Indian study conducted by Srivastava and Sinha (2007) entitled 'Individual Characteristic for Managerial Effectiveness in a Competitive Environment: An Exploration' explored the relationship between certain individual level variables and managerial effectiveness variables. The individual level variables were values, needs, maturity, locus of control, work ethic, self-monitoring, learned helplessness, self-awareness, self-limiting behavior, and self-consciousness. Managerial effectiveness was conceptualized in terms of competence, satisfaction, conflict resolution, need fulfillment, value realization, self-concept and recognition. The findings of the study were that the individual variable contributes significantly towards the managerial effectiveness. The cross cultural variation also influences the relationship of personal variables over managerial effectiveness.

2.3.3 Managerial Skills

Analoui (1995a) in his paper entitled 'Management skills and senior management effectiveness' argued that managerial effectiveness is proportionately emphasized on the importance of technical or task-related knowledge and skills as a means of improving the performance. The most important factor which determined the motivation level of managers of Indian Railway Organization is to impress boss for higher rewards. Author viewed that technical effectiveness could be managed at individual level; however managerial effectiveness requires group potential and orientation. Managerial

effectiveness emphasizes more on decision and effective communication as compared to managing and motivating the subordinates. The executives of Indian Railway Organization showed more attachment to people-related skill than to task-related skills. The explanation given by them was that the perception at senior levels is more concerned with people management than with the management of technical aspects of the work. In managerial effectiveness, organizational culture also influences to a great extent. In Indian Railway Organization, managers have not linked themselves as a change agent for further development of the organization. This response might be due to rules and regulations of the organization. The parameters of managerial effectiveness perceived by Indian managers are decision making, effective communication, managing and motivating people, improving one's overall work, problem resolution, analysis of the organization, dealing with conflict, training and development of the employees, leading individuals and groups, managing finance and introduction and management of change. Managers also showed great interest in continuous self development through training and development programs. An important observation was that an increase in managerial effectiveness might improve perception of their competence. Managerial effectiveness ensures the effective completion of current tasks and responsibilities as well as results in enhanced career development. Suitable management training programs were for satisfying the needs of the managers (Analoui, 1990a).

Kumpusalo, Virjo, Mattila and Halila (2003) in a study entitled 'Managerial skills of principal physicians assessed by their colleagues', reported the views of the doctors regarding the managerial skills of their principal physicians and the view of their postgraduate specialist in management. A need was felt for physicians that their

involvement in health-care management required expertise in organizational management. Authors observed that little attention had been paid in medical schools to the way physicians learnt about administration, management and leadership (Kumpusalo et al., 1991; Hyppola et al., 1996). The claim that doctors were ill equipped for management had also been supported by studies from the USA (Lane and Ross, 1998) and the UK (Clack, 1994). The items of management to evaluate managerial effectiveness were vision of the future, planning of activities, organizing, delegating, motivating, communicating, follow up and evaluating and providing feed back. The results revealed that the managerial skill for their visions of the future was given top priority as compared to providing feed back. The responses given by female doctors in delegating, follow up and evaluating, motivating as well as in providing feed back were remarkably lower than scores given by males. The study concluded that an educational program in management and leadership was required to be provided as was introduced by Schwartz et al. (2000).

In the developing countries, the modern concepts of management and the managerial effectiveness are to be utilized for the benefit of the organizations (Moris, 1977). For managerial effectiveness, analytical and self development skills are essential for managers' efficient performance management.

2.3.4 Organizational Variables

Willcocks (1998) in his paper entitled 'Managerial effectiveness in an NHS Hospital Trust' viewed contested nature of managerial effectiveness. Author revealed the relationship between organizational variables as key components of managerial

effectiveness; on the optimum relationship between organizational sub systems, system and environment. The political theory frame work suggests that managerial effectiveness is more influenced by power and goals, in other words manager has to show central concern for group goals, values and expectations and translate them into organizational outcomes. In other words, managers ensure the diversity in uniformity. A tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity and to confront and manage conflict is required for high managerial effectiveness (Pfeffer, 1981). The managerial effectiveness is not value free or neutral; rather it is the result of differences in power and ideology. In a hospital system managerial effectiveness is essentially about contracts, customers and money. The clinical managers suggested that the environmental, personal and organizational variables have an important influence on managerial effectiveness.

2.3.5 Problem Solving

The managerial effectiveness aspect is also important for learners and practitioners of pharmacy discipline. The basic objective of educating executives from pharmacy is to improve their content knowledge as well as their higher cognitive level skills such as problem solving (Monk-Tutor, 2001). Latif (2002) in his paper on 'Model for teaching the management skills component of managerial effectiveness to pharmacy students' revealed that pharmacy students are also required to develop managerial skills. In this paper, the author has proposed a model based on social running theory (Bandura, 1977; Davis and Luthans, 1980; Kolb, 1984). The effective managers are different from ineffective managers and successful managers exhibit different multitude of behaviour (Robbins, and Hunsaker, 1996). According to Morse and Wagner (1978), the effective managers in addition to their managerial functions of planning, organizing, leading and

controlling also provide professional growth and development opportunities to their subordinates, motivate employees to perform well and encourage managerial effectiveness. The managers take responsibilities for their own decisions and ensure that subordinates use their decision making skills effectively. According to Minor and Smith (1982), motivation to manage comprises authority acceptance, competitive games, competitive situations, assertiveness, imposing wishes, distinctiveness and routine functions. A pharmacist enjoys these seven factors; it will be a good predictor for his willingness to engage in effective management behaviour. However, managers at different levels may need to be more proficient at some skills than others. For developing managerial skills in pharmaceutical students, skill assessment, skill learning, skill analysis, skill practice and skill application are to be accepted.

2.3.6 Adaptability

Under 'Research note: factorial constitution of managerial effectiveness - Re-examining an instrument in Indian context', Chauhan, Dhar and Pathak (2005) revealed that a manager must be highly adaptive in order to be effective. In this study, the authors attempted to re-examine the factorial structure of the instrument developed by Mott. Dealing with complex and ambiguous situations is a part of manager's job, as manager climbs up the ladder of complexity and ambiguity (Jaques, 1961; Katz and Kahn, 1978). Judge et. al. (1999) in their study hypothesized that managerial responses to organizational change are influenced by seven dispositional traits, i.e. locus of control, generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, positive affectivity, openness to experience, tolerance for ambiguity and risk aversion. According to Black and Edward (1979), the best way to measure effectiveness is by obtaining difference between the quantity

actually produced and the quantity planned. Hill (1979) had also viewed that an effective manager showed high concern for the people and the productivity. Margerison (1981) proposed that situation is important and if manager behaves appropriately in tune with the situation, then he is highly effective. Page et al. (2003) found that personal attributes of the individual support in various forms which is a key to influence the ability of an effective manager. Superior subordinate relationship and organizational culture emphasize on effectiveness of a manager. The success of manager is an interaction between managerial success and environmental factors. Seery et al. (2004) examined the notion that individuals with unstable high self esteem possess implicit self-doubt. Schleicher et al. (2004) concluded that affective-cognitive consistency is a significant moderator of the job satisfaction-job performance relationship with those employees higher in affective-cognitive consistency showing a significantly larger correlation between job satisfaction and performance than those lower in affective-cognitive consistency. According to Tsui et al. (1995) impression management plays a critical role in managerial effectiveness. Managers deal with different constituencies having different interest, demands and expectations. It is important to keep these constituencies satisfied because it is they (managers) who have the control over resources. To achieve results these resources are critical for performance, it becomes imperative for the managers to manage impression. Mott (1971) in his measures developed three dimensions of managerial effectiveness viz., productivity, flexibility and adaptability. Jain (1999) on the basis of factor analysis had identified three factors viz., functional effectiveness, interpersonal effectiveness and personal effectiveness. Rangnekar (1999) commented views on managerial effectiveness that behaviour and performance are directed by

organizational culture. The study concluded that for enhancing managerial effectiveness in both theoretical and practical terms it is essential to improve ones effectiveness in both dimensions i.e., functional as well as personal. Managers in a conducive work environment must use his education and apply his skill along with his ability to cope with varied situations.

2.3.7 Cross Culture & Emotional Intelligence

Shipper, Kincaid, Rotondo and Hoffman (2003) in their study entitled 'A cross cultural exploratory study of the linkage between emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness' examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness among three national cultures (Malaysia, UK and USA). Support was found for positive relationship between managerial effectiveness and emotional intelligence. The cultural differences influence the emotional intelligence of managers. Managers have self awareness of their skills which depends on values, attitudes and their beliefs. The cultural differences and self awareness have significant relationship. The cultural variations have been observed as important factors to influence managerial behaviour and skills. Different countries have different national cultures. The cross culture influences the social culture of the two nations and their inclusion in behaviour of managers may allow to take decisions differently. The emotional intelligence influences decision making styles of the managers who represent different cultures.

2.3.8 Eight Roles of Managerial Effectiveness

The managerial effectiveness depends on eight roles (Quinn, 1988 and Denison et. al., 1995). A study of managerial skills concluded that poor management in

organizations lead to poor economic performance (Greatorex et. al., 1994). The managerial effectiveness has significant roles of innovator, producer, director, coordinator and mentor. The male and female managers differ in their roles like female managers are more innovative, better able to clarify their goals and to provide direction accordingly. Female managers are also more capable in interpreting problems and bringing order to their area and more sensitive in caring for staff and showing concern. Managerial effectiveness must take into account the gender of both the parties in the role relationship. Self and significant positions in the organization are an important tool in the development of a manager's capability and affect managerial effectiveness accordingly (Vilkinas and Cartan, 1997).

2.3.9 Effective & Ineffective Managerial Behaviour

An empirical and comparative case study of UK local government entitled 'Generic behavioural criteria of managerial effectiveness' was conducted by Hamlin and Serventi (2008). The paper findings presented that the effective and ineffective behaviour affect the managerial effectiveness. In effective behaviour of managers, the considerations were - proactive deals with issues, praises staff regularly on achievements, supporting listening, proper planning, planned decision making, employees participation, training and development strategies, delegation. In ineffective behaviour the considerations were - avoiding poor performance issues, poor communication across teams, unable to say no (avoids conflicts and confrontation), undermines and manipulates, blames others for own poor work performance, fails to follow policies, procedures and rules, lack of interest, poor and ineffective planning and indecisive. The study summarized that effective managers required being proactive, fair and consistent in

their role and management of people. They should exhibit effective planning, preparation and information gathering. Quick decision and communication of the decision is also a style of effective manager. An effective manager shows a positive interest in the development of others, empowers staff at the time of change and shows a genuine interest for staff. Authors also suggested better social care of the employees makes a manager more effective. Leadership and management strategy is to be created and the creation of a new leadership and management academic was also suggested by the authors.

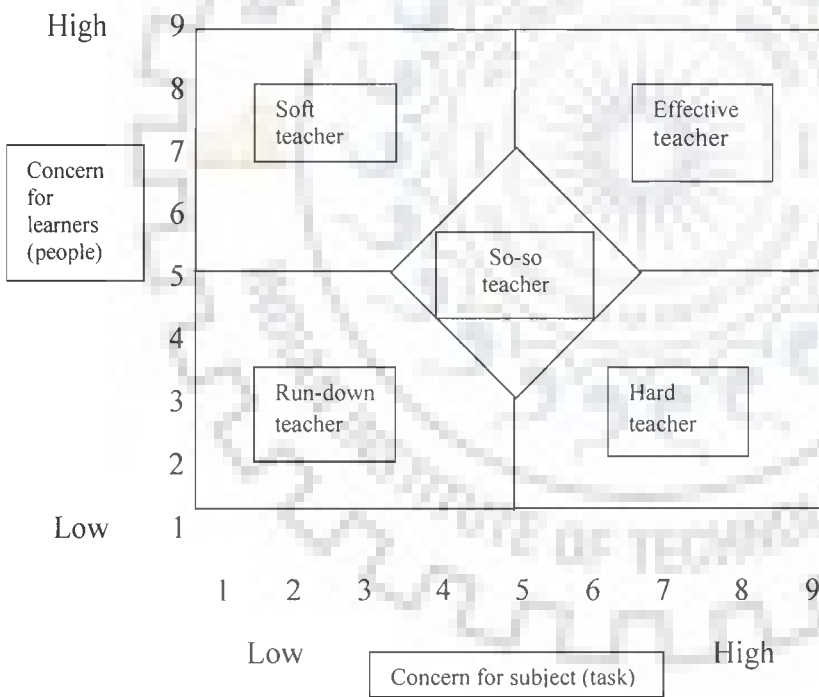
Narayan and Rangnekar (2008) in their paper entitled 'An empirical study of organizational climate, HRD climate and job involvement as predictors of managerial effectiveness' concluded that HRD climate is the most significant predictor for managerial effectiveness. Transparency is to be brought into the work culture of the government organizations. Work Culture can be maximized by striking a balance between formal relationship and informal work environment. There should be a participative management. With healthy interaction between subordinate and superior the organization will have motivating man power and knowledge sharing practices will be encouraged among the employees. The organization will be enriched by problem solving approaches and functional effectiveness of the managers will improve.

2.3.10 Leadership

Blake and Mouton (1985) developed the well known managerial grid which could be used to identify and describe managerial styles. This provided basis for managers to analyze and understand their effective leadership. Mcbeath (1990) suggested that there is a relationship between managerial styles, one's competence and overall effectiveness as a

manager. Analoui (1995b) in his paper entitled ‘Teachers as managers: an exploration into teaching styles’ applied the model of concern for production and concern for people and related it to teacher as a manager. McBeath (1990) suggested three criteria for increasing effectiveness of future managers namely flexibility, social or interpersonal skills and leadership. A teacher, like a contemporary manager, needs to have an intellectual as well as visionary grasp of the business of learning. Teachers are to be trained as managers at their work place to develop their learning situations and manage their careers effectively.

Figure 2.3.10: Teaching styles and management of learning situations



[Source: Analoui (1995b) Teachers as managers: an exploration into teaching styles]

The association between the organizational HRM system and employees’ commitment and motivation to develop human capital depends on the number of HRM

practices implemented in the firms (Pathak et al., 2005). The individual competency based approach to managerial effectiveness focuses upon the individual rather than the organization (Srivastava and Sinha, 2007).

Bishwas and Rangnekar (2009) conducted a study in the Madhya Pradesh region on the topic 'Job Involvement and Organization Culture: Predictors of Managerial Effectiveness in Manufacturing Industry'. The findings of their study revealed: job identification factor influences more on job involvement than job centrality; job identification and job centrality factors are highly correlated with each other; flexibility is considered as the highest factor for determination of managerial effectiveness; managerial effectiveness depends more on the organizational culture than on job involvement.

A part of this study - consisting of 48 middle and senior level executives of some of the Indian organizations who have been the part of the different training programs - was published as 'Organizational culture and job involvement as predictors of managerial effectiveness; an empirical study of power sector in India' in the Indian Journal of Training & Development (Narayan and Rangnekar, 2009). In that paper it was observed, "This study addressed the relationship between organizational culture and job involvement as independent variables for managerial effectiveness as dependent variables. Analysis showed high correlation between organizational culture and managerial effectiveness while that between job involvement and managerial effectiveness was found to be low. It might be because the respondents were from public sector and public sectors in India are more bureaucratic in working. The job involvement was found to be low because respondents have more job centrality than job identification.

Therefore, we can conclude that the organizational culture has more influence on managerial effectiveness than job involvement.” (Narayan and Rangnekar, 2009). The public sector culture has less experimentation orientation; the similar results are also reported by other researchers (Perry and Rainey, 1988). The autonomy has been found low because public organizations are more bureaucratic in nature.

No research has been carried out to study the relationship of organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness. To fill this gap there is a need to study the impact of organizational culture and job involvement on managerial effectiveness.



METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Study

The Chapters 1 describes the concepts of this study i.e., the managerial effectiveness and its independent variables - job involvement and organizational culture. The Chapter 2 (Literature Review) ended with the need of a study of Indian organizations to understand the roles of the independent variables namely job involvement and organizational culture as predictors of managerial effectiveness. The present study investigates and visualizes an effective manager and the factors which make a manager more productive in the organization.

3.2 The Objectives

The following are the objectives of the study:

- (i) To study the organizational culture in select Indian organizations.
- (ii) To study the job involvement of executives in select Indian organizations.
- (iii) To study the managerial effectiveness of executives in select Indian organizations.
- (iv) To study the organizational culture and job involvement as predictors of managerial effectiveness.
- (v) To study the relationship between managerial effectiveness and its component factors.

3.3 The Sample

The elements of the universe are comprised of middle and senior level executives. A total of 308 samples were collected and after elimination of the incomplete samples finally 286 samples were analyzed. The demographic profile of the respondents is given in Table 3.3. The samples were from manufacturing as well as non-manufacturing organizations and were from the different states of India like Uttarakhand, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Orissa, Delhi, etc.

Table 3.3: Demographic profile of the respondents

Sl. No.	Variable	Number	Percentage	
1.	Age (years)	Less than 30	062	021.68%
		30-40	067	023.43%
		41-50	071	024.82%
		Above 50	083	029.02%
		Non-respondents	003	001.05%
		Total	286	100.00%
2.	Gender	Male	267	093.36%
		Female	017	005.94%
		Non-respondents	002	000.70%
		Total	286	100.00%
3.	Qualifications	Up to Graduate	178	062.24%
		Post Graduate	104	036.36%
		Doctorate	004	001.40%
		Non-respondents	000	000.00%
		Total	286	100.00%

4.	Rank	Middle level managers	133	046.50%
		Senior level managers	152	053.15%
		Non-respondents	001	000.35%
		Total	286	100.00%
5.	Experience (years)	Up to 10 years	090	031.47%
		11- 20 years	063	022.03%
		21 -30 years	077	026.92%
		Above 30 years	040	013.99%
		Non-respondents	016	005.59%
		Total	286	100.00%

3.4 The Data Collection Tools

Three standardized scales were administered on each subject of the sample. The details of the tools are as under:

1. OCTAPACE profile scale (OC)
2. Job involvement scale (JIS)
3. Managerial effectiveness scale (ME)

1. OCTAPACE profile

Profile

Tool: OCTAPACE profile scale

Author: Udai Pareek

Nature: Verbal

Structure: Forty items

Duration: No limited time

Reliability coefficient: High

Validity: High

Source: Pareek, U. (2002). Training Instruments in HRD and OD. 2nd Edition (Eleventh reprint 2008). Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Limited: New Delhi.

Description

(i) The scale is self administering.

(ii) The subject is asked to interpret each item for himself/herself.

(iii) Responses are in terms of selecting any one of the four choices, focus is laid on individual's reactions to different situations. The purpose of the test is not disclosed to him/her.

(iv) Unwarranted apprehensions or expectations are not raised in the mind of the subject.

(v) The scale yields the profile of organization's ethos in eight factors. These factors are – *openness, confrontation, trust, authenticity, proaction, autonomy, collaboration and experimentation.*

Administration

(i) The instructions printed on the scale are sufficient to take care of the questions that are asked.

(ii) After establishing rapport, the subjects are asked to mark each item with any of the four choices.

(iii) There are no right or wrong answers to the statements or items.

Scoring

(i) Scoring is done manually.

(ii) Responses are in terms of selecting *highly valued (4)*, *if it is given a fairly high value (3)*, *if it is given a rather low value (2)* and *if it is given a very low value (1)*.

(iii) The items numbered 25, 26, 35, 12, 28, 14, 22, 30, 23, 31, and 40 are first reversed so that 4 becomes 1, 3 becomes 2, 2 becomes 3 and 1 becomes 4. Rest of the items are awarded scores in the numerical order 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

(iv) The sum of all the 40 items gives the organization's ethos in eight factors.

Openness: 1,9,17, 25*, 33.

Confrontation: 2, 10, 18, 26*, 34.

Trust: 3, 11, 19, 27, 35*.

Authenticity: 4, 12*, 20, 28*, 36.

Proaction: 5, 13, 21, 29, 37.

Autonomy: 6, 14*, 22*, 30*, 38.

Collaboration: 7, 15, 23*, 31*, 39.

Experimentation: 8, 16, 24, 32, 40*.

2. Job involvement scale

Profile

Tool: Job Involvement Scale

Authors: Santosh Dhar, Upinder Dhar and D.K.Srivastava

Nature: Verbal

Structure: Ten items

Duration: No limited time

Reliability coefficient: High

Validity: High

Source: Dhar, S., Dhar, U. and Srivastava, D.K. (2001). Job Involvement Scale. Ankur Psychological Agency, Lucknow.

Description

- (i) The scale is self administering.
- (ii) The subject is asked to interpret each item for himself/herself.
- (iii) The subject is expected to tick mark one of the five responses. The purpose of the test is not disclosed to him/her.
- (iv) Unwarranted apprehensions or expectations are not raised in the mind of the subject.

- (v) The scale is the measure of job involvement by two factors viz, *Identification with the Job and Job Centricity*.

Administration

- (i) The instructions printed on the scale are sufficient to take care of the questions that are asked.
- (ii) After establishing rapport, the subjects are asked to tick mark their choices on the space provided against each statement.
- (iii) There are no right or wrong answers to the statements or items.

Scoring

- (i) Scoring is done manually.
- (ii) The items are answered in terms of *strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree* and they are awarded the score of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1, respectively.
- (iii) The sum of all the scores or points of the ten items is job involvement score. Higher the score, more is the job involvement of the subject, whereas lower the score less is the job involvement of the subject.

Job Identification factor = Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 9.

Job Centricity factor = Items 2, 7, 8, 10.

3. Managerial effectiveness scale

Profile

Tool : Managerial Effectiveness Scale

Author : E.P.Mott

Nature	: Verbal
Structure	: Eight sets of items with five choices each.
Duration	: No time limit
Reliability	: High
Validity	: High
Source	: Mott, E.P. (1971). <i>The Characteristics of Effective Organisations</i> . New York: Harper and Row.

Description

- (i) The scale is self administering. Mott (1971) has validated the scale by using factor analysis and has shown that there are basically three dimensions of effectiveness (factors), namely productivity, flexibility and adaptability.
- (ii) The subject is asked to interpret each set of five items for himself/herself.
- (iii) Responses are in terms of selecting any one of the five statements. Focus is laid on individual's reactions to different situations. It is not desirable to tell the subjects the exact purpose for which the tool is used.
- (iv) Unwarranted expectations or apprehensions are not raised in the mind of the subject.
- (v) The scale yields the measure of managerial effectiveness.

Administration

- (i) The instructions printed on the scale are sufficient to take care of the questions that are asked.

(ii) After establishing rapport, the subjects are asked to tick mark his or her choice against any of the five statements in each set.

(iii) There is no right or wrong answer to the statements or items.

Scoring

(i) Scoring is done manually.

(ii) Each set of items is checked in terms of 'tick-mark' against it.

(iii) 1, 2, 4 and 6 sets of items are awarded the scores in reverse order, i.e. 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively, whereas 3, 5, 7 and 8 sets of items are awarded scores in the normal numerical order i.e., 1,2,3,4 and 5, respectively.

(iv) The sum of all the eight scores is total managerial effectiveness score.

Productivity factor = Items 1, 3, 5

Flexibility factor = Items 2, 4, 6

Adaptability factor = Items 7, 8.

3.5 The Data Analysis

Data were analyzed through the statistical tools like correlation analysis, regression analysis and ANOVA test to achieve the objectives of the study with the help of SPSS 15.0.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Accomplishing the objective (i); study of organizational culture in select Indian organizations

The OCTAPACE profile comprised of 40 items distributed into 8 factors viz., openness, confrontation, trust, authenticity, proaction, autonomy, collaboration and experimentation. To identify the consistency amongst the items, the 40 items of the OCTAPACE scale were analyzed for reliability statistics and the results revealed the value of Cronbach's alpha (α) as .812 (Table 4.1.2).

Table 4.1.1: Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	286	100.0
	Excluded(a)	0	.0
	Total	286	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 4.1.2: Reliability Statistics of OCTAPACE Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.812	40

Each factor of OCTAPACE scale contains 5 items with the possible score of a minimum of 5 and a maximum of 20. The total respondents were 286 in number. As a result, for each factor the range of score is 1430 to 5720. The authenticity factor has been

found lowest (3559/5720, 62.22%) while proaction factor has been found highest (4501/5720, 78.69%) amongst all the other factors of the scale (Figure 4.1.1). The other factors have been responded in the range of 3562 to 4191 (Figure 4.1.1). In the organizational culture, the practices for preventive action are encouraged because of strong competitiveness in the market. Also the influence of economic recession in the current scenario cannot be ignored. The confrontation and trust factors were found to be more conducive with openness and collaboration. The experimentation (3915/5720, 68.44%) in Indian context is less practiced as compared to other factors.

Figure 4.1.1: Factors of OCTAPACE scale



The autonomy factor (62.27%) of the OCTAPACE scale is found higher than authenticity factor (62.22%) (Figure 4.1.1). This finding is in agreement with the earlier western studies where supportive cultures were predominantly associated with higher

levels of job satisfaction and performance, while bureaucratic culture did the opposite (Brewer and Clippard, 2002; Krausz et al., 1995; London and Larsen, 1999; Silverthorne, 2004; Trice and Beyer, 1993). In another similar study, Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2003) found that a supportive culture positively influences affective commitment, whereas an entrepreneur (innovative) culture did otherwise. In our study, the items - independent action (70.45%) and motivation through autonomy (76.66%) - have received higher responses to strengthen the autonomy factor of the OCTAPACE scale.

As shown in Table 4.1.3, the overall organizational culture (OCTAPACE) has high significant correlation with openness (.727**), confrontation (.833**), trust (.707**), authenticity (.530**), proaction (.743**), autonomy (.185**), collaboration (.635**) and experimentation (.804**). Openness has high significant correlation with confrontation (.544**), trust (.418**), authenticity (.298**), proaction (.481**), collaboration (.395**) and experimentation (.558**). Confrontation has significant correlation with trust (.572**), authenticity (.389**), proaction (.544**), collaboration (.454**) and experimentation (.646**). Trust has shown significant correlation with authenticity (.279**), proaction (.425**), collaboration (.342**) and experimentation (.497**). Authenticity has significant correlation with proaction (.327**), collaboration (.211**) and experimentation (.335**). Proaction has shown significant correlation with collaboration (.446**) and experimentation (.596**). Interestingly, autonomy has shown no significant correlation with any of the factors. Collaboration shows a significant correlation with experimentation (.444**).

Table 4.1.3: Correlations of OCTAPACE Scale

		Openness	Confrontation	Trust	Authenticity	Proaction	Autonomy	Collaboration	Experimentation	OCTAPACE
Openness	Pearson Correlation	1	.544(**)	.418(**)	.298(**)	.481(**)	.044	.395(**)	.558(**)	.727(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.460	.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286
Confrontation	Pearson Correlation	.544(**)	1	.572(**)	.389(**)	.544(**)	.103	.454(**)	.646(**)	.833(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.082	.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286
Trust	Pearson Correlation	.418(**)	.572(**)	1	.279(**)	.425(**)	.093	.342(**)	.497(**)	.707(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.116	.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286
Authenticity	Pearson Correlation	.298(**)	.389(**)	.279(**)	1	.327(**)	.009	.211(**)	.335(**)	.530(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.881	.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286
Proaction	Pearson Correlation	.481(**)	.544(**)	.425(**)	.327(**)	1	-.111	.446(**)	.596(**)	.743(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.061	.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286
Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	.044	.103	.093	.009	-.111	1	.065	-.012	.185(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.460	.082	.116	.881	.061		.274	.841	.002
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286
Collaboration	Pearson Correlation	.395(**)	.454(**)	.342(**)	.211(**)	.446(**)	.065	1	.444(**)	.635(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.274		.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286
Experimentation	Pearson Correlation	.558(**)	.646(**)	.497(**)	.335(**)	.596(**)	-.012	.444(**)	1	.804(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.841	.000		.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286
OCTAPACE	Pearson Correlation	.727(**)	.833(**)	.707(**)	.530(**)	.743(**)	.185(**)	.635(**)	.804(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The importance attached to managerial skills was significant to strategic managerial view. The results of the OCTAPACE scale have supported the contribution of organizational culture for effective job performances.

On inter-item analysis of the openness factor (Figure 4.1.2), it was found that the solving problems through effective communication item was responded with the maximum score (954/1144, 83.39%), as compared to free interaction (907/1144, 79.28%), free communication (882/1144, 77.10%), sharing of information (845/1144, 73.86%) and non-expression of feelings (603/1144, 52.71%). The respondents have shown good interpersonal relationship between superior and subordinates through free and effective communication. The free interaction and sharing of information also encourages opportunity for knowledge management practices. Respondents have interestingly shown least score for non-expression of feelings.

Figure 4.1.2: Items of Openness Factor of OCTAPACE scale

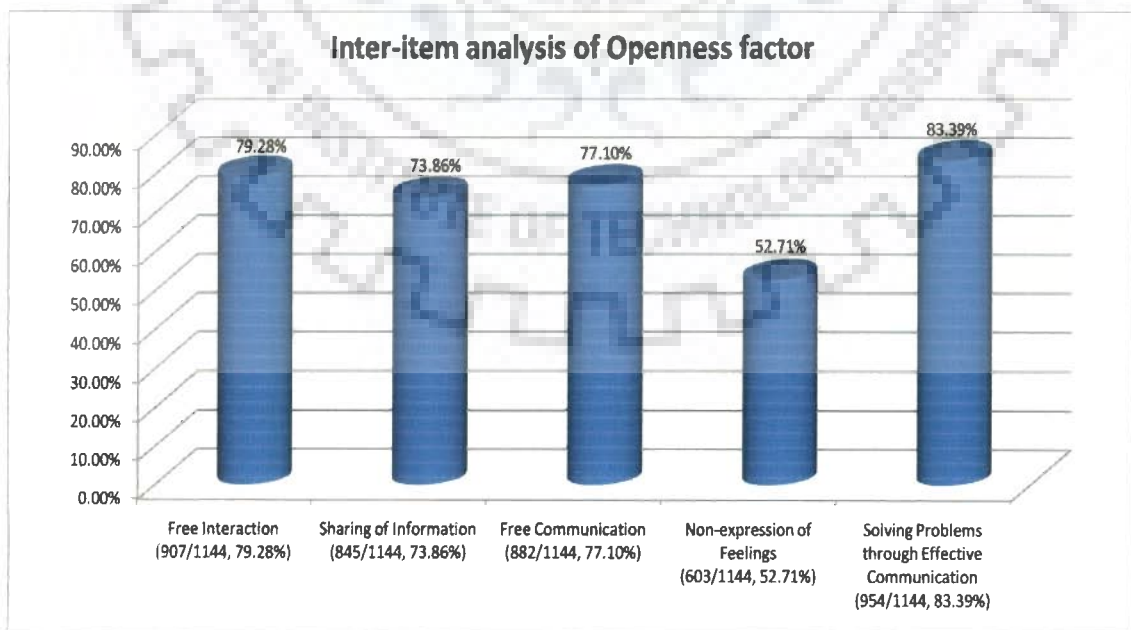


Table 4.1.4: Inter-item correlations of Openness Factor of OCTAPACE

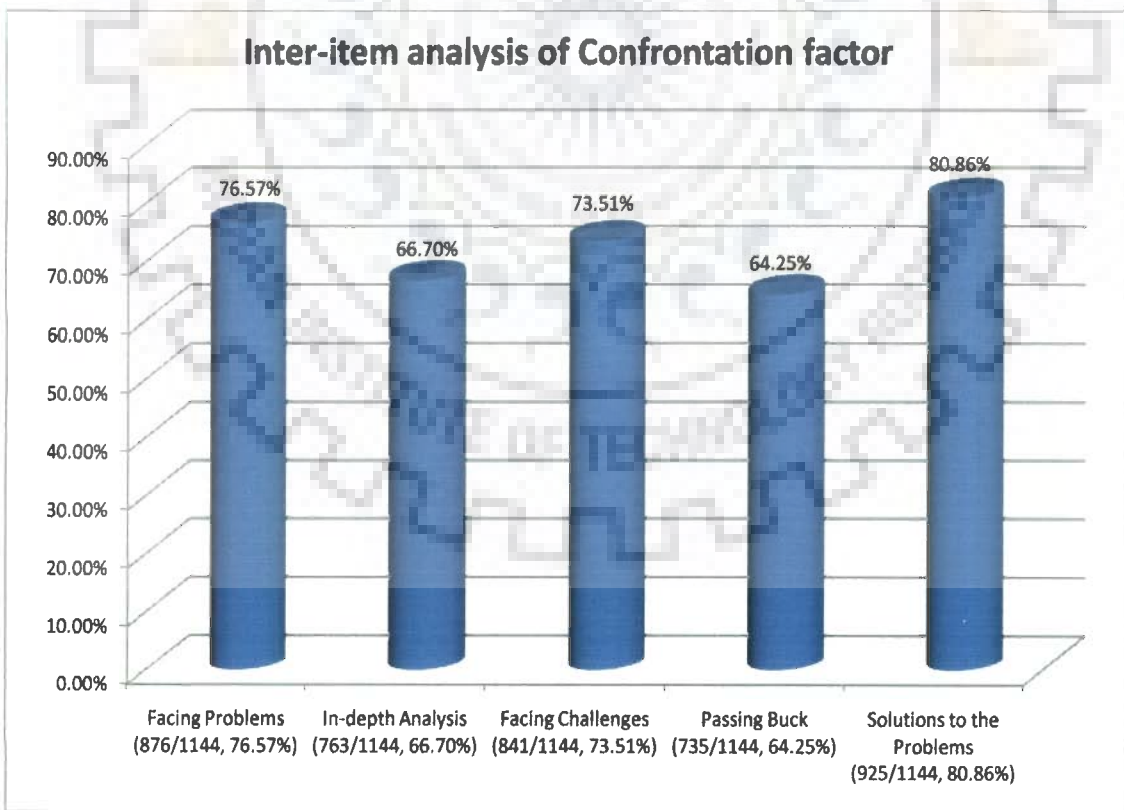
		Free_ Interaction	Sharing_of_ Information	Free_ Communication	Non_ expression_ of_ feelings	Solving_ Problems_ through_ Effective_ Communication
Free_ Interaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.391(**)	.391(**)	-.208(**)	.136(*)
	Sig. (2- tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.021
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Sharing_of_ Information	Pearson Correlation	.391(**)	1	.337(**)	-.104	.320(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000		.000	.078	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Free_ Communication	Pearson Correlation	.391(**)	.337(**)	1	-.115	.310(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000		.051	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Non_ expression_of_ feelings	Pearson Correlation	-.208(**)	-.104	-.115	1	-.041
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.078	.051		.490
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Solving_ Problems_ through_ Effective_ Communication	Pearson Correlation	.136(*)	.320(**)	.310(**)	-.041	1
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.021	.000	.000	.490	
	N	286	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.1.4, free interaction has shown significant correlation with sharing of information (.391**), free communication (.391**), solving problems through effective communication (.136*) and negative significant correlation with non-expression of feelings (-.208**). Sharing of information has shown significant correlation with free communication (.337**) and solving problems through effective communication (.320**). Free communication has shown significant correlation with solving problems through effective communication (.310**). The openness culture is favoured and practiced by sharing of information, understanding and analyzing the problems. The solutions to the problems are explored to create the transparency in the work environment.

Figure 4.1.3: Items of Confrontation Factor of OCTAPACE scale



On inter-item analysis of the confrontation factor (Figure 4.1.3), it was found that

the solutions to the problems item was responded with the maximum score (925/1144, 80.86%), as compared to facing problems (876/1144, 76.57%), facing challenges (841/1144, 73.51%), in-depth analysis (763/1144, 66.70%) and passing buck (735/1144, 64.25%). The respondents were more keen to finding out the solutions to the problems by facing them and accepting them as challenges. The tendency to pass the buck upon was found to be the least. The chances of the confrontation were less as the respondents were sincere to bear their responsibilities.

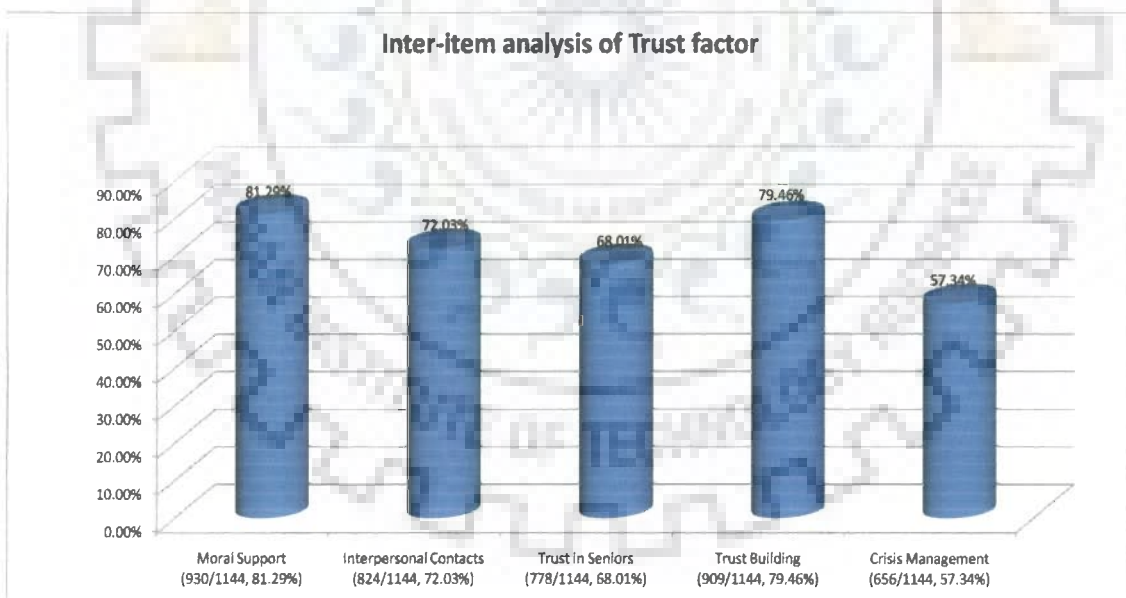
Table 4.1.5: Inter-item correlations of Confrontation Factor of OCTAPACE

		Facing_ Problems	In_depth_ Analysis	Facing_ Challenges	Passing_Buck	Solutions_to _the_ Problems
Facing_ Problems	Pearson Correlation	1	.327(**)	.341(**)	-.045	.309(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.446	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
In_depth_ Analysis	Pearson Correlation	.327(**)	1	.292(**)	-.017	.295(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.772	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Facing_ Challenges	Pearson Correlation	.341(**)	.292(**)	1	.068	.371(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.251	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Passing_ Buck	Pearson Correlation	-.045	-.017	.068	1	-.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.446	.772	.251		.672
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Solutions_to _the_ Problems	Pearson Correlation	.309(**)	.295(**)	.371(**)	-.025	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.672	
	N	286	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.1.5, the item facing problems has significant correlation with in depth analysis (.327**), facing challenges (.341**), solutions to the problems (.309**). The correlation between facing problem and passing buck is found negative (-.045), which indicates that respondents are capable of facing the problems and avoid passing the buck; these findings are also supported under inter-item analysis of confrontation factor. In-depth analysis has shown a significant correlation with facing challenges (.292**), and solutions to the problems (.295**). In-depth analysis also shows a negative correlation with passing buck (-.017). Facing challenges shows a significant correlation with in-depth analysis (.292**) and with solutions to the problems (.371**). Passing buck shows negative correlation with solutions to the problems (-.025).

Figure 4.1.4: Items of Trust Factor of OCTAPACE scale



On inter-item analysis of the trust factor (Figure 4.1.4), it was found that the moral support item was responded with the maximum score (930/1144, 81.29%), as compared to trust building (909/1144, 79.46%), interpersonal contacts (824/1144, 72.03%), trust in seniors (778/1144, 68.01%) and crisis management (656/1144,

57.34%). The moral of the respondents was found on a higher side. An environment of trust building was created through strong interpersonal contacts. However, the respondents have shown least ability to manage crisis.

Table 4.1.6: Inter-item correlations of Trust Factor of OCTAPACE

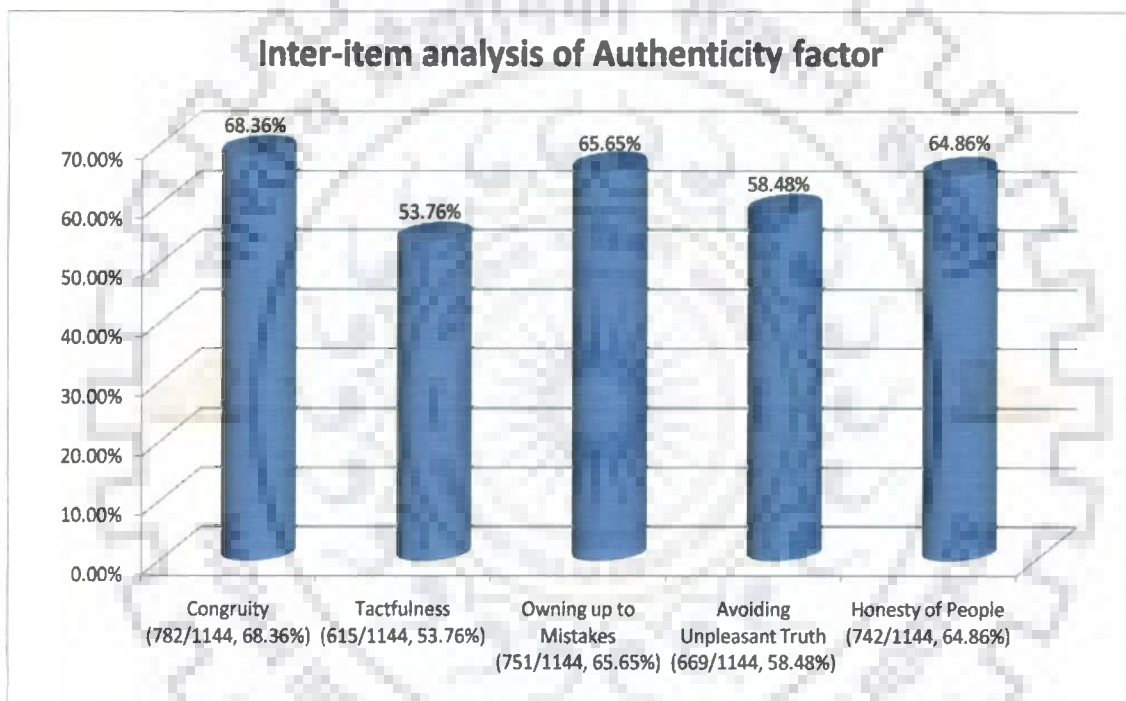
		Moral_ Support	Interpersonal_ Contacts	Trust_in_ Seniors	Trust_ Building	Crisis_ Management
Moral_ Support	Pearson Correlation	1	.315(**)	.260(**)	.183(**)	-.076
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.002	.200
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Interpersonal_ Contacts	Pearson Correlation	.315(**)	1	.343(**)	.200(**)	-.064
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.001	.283
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Trust_in_ Seniors	Pearson Correlation	.260(**)	.343(**)	1	.275(**)	-.107
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.070
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Trust_Building	Pearson Correlation	.183(**)	.200(**)	.275(**)	1	-.110
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.001	.000		.063
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Crisis_ Management	Pearson Correlation	-.076	-.064	-.107	-.110	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.200	.283	.070	.063	
	N	286	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.1.6, moral support item of trust factor of organizational culture has shown significant correlations with interpersonal contacts (.315**), trust in seniors (.260**) and trust building (.183**). Interpersonal contacts has shown significant correlations with trust in seniors (.343**) and trust building (.200**). Trust in seniors has shown a significant correlation with trust building (.275**). Crisis management has

shown negative correlations with moral support (-.076), interpersonal contacts (-.064), trust in seniors (-.107) and trust building (-.110). The crisis management has found least score from the respondents which is also obvious from inter-item analysis of trust factor. According to managerial concepts, the respondents require a training and development program on crisis management.

Figure 4.1.5: Items of Authenticity Factor of OCTAPACE scale



On inter-item analysis of the authenticity factor (Figure 4.1.5), it was found that the congruity item was responded with the maximum score (782/1144, 68.36%), as compared to owning up to mistakes (751/1144, 65.65%), honesty of people (742/1144, 64.86%), avoiding unpleasant truth (669/1144, 58.48%) and tactfulness (615/1144, 53.76%). The respondents exhibited high congruity i.e., they showed minimum gap between what they said and did. They were found less tactful to get the jobs done. The respondents avoided telling the unpleasant truth.

Table 4.1.7: Inter-item correlations of Authenticity Factor of OCTAPACE

		Congruity	Tactfulness	Owning_up_to_Mistakes	Avoiding_Unpleasant_Truth	Honesty_of_People
Congruity	Pearson Correlation	1	-.319(**)	.282(**)	-.179(**)	.305(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.002	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Tactfulness	Pearson Correlation	-.319(**)	1	-.193(**)	.181(**)	-.189(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.001	.002	.001
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Owning_up_to_Mistakes	Pearson Correlation	.282(**)	-.193(**)	1	-.128(*)	.231(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001		.030	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Avoiding_Unpleasant_Truth	Pearson Correlation	-.179(**)	.181(**)	-.128(*)	1	-.209(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.002	.030		.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Honesty_of_People	Pearson Correlation	.305(**)	-.189(**)	.231(**)	-.209(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.000	
	N	286	286	286	286	286

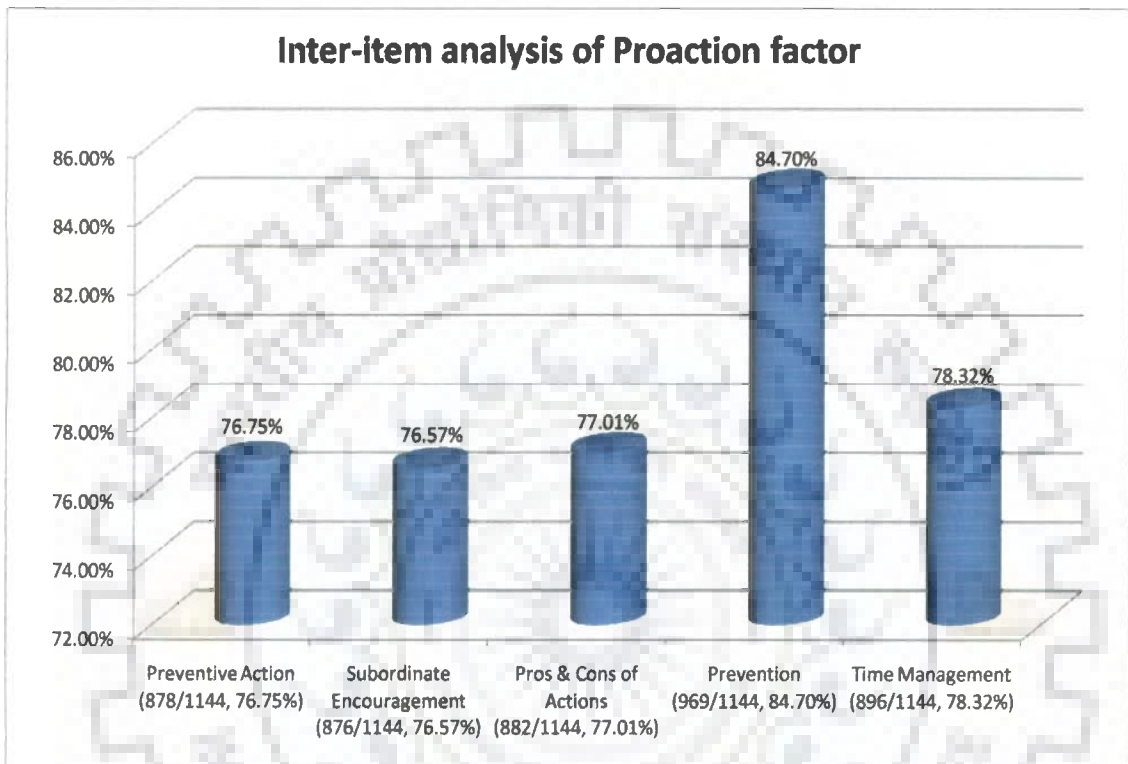
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.1.7, the congruity item of authenticity factor has shown positive and significant correlation with owning up to mistakes (.282**) and honesty of people (.305**). It has shown negative and significant correlations with tactfulness (-.319**) and avoiding unpleasant truth (-.179**). Tactfulness shows a significant correlation with avoiding unpleasant truth (.181**) and negative correlation with owning up to mistakes (-.193**) and honesty of people (-.189**). Owning up to mistakes has negative correlation with avoiding unpleasant truth (-.128*) at the 0.05 level. It shows

significant correlation with honesty of people (.231**). The avoiding unpleasant truth item shows negative and significant correlation with honesty of people (-.209**).

Figure 4.1.6: Items of Proaction Factor of OCTAPACE scale



On inter-item analysis of the proaction factor (Figure 4.1.6), it was found that the prevention item was responded with the maximum score (969/1144, 84.70%), as compared to time management (896/1144, 78.32%), pros & cons of actions (882/1144, 77.01%), preventive action (878/1144, 76.75%) and subordinate encouragement (876/1144, 76.57%). The respondents preferred prevention and preventive action which is also justified through problem solving approach of confrontation factor.

As shown in Table 4.1.8, preventive action has shown a significant correlation with subordinate encouragement (.289**), pros & cons of actions (.223**), prevention (.183**) and time management (.181**). Subordinate encouragement has shown a

significant correlation with pros & cons of actions (.240**), prevention (.293**) and time management (.248**). Pros & cons of actions has shown a significant correlation with prevention (.223**), and time management (.134*). Prevention has shown a significant correlation with time management (.412**). The respondents are strong in preventive and proaction and are capable to manage their time with practices of encouraging subordinates. The respondents have shown concern for pros & cons of their actions.

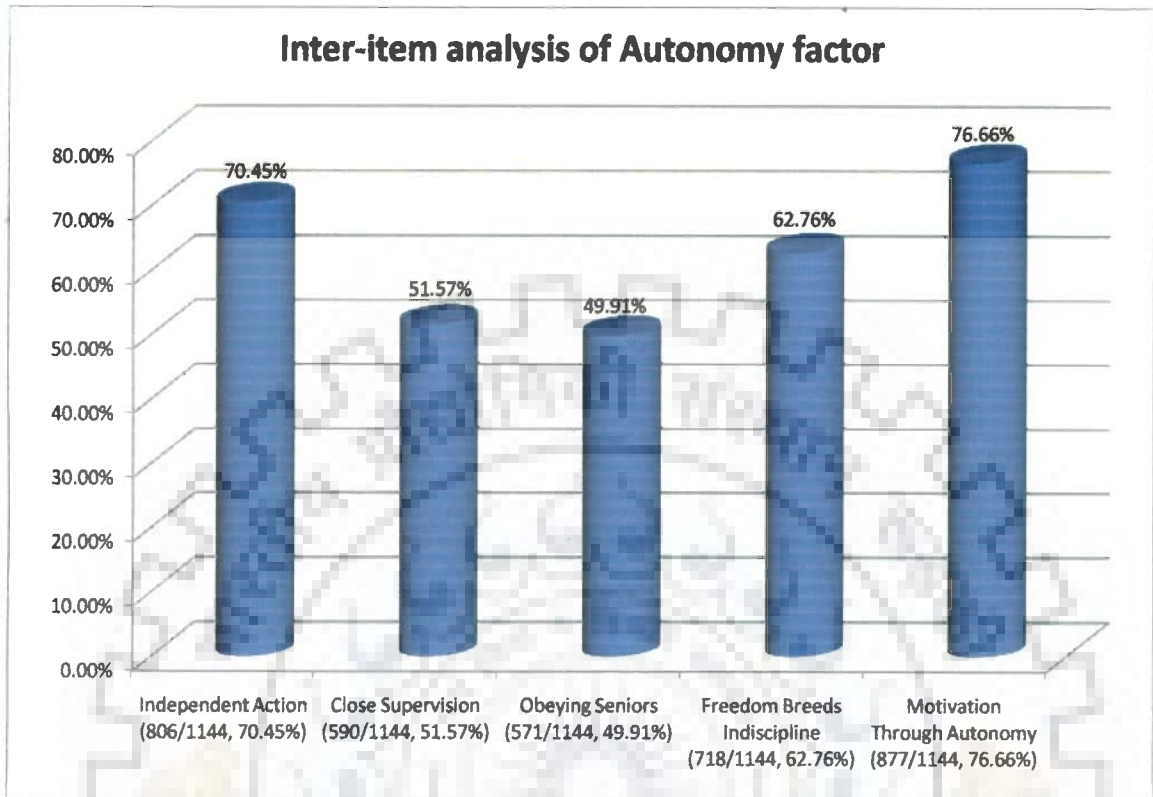
Table 4.1.8: Inter-item correlations of Proaction Factor of OCTAPACE

		Preventive _Action	Subordinate_ Encouragement	Pros_and_ Cons_of_ Actions	Prevention	Time_ Management
Preventive_ Action	Pearson Correlation	1	.289(**)	.223(**)	.183(**)	.181(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.002	.002
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Subordinate_ Encouragement	Pearson Correlation	.289(**)	1	.240(**)	.293(**)	.248(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Pros_and_ Cons_of_ Actions	Pearson Correlation	.223(**)	.240(**)	1	.223(**)	.134(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.023
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Prevention	Pearson Correlation	.183(**)	.293(**)	.223(**)	1	.412(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000		.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Time_ Management	Pearson Correlation	.181(**)	.248(**)	.134(*)	.412(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.023	.000	
	N	286	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure 4.1.7: Items of Autonomy Factor of OCTAPACE scale



On inter-item analysis of the autonomy factor (Figure 4.1.7), it was found that the motivation through autonomy item was responded with the maximum score (877/1144, 76.66%), as compared to independent action (806/1144, 70.45%), freedom breeds indiscipline (718/1144, 62.76%), close supervision (590/1144, 51.57%) and obeying seniors (571/1144, 49.91%). The respondents were found to be highly motivated and exercised their autonomy; as a result obeying seniors was given least weight-age. The close supervision was rejected and more freedom was preferred by the respondents.

As shown in Table 4.1.9, independent action has shown significant correlation with motivation through autonomy (.176**), however it has shown negative significant correlation with close supervision (-.314**), obeying seniors (-.149*) and freedom breeds

indiscipline (-.174**). Close supervision has shown significant correlation with obeying

Table 4.1.9: Inter-item correlations of Autonomy Factor of OCTAPACE

		Independent _Action	Close_ Supervision	Obeying_ Seniors	Freedom_ Breeds_ Indiscipline	Motivation_ Through_ Autonomy
Independent _Action	Pearson Correlation	1	-.314(**)	-.149(*)	-.174(**)	.176(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)		.000	.012	.003	.003
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Close_ Supervision	Pearson Correlation	-.314(**)	1	.292(**)	.080	-.138(*)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000		.000	.179	.020
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Obeying_ Seniors	Pearson Correlation	-.149(*)	.292(**)	1	.074	-.053
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.012	.000		.210	.376
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Freedom_ Breeds_ Indiscipline	Pearson Correlation	-.174(**)	.080	.074	1	-.154(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.003	.179	.210		.009
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Motivation_ Through_ Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	.176(**)	-.138(*)	-.053	-.154(**)	1
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.003	.020	.376	.009	
	N	286	286	286	286	286

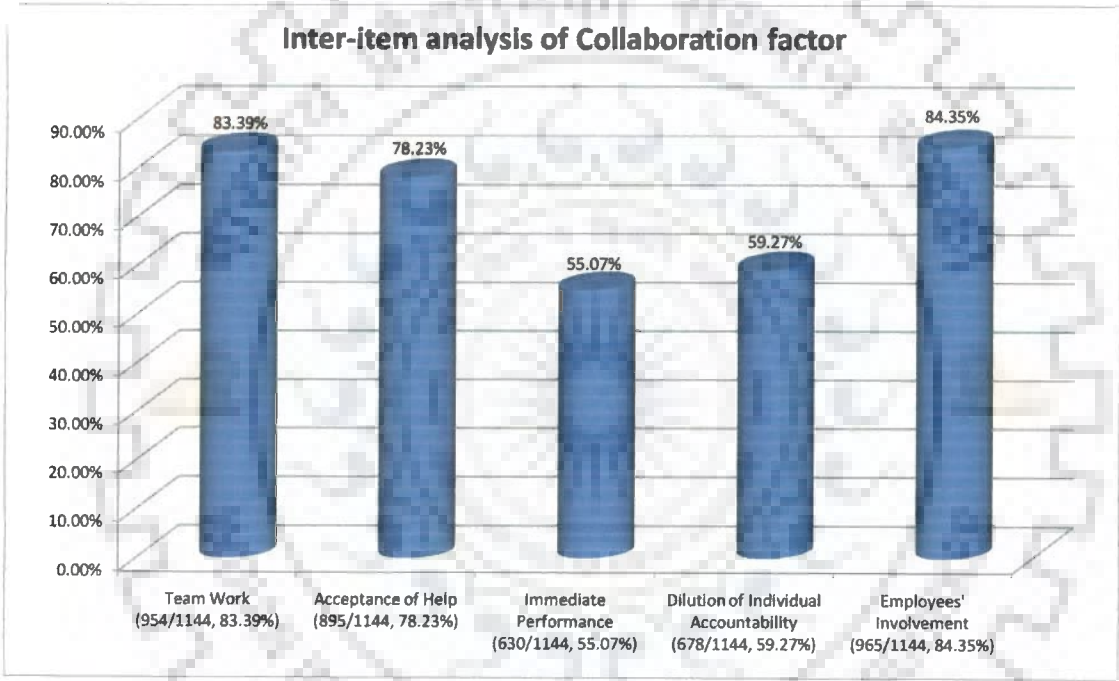
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

seniors (.292**), and negative significant correlation with motivation through autonomy (-.138*). Obeying seniors does not show significant correlation with freedom breeds

indiscipline and motivation through autonomy. Freedom breeds indiscipline shows negative significant correlation with motivation through autonomy. It is obvious that independent action and motivation through autonomy values are preferred by the respondents and close supervision obeying seniors and freedom breeds indiscipline are rejected.

Figure 4.1.8: Items of Collaboration Factor of OCTAPACE scale



On inter-item analysis of the collaboration factor (Figure 4.1.8), it was found that the employees' involvement item was responded with the maximum score (965/1144, 84.35%), as compared to team work (954/1144, 83.39%), acceptance of help (895/1144, 78.23%), dilution of individual accountability (678/1144, 59.27%) and immediate performance (630/1144, 55.07%). The employees' involvement in developing organizational mission and goals contributing to productivity was found highest. The

respondents focused more on immediate performance as compared to long term organizational goals.

Table 4.1.10: Inter-item correlations of Collaboration Factor of OCTAPACE

		Team_ Work	Acceptance_ of_Help	Immediate_ Performance	Dilution_of_ Individual_ Accountability	Involvement_ of_ Employees
Team_Work	Pearson Correlation	1	.292(**)	-.119(*)	-.182(**)	.390(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.045	.002	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Acceptance_of _Help	Pearson Correlation	.292(**)	1	-.205(**)	-.276(**)	.282(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Immediate_ Performance	Pearson Correlation	-.119(*)	-.205(**)	1	.203(**)	-.104
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.000		.001	.080
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Dilution_of_ Individual_ Accountability	Pearson Correlation	-.182(**)	-.276(**)	.203(**)	1	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.001		.433
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Involvement_of _Employees	Pearson Correlation	.390(**)	.282(**)	-.104	-.047	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.080	.433	
	N	286	286	286	286	286

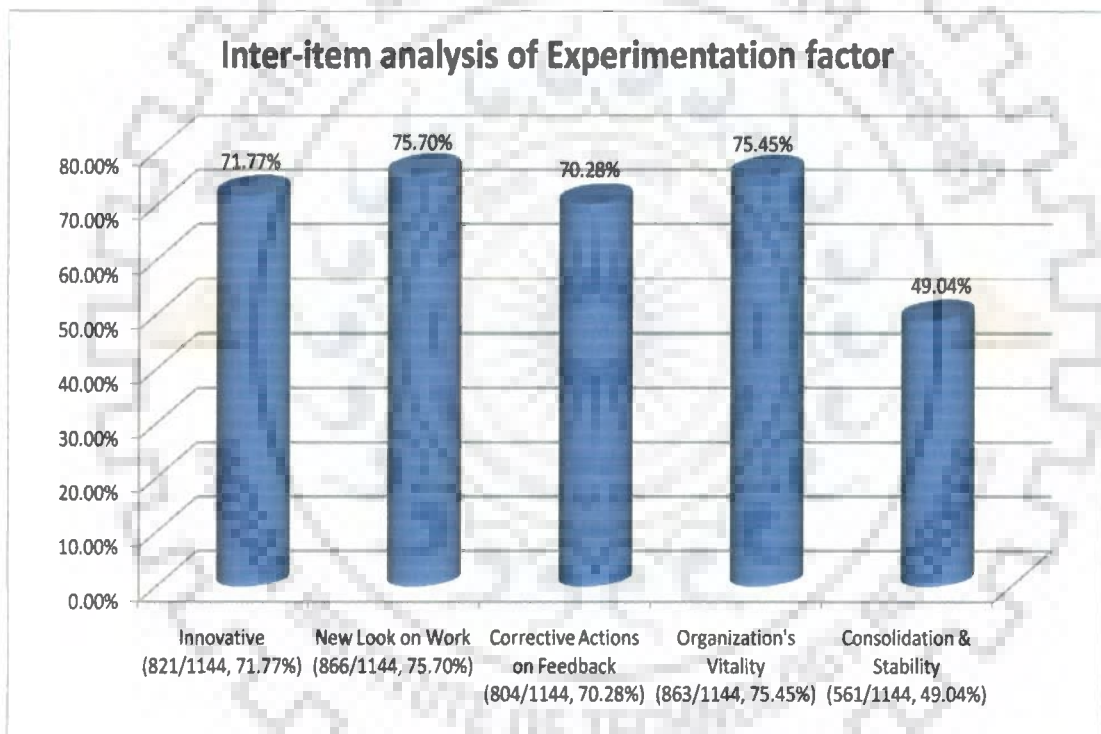
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.1.10, team work has a significant correlation with acceptance of help (.292**) and involvement of employees (.390**), and negative significant correlation with immediate performance (-.119*) and dilution of individual accountability (-.182**). Acceptance of help shows significant correlation with involvement of employees (.282**) and negative correlation with immediate performance

(-.205**) and dilution of individual accountability (-.276**). Immediate performance shows significant correlation with dilution of individual accountability (.203**). Dilution of individual accountability has shown no significant correlation with involvement of employees. Team work needs supports and acceptance of help by team members requires involvement of employees. It does not focus on immediate performance and also does not believe in dilution of individual accountability.

Figure 4.1.9: Items of Experimentation Factor of OCTAPACE scale



On inter-item analysis of the experimentation factor (Figure 4.1.9), it was found that the new look on work item was responded with the maximum score (866/1144, 75.70%), as compared to organization's vitality (863/1144, 75.45%), innovative (821/1144, 71.77%), corrective actions on feedback (804/1144, 70.28%) and consolidation & stability (561/1144, 49.04%). The respondents have shown positive and

encouraging response towards experimenting new look on work, to be innovative and tone up their responsibilities for organization's vitality. Change management and taking corrective actions on feedback practices have been encouraged rather than preference to consolidation and stability.

Table 4.1.11: Inter-item correlations of Experimentation Factor of OCTAPACE

		Innovative	New_Look _on_Work	Corrective_ Actions_on_ Feedback	Vitality_of_ organization	Consolidation_ and_ Stability
Innovative	Pearson Correlation	1	.367(**)	.449(**)	.353(**)	-.160(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.007
	N	286	286	286	286	286
New_Look_on _Work	Pearson Correlation	.367(**)	1	.408(**)	.339(**)	-.161(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.006
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Corrective_ Actions_on_ Feedback	Pearson Correlation	.449(**)	.408(**)	1	.297(**)	-.221(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Vitality_of_ organization	Pearson Correlation	.353(**)	.339(**)	.297(**)	1	-.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.061
	N	286	286	286	286	286
Consolidation _and_ Stability	Pearson Correlation	-.160(**)	-.161(**)	-.221(**)	-.111	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.006	.000	.061	
	N	286	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.1.11, innovative item of experimentation factor shows significant correlation with new look on work (.367**), corrective actions on feedback

(.449**) and vitality of organization (.353**), and negative significant correlation with consolidation and stability (-.160**). New look on work shows significant correlation on corrective actions on feedback (.408**), vitality of organization (.339**) and negative significant correlation with consolidation and stability (-.161**). Corrective actions on feedback shows significant correlation with vitality of organization (.297**) and negative correlation with consolidation and stability (-.221**). Vitality of organization does not show significant correlation with consolidation and stability. Innovative attitude encourages new look on work and allows to take corrective actions on feedback and initiates vitality of organization.

The openness factor of OCTAPACE scale was found to be 73.27% (4191/5720). The organizational communication can be the helping tool to create human capital. Sharing of information amongst employees connects them to the organization as well as becomes an essential element of job involvement and managerial effectiveness. Gray and Laidlaw (2002) and Smidts, Pruyn, and Riel (2001) commended that openness refers to the commitment of the employees to carry out organizational goals. Brunetto and Farr-Wharton (2004) also supported that quality of communication results into managerial effectiveness. An organization's vision is communicated by managers to the employees and the employees' job involvement enhances (Dale, 1999; Juran and Gryna, 1993; Zhang, 1999).

The collaboration factor of the OCTAPACE test has been found 72.06% (4122/5720). The respondents have shown high concern for team work as an important factor to organizational culture. The literature strongly supports team work as a significant key to productivity and employees' job involvement at work place (Adebanjo

and Kehoe, 2001). Team work facilitates the meeting of affiliate needs within the work place and has been directly connected to job involvement (Karia and Ahmad, 2000). Case study conducted by Osland (1997) in Central America concluded that working together lead to better employee attitudes. Anschutz (1995) supported by stating that participation in team work achieves a success at work place for managers. Team work also results in more committed and involved employees within the organization (Silos, 1999).

In our study, the communication in item numbers 17 and 33 of the OCTAPACE scale were significantly responded as 882/1144 (77.09%) and 954/1144 (83.39%) respectively. The results strongly indicate that communication in organizations supported free discussion between seniors and subordinates and also helped in solving problems. Communication is important for improving employees' job involvement and for positive outcomes (Goris, Vaught, and Pettit, 2000; Pettitt, Goris, and Vaught, 1997; Guimaraes, 1996). We can conclude that communication as a part of organizational culture enhances job involvement of the managers within their organizations.

The experimentation is to be allowed in an organization to encourage managerial effectiveness and to create a culture of adaptability amongst the work force. However, we cannot ignore the risk associated with experimentation. The organizational culture with experimentation also creates learning atmosphere amongst the managers. The experimentation can also lead to failures and downsizing of the manpower (Estienne, 1997). Trust and decision making styles protect the negative feelings in the organization. Organizational culture requires commitment and involvement of managers for successful attainment of the organizational goals. An experimentation intended to accomplish the organizational goals develops new cultural aspects.

The autonomy in the organizations is not much preferred (62.27%, 3562/5720). The similar findings have been reported by Analoui (1999) in his study on senior managers in Ghana. He reported that in the organizations there were fewer tendencies for decentralization and more emphasis on control and decision making. The delegation was less preferred and managers were not empowered to take the decisions. Distrust between the subordinate and manager was more apparent. The high degree of favoritism was reported and senior managers adhered to traditional management. We can say that autonomy is not preferred by most of the organizations. However, the success and failure of implications of autonomy also vary from public sector to private sector organizations. There is a need for change of attitude and policy to encourage autonomy. A participatory approach will be useful to design a strategy of task and people management.

Fleet and Griffin (2006) in their study entitled 'Dysfunctional organization culture: The role of leadership in motivating dysfunctional work behaviors' developed the argument that organizational cultures vary in their functionality in terms of contributing overall organizational performance and effectiveness. The dysfunctional organizational culture restricts the employees to perform and it also discourages to share the organizational rewards. The role of leadership is likely to help, create and perpetuate functional organizational culture. Smith (2000) suggested that dysfunctional organizational culture may be because of long emphasis on productivity, efficiency and lack of interpersonal skills. It means that for a functional organizational culture an effective managerial approach is required. Stronger the "people" skills, effective will be the managerial style and likely to result into functional organizational culture.

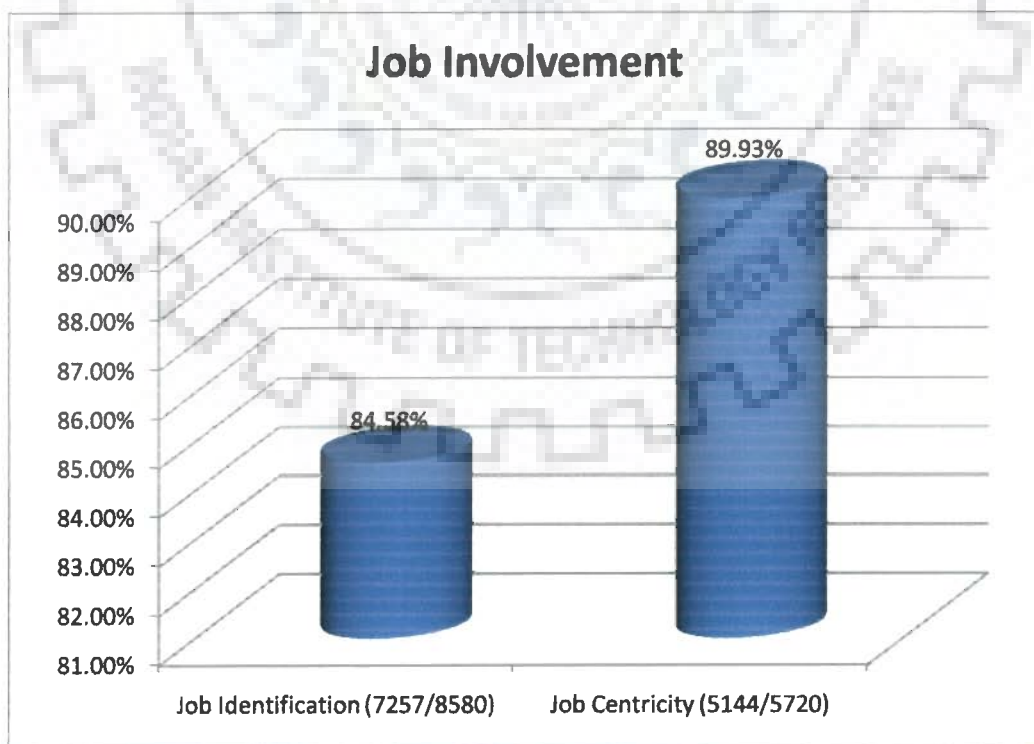
4.2 Accomplishing the objective (ii); study of job involvement of executives in select Indian organizations

The job involvement scale comprised of 10 items distributed into 2 factors viz., job identification and job centrality. To identify the consistency amongst the items, the 10 items of the job involvement scale were analyzed for reliability statistics and the results revealed the value of Cronbach's alpha (α) as .867 (Table 4.2.1).

Table 4.2.1: Reliability Statistics of Job Involvement Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.867	10

Figure 4.2.1: Factors of Job Involvement scale



The job identification comprised of 6 items and job centrality comprised of 4 items. The total respondents were 286 in number. The minimum and maximum possible score for job identification is 1716 and 8580 while that for job centrality is 1144 and 5720, respectively. Job centrality has been found 89.93% as compared to the job identification 84.58% (Figure 4.2.1). The respondents have shown more centrality on the job as compared to their job identification which means that they are happy with their job and also showed concern with the importance of the job to them.

Table 4.2.2: Correlations of Job Involvement Scale

		Job_ Identification	Job_ Centrality	Job_ Involvement
Job_ Identification	Pearson Correlation	1	.649(**)	.955(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	286	286	286
Job_ Centrality	Pearson Correlation	.649(**)	1	.846(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	286	286	286
Job_ Involvement	Pearson Correlation	.955(**)	.846(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	286	286	286

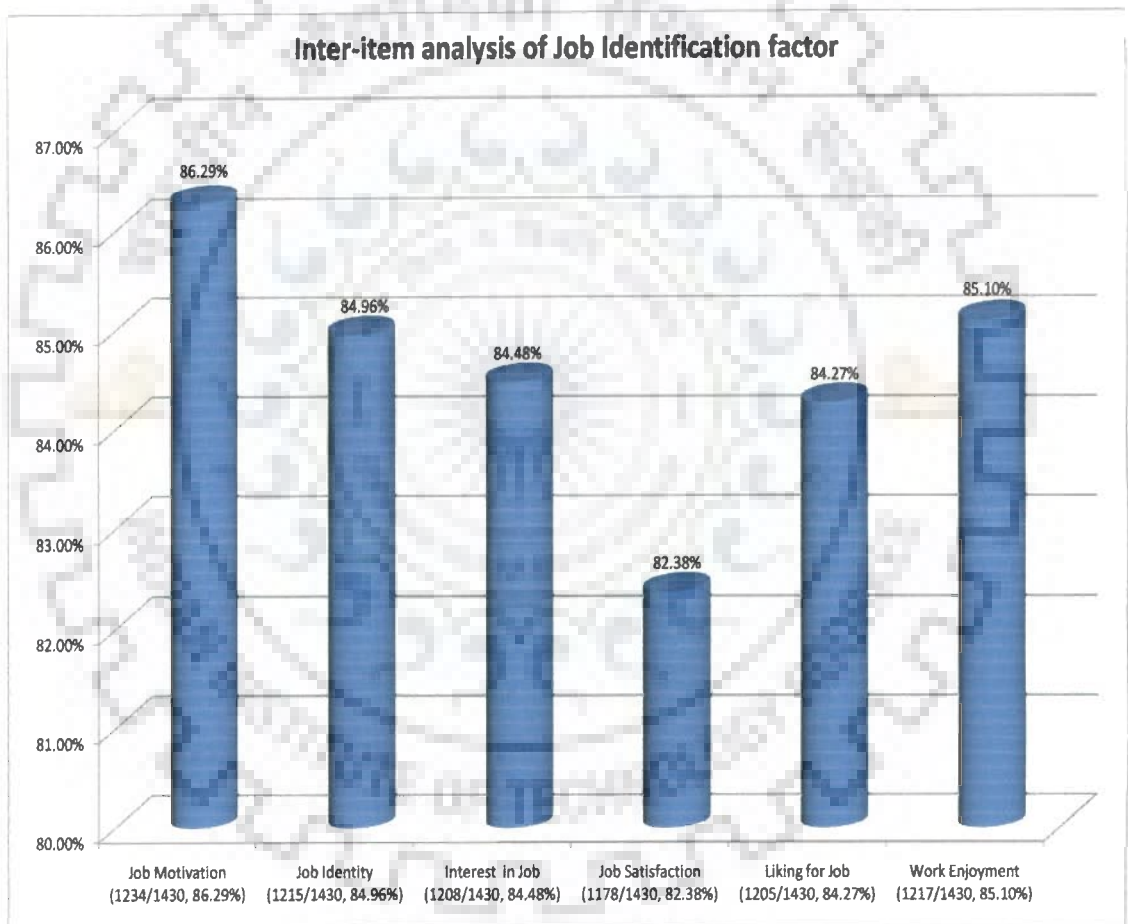
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.2.2, the job involvement has a high significant correlation with job identification (.955**) and job centrality (.846**). Job identification has significant correlation with job centrality (.649**).

In similar studies, Kanter, 1988; Scott and Bruce, 1994; West, 1989; West and Farr, 1989; and Woodman, Sawyer and Griffin, 1993, emphasized relationship between innovative behavior and job involvement. In another study, Kirby and Richard (2000) found that organizations when managed diversity with the perspective of competitive advantage, found higher employees' job involvement.

The organizational commitment and job satisfaction are not necessarily positively related with job involvement. The managers may be highly involved in the job and may not have high organizational commitment (Lee and Mowday, 1989). The productivity may be the outcome of job satisfaction but may not be because of organizational commitment (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009).

Figure 4.2.2: Items of Job Identification Factor of Job Involvement scale



On inter-item analysis of the job identification factor (Figure 4.2.2), it was found that the job motivation item was responded with the maximum score (1234/1430, 86.29%) as compared to work enjoyment (1217/1430, 85.10%), job identity (1215/1430, 84.96%), interest in job (1208/1430, 84.48%), liking for job (1205/1430, 84.27%) and job

satisfaction (1178/1430, 82.38%). The average value was found to be 84.58%. The managerial effectiveness of the respondents is dependent on liking and disliking of their jobs. As mentioned earlier in factor analysis of job involvement, the respondents are highly influenced by their willingness and organizational culture is highly supportive to them. The job satisfaction has been found to be the least but still it is quite high at 82.38%. The study here justifies the relationship of independent variables i.e., organization culture and job involvement with the dependent variable of managerial effectiveness. The respondents have found their jobs highly motivating 86.29% (1234/1430). According to hygiene/motivator theory (Herzberg, 1996) contribution of the employees towards job is result of their motivational level. Higher the motivational level, higher is the job involvement. Higher the job involvement, higher is the job enjoyment. Thus motivation is positively related to the managers' job involvement with in their organizations.

As shown in Table 4.2.3, the job motivation has significant correlation with job identity (.330**), interest in job (.531**), job satisfaction (.459**), liking for job (.406**) and work enjoyment (.464**). Job identity has shown a significant correlation with interest in job (.441**), job satisfaction (.401**), liking for job (.331**) and work enjoyment (.302**). Interest in job item has shown a high significant correlation with job satisfaction (.646**) and liking for job (.621**), and has also shown a significant relationship with work enjoyment (.478**). Job satisfaction has also shown a high significant correlation with liking for job (.627**) and work enjoyment (.487**). The liking for job item has shown a significant correlation with work enjoyment (.448**). A strong inter-item relationship is observed amongst all the items of job identification

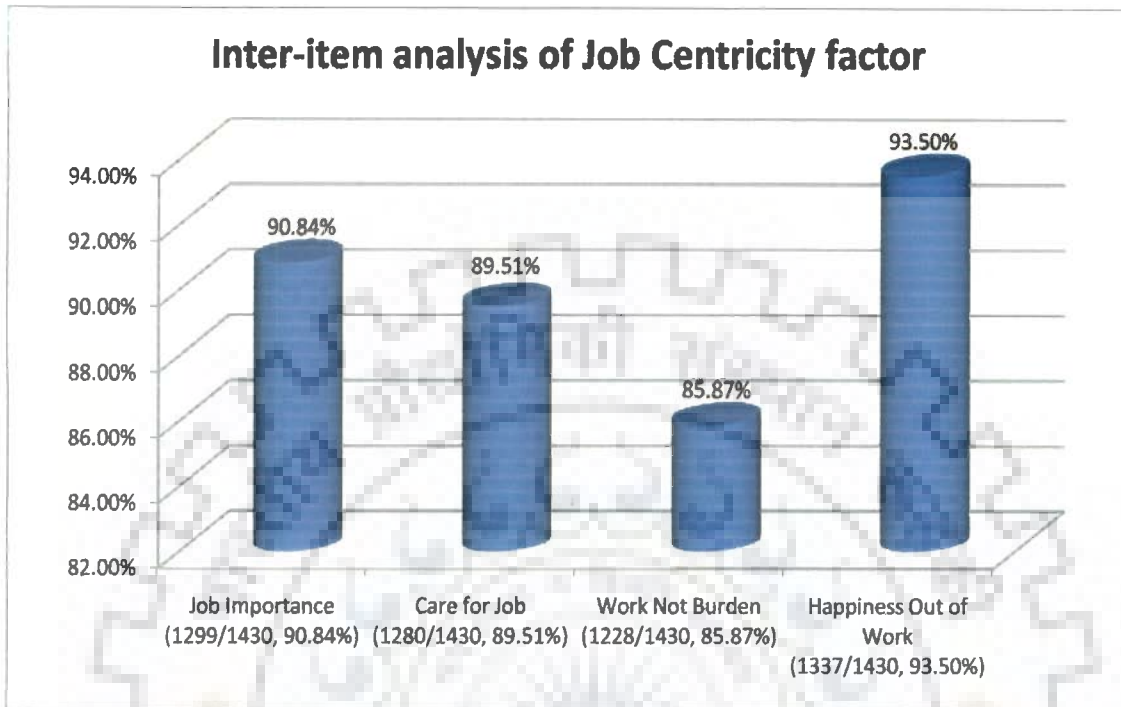
factor. Interestingly, these findings are also supported by inter-item analysis of job identification factor as shown in Figure 4.2.2.

Table 4.2.3: Inter-item correlations of Job Identification Factor of Job Involvement Scale

		Job_ Motivation	Job_ Identity	Interest_ in_Job	Job_ Satisfaction	Liking_for_ Job	Work_ Enjoyment
Job_ Motivation	Pearson Correlation	1	.330(**)	.531(**)	.459(**)	.406(**)	.464(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286
Job_ Identity	Pearson Correlation	.330(**)	1	.441(**)	.401(**)	.331(**)	.302(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286
Interest_in_ Job	Pearson Correlation	.531(**)	.441(**)	1	.646(**)	.621(**)	.478(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286
Job_ Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.459(**)	.401(**)	.646(**)	1	.627(**)	.487(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286
Liking_for_ Job	Pearson Correlation	.406(**)	.331(**)	.621(**)	.627(**)	1	.448(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286
Work_ Enjoyment	Pearson Correlation	.464(**)	.302(**)	.478(**)	.487(**)	.448(**)	1
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	286	286	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 4.2.3: Items of Job Centricity Factor of Job Involvement scale



On inter-item analysis of the job centricity factor (Figure 4.2.3), it was found that the happiness out of work item was responded with the maximum score (1337/1430, 93.50%), as compared to job importance (1299/1430, 90.84%), care for job (1280/1430, 89.51%) and work not burden (1228/1430, 85.87%). The job centricity factor indicates that items related to concern for job like happiness out of work and job importance have been scored on a higher side. Employees are not taking work as a burden which is also supported by work enjoyment item of job identification factor.

As shown in Table 4.2.4, the job importance has shown a significant correlation with care for job (.338**), work not burden (.325**), happiness out of work (.384**). Care for job has also shown a significant correlation with work not burden (.421**) and happiness out of work (.336**). Work not burden has shown a significant correlation with happiness out of work (.482**).

Table 4.2.4: Inter-item correlations of Job Centricity Factor of Job Involvement Scale

		Job_Importance	Care_for_Job	Work_Not_Burden	Happiness_Out_of_Work
Job_Importance	Pearson Correlation	1	.338(**)	.325(**)	.384(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286
Care_for_Job	Pearson Correlation	.338(**)	1	.421(**)	.336(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286
Work_Not_Burden	Pearson Correlation	.325(**)	.421(**)	1	.482(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	286	286	286	286
Happiness_Out_of_Work	Pearson Correlation	.384(**)	.336(**)	.482(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

A large number of researches construct the relationship of job involvement to employee motivation; in this study inter-item analysis of job identification reveals job motivation as an important construct representing employees' best interest (86.29%). The other items of job identification have been scored as - Job Identity 84.96%, Interest in Job 84.48%, Job Satisfaction 82.38%, Liking for Job 84.27%, Work Enjoyment 85.10%. In some respondents, job identification is influenced by high motivation. Job satisfaction is an important indicator of employees' well being and explains variance in involvement of employees (Tett and Meyer, 1993). In human resource development, job satisfaction is equally important for employees' self interest and structures organizational commitment (Guest, 1999). Highly involved employees contribute to organizational and managerial

effectiveness. Motivated employees of an organization contribute to organizational and managerial effectiveness in conditions of high uncertainty. Job involvement and job satisfaction as independent variables have significant impacts on training effectiveness (Cannon-Bowers et al., 1995; Kraiger et al., 1993; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). The organizational requirements and individual's abilities of high performance fit relationship of higher job involvement. Job involvement has affects on training needs and its effectiveness. However, in some studies it has been reported that job involvement has less relationship with participation in training (Osca et al., 2005). The development interventions demonstrated positive effect on job satisfaction and job involvement (Rowold, 2008). These findings also supported work related attitude and managerial effectiveness. The managerial effectiveness depends on continuous training received by the employees and its impact on their work performances (Holton, 2005, Holton, 1996).

The job involvement and work based self-esteem are twin concepts; it brings a positive impact and inputs of meaningful job within an organization (Tang, Singer, and Roberts, 2000). In our study, self esteem (liking for job) is more preferred by the respondents as compared to the job satisfaction. The similar findings in another study have been mentioned by Davidson and Cooper (1992). In their study, Davidson and Cooper revealed the fact that employers are often unwilling to retrain the work force after an interrupted period, even if employees hold many years of experience in the same job. Other studies also focused on the different factors of job involvement towards attitudinal and structural barriers (Laufer, 2000; Powell, 2000). The results of inter-item analysis structure a path for more job involvement of the employees. If organizations focus more on motivation levels and willingness to create values for job, the job involvement of the

employees will be much higher than expected. Job involvement also influences citizenship behaviour. More job satisfaction, higher is the helping behaviour and organizational loyalty (Dimitriades, 2007).

The job involvement caused positive work environment and often socialize a specific culture. The work environment is distinct than job involvement in terms of employee work behaviour. Brown (1996), Lawler (1986), Kahn (1990) and Pfeffer (1994) argued that employee work behaviour is categorized as a consequence of job involvement and confirmed that job involvement affects employees' motivation and efforts which subsequently determines performance. Lask et al. (2001) argued that occupation-specific measures of job involvement create and develop managerial effectiveness. The job involvement predicts Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs). OCBs are employees' efforts to help organization for accomplishment of organizational goals and needs. OCBs are based on employees' attitudes and beliefs and have a greater impact on organizational culture.

Sagie (1998) in his work on attitude and behaviour of employees reported that there is a significant correlation between attitude of job satisfaction and job involvement. In our study, job satisfaction and work enjoyment have been found to be 82.38% and 85.10% respectively. A similar study by Wegge, Schmidt, Dick and Parkes (2004) supported the findings of our research work. Earlier research has documented that job satisfaction and job involvement are negatively correlated with absence from work (Harrison and Martocchio, 1998; Johns, 1997). Hackett (1989) found a mean correlation of $r=-.23$ between general job satisfaction and time lost measures of absence, thus employees remain absent because of lack of job satisfaction and job involvement. The job

absenteeism may be voluntary or involuntary i.e., absence due to low work motivation or absence due to genuine illness. However, work attitude of employees should primarily affect voluntary behaviour. The job involvement is a much stronger predictor of absence behaviour if job satisfaction of employees is simultaneously low. Porter and Steers (1973) defined the mismatch between employee and employer expectations as unmet expectations. Literature suggested that unmet expectations lead to decreased job satisfaction, reduced commitment, lower performance, increased turnover and absenteeism (Wanous, Poland, Premack and Davis, 1992). Employees experience negative outcomes such as decreased feelings of obligations to employers, reduced organizational commitment behaviour, increased turnover and absenteeism (Guest and Conway, 2002; Guzzo, and Noonan, 1994; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Turnley and Feldman, 1999, 2000). The literature revealed the potential interaction between organizational identification and job involvement.

Rotenberry and Moberg (2007) in their study entitled 'Assessing the impact of job involvement on performance' found that employees' self reported job involvement was rewarded by higher ratings as compared to those employees whose job involvement was significantly low. More the job involvement more was the influence on work related behaviour. Job involvement as predictor of managerial performance was earlier studied by Diefendorff et al., 2002; Lask et al., 2001; Posthuma and Campion, 2005. In their study, authors revealed that job involvement constructs the performance of the employees. Job involvement is associated with citizenship behaviour and associated with job knowledge. In their study, the data revealed that employee job involvement accounts for an additional 2.9 % of the variability of in-role performance. The study also supports

the relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment as explained by social exchange theory.

Abraham Carmeli (2005) in his study entitled 'Exploring determinants of job involvement: an empirical test among senior executives' - proposed a model that attempted to explain the role of situational and personal related factors relating to job involvement. The findings of the study indicated that both situational and personal-related factors predict job involvement. The findings showed that the relationship between perceived external prestige and job involvement was mediated by affective commitment, and that the relationship between protestant work ethic and job involvement was mediated by normative commitment. The situational factors like experiences and psychological reactions to the work affect the level of job involvement. The findings of this study provided support for organizational image and job satisfaction as important factors of job involvement. The results indicated that top executives considered their organizational image to be an important factor to identify themselves and with job satisfaction in their organizations. This finding also carries the emotional identification of the employees with their organization. Job satisfaction, however, is found lower important factor as compared to job/organizational identification. Surprisingly, work ethic and job involvement did not find any direct relationship but showed a connection through normative commitment.

Under this study, the job involvement has been found 86.72%, (12401/14300), the job centrality factor of this scale was responded high (89.93%, 5144/5720). This is in line with the views of Dubin (1968) that job situation is of central life interest. The importance of individual's work for his total self image is judged by his involvement in

job (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). The individuals participate in their jobs to meet prestige, self respect, autonomy and self regard (Allport, 1943). Adoption of the “Best practices” or high performance work practices (HPWP) delivers competitive advantage towards the organization (Boselie and van der Wiele, 2002). High performance work practices are also defined by high involvement system (Lawler, 1992), flexible work systems and high commitment management (Arthur, 1994; Chow, 2005). High performance work systems include leadership, empowerment, team-work and employee development (Boon et. al., 2007). On the basis of discussion on organizational culture, it is clear that more openness and autonomy are provided to managers better is managerial effectiveness. HPWPs also support to high commitment and high involvement systems. We can link here job involvement that is HPWP with organizational cultural practices. HPWP drive organizations towards excellent performance.

4.3 Accomplishing the objective (iii) and (v); study of managerial effectiveness of executives in select Indian organizations and the relationship between managerial effectiveness and its component factors

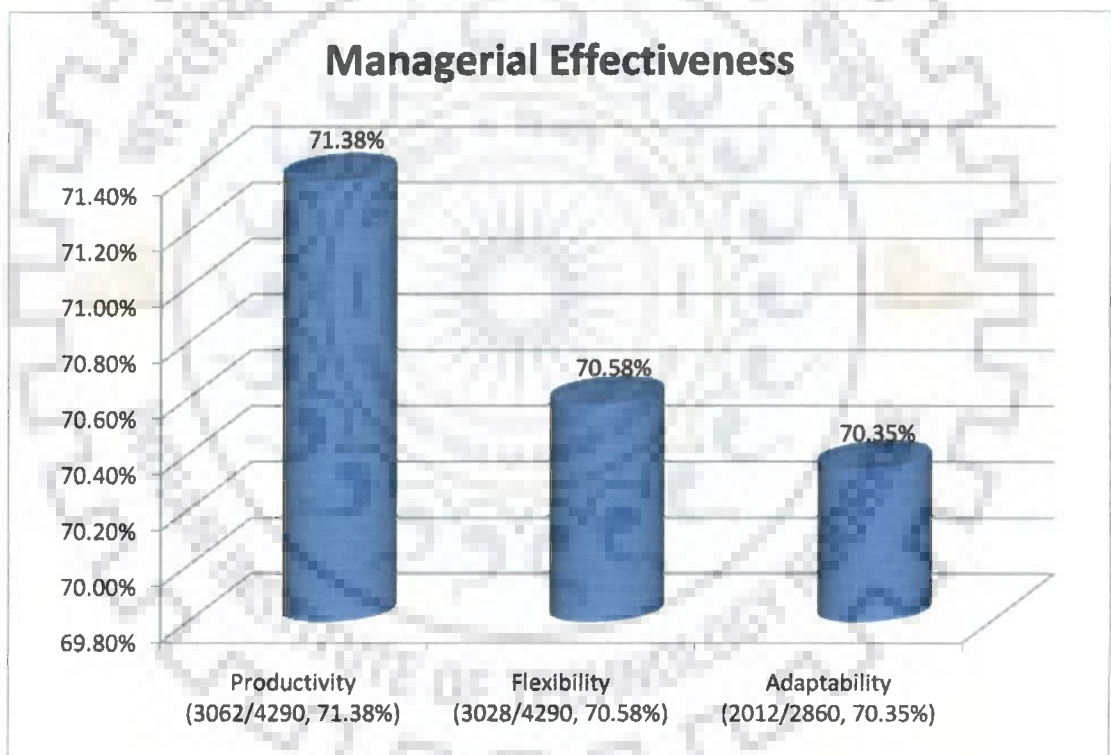
The managerial effectiveness scale comprised of 8 items distributed into 3 factors viz., productivity, flexibility and adaptability. To identify the consistency amongst the items, the 8 items of the managerial effectiveness scale were analyzed for reliability statistics and the results revealed the value of Cronbach’s alpha (α) as .726 (Table 4.3.1).

Table 4.3.1: Reliability Statistics of Managerial Effectiveness Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.726	8

The productivity and flexibility comprised of 3 items each while adaptability comprised of 2 items. The total respondents were 286 in number. The minimum and maximum possible score for productivity and flexibility is 858 and 4290 respectively while that for adaptability is 572 and 2860. The productivity factor (71.38%) is found to be slightly higher as compared to flexibility (70.58%) and adaptability (70.35%) (Figure 4.3.1).

Figure 4.3.1: Factors of Managerial Effectiveness Scale



As shown in Table 4.3.2, the correlation between managerial effectiveness and its component factors is found highly significant i.e., productivity (.799**), flexibility (.795**) and adaptability (.693**). It proves that all the three factors - namely productivity, flexibility and adaptability - contribute highly to managerial effectiveness.

The productivity factor has significant correlation with flexibility (.441**) and adaptability (.471**). The flexibility factor has significant correlation with adaptability (.231**).

Table 4.3.2: Correlations of Managerial Effectiveness Scale

		Productivity	Flexibility	Adaptability	Managerial_ Effectiveness
Productivity	Pearson Correlation	1	.441(**)	.471(**)	.799(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286
Flexibility	Pearson Correlation	.441(**)	1	.231(**)	.795(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	286	286	286	286
Adaptability	Pearson Correlation	.471(**)	.231(**)	1	.693(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	286	286	286	286
Managerial_ Effectiveness	Pearson Correlation	.799(**)	.795(**)	.693(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	286	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results reveal that the managers are well aware of the excellence of work and output from the resources. The respondents also emphasized on their ability to change themselves, maintain the quality of their products or services. However, the respondents have shown lower adaptability in managerial effectiveness. On an average, managers are more concerned with production and seem to be less adaptable. The flexibility is an important aspect to be considered in managing projects. The managers often look negatively at flexibility. According to managers, it is a cost for those who have to adapt to the changes. The project owners and users, who have incentives related to achieving the purpose of the project, prefer flexibility (Pundir, Ganapathy and Sambandam, 2007).

The managers are change agents and in flexibility and adaptability factors, the change management has been responded on higher side (985/1430) by the respondents. The results of our study indicate that senior managers hold a capacity of coping with emergencies as compared to effective change. The finding of this research is supported by the findings of other similar studies (Labbaf, Analoui and Cusworth, 1996; Katz, 1974). This finding is also indicated by the response for the item acceptance of change (921/1430) of the adaptability factor. The respondents were highly aware and concerned of their managerial responsibilities and factors which were affecting their effectiveness. The items which were affecting managerial effectiveness were;

- coping with emergencies 1091/1430
- production estimation 1055/1430
- quality of production 1047/1430
- job excellence 1036/1430
- problem anticipation 996/1430
- change management 985/1430
- output from resources 971/1430
- acceptance of change 921/1430

The managerial effectiveness is to co-opt business environment. Managers are to be flexible and structured in their approach along with significant focus at their work place. The productivity demands smart work along with hard work (Estienne, 1997).

Managers require higher skills for greater team work and flexibility. To develop these skills managers are to be trained under organizational culture practices.

Farhad Analoui (1998) in his study entitled 'behavioural and causal influences on individual managerial effectiveness in the Ghanaian public sector' identified the different behavioural and causal variables necessary to determine the effectiveness of managers/officials within developing countries institutions and organizations. He elaborated the appropriate methods to be used for the collection of data relating to managerial effectiveness. The study revealed that the most important qualities for being effective manager were - ability to plan, set objectives, determine results and being output oriented. The managerial skills, which have been considered more effective were - good planning skills, effective communication, good human relations, organizing ability and supervisory skills. The role of organizational culture was also discussed in the study and the top five cultural factors criteria which were identified were - meeting targets, publications, self-discipline, achievement and self-motivation. Motivation was an important factor for managerial effectiveness. The remuneration was found most important item amongst all other items of greater effectiveness. To create an organizational culture and for managerial effectiveness, senior officers felt that recognition of subordinate is an important factor. However, most of the senior officer did not know how to motivate their staff. The most important finding reflexes that organization's expectation of its manager is seen in the nature of the criteria for managerial effectiveness in the organization. It confirms that organizational culture plays a significant role related to managerial effectiveness.

It has been found that all the three factors namely productivity (3062/4290, 71.38%), flexibility (3028/4290, 70.58%) and adaptability (2012/2860, 70.35%) are essential for managerial effectiveness. All the three factors of managerial effectiveness are influenced by senior level of hierarchy. In a similar study entitled 'Senior managers' effectiveness: the case of the steel industry in Iran' Labbaf, Analoui and Cusworth (1996) reported that management development training is focused more on knowledge and skills which contribute to the development and to increase effectiveness of senior managers in different positions. It is interesting to note that managerial effectiveness depends on different management development training of senior managers. The role of the three items of the productivity factor - production estimation (1055/1430), output from resources (971/1430) and job excellence (1036/1430) – has been found significant in our study. It clearly indicates that productivity is a prime issue and has high concern for managerial effectiveness. If we relate this finding with the study of management development training by Labbaf, Analoui and Cusworth (1996) we suggest that greater responsibility and demand to increase managerial effectiveness gets focused on productivity factor. There is not much gap amongst the three factors namely - productivity (3062/4290, 71.38%), flexibility (3028/4290, 70.58%) and adaptability (2012/2860, 70.35%) in the respondents, which provide an opportunity to make use of all the three factors to develop managerial effectiveness. The developed countries have been relatively more benefited from recent progress in the field of management development, the approaches adopted by developing management scales emphasize on flexibility and adaptability (Jaeger, 1990). Successful attempts have been made to change managerial behaviour through a more promising skill learning approach to impart an increase in

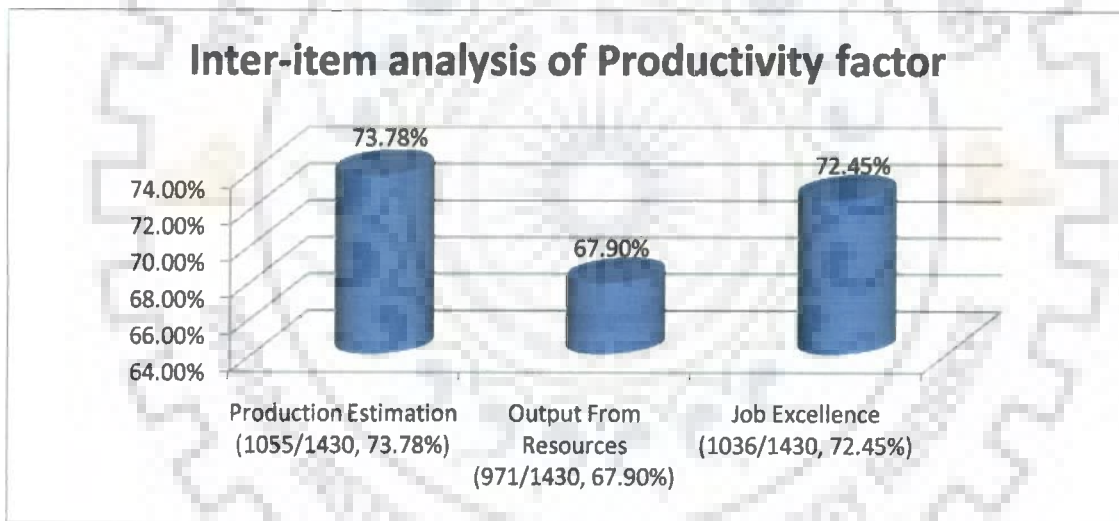
managerial effectiveness. The more focus and attention during the last two decades has posed a challenge for management development programs (Margerison, 1984). Managerial effectiveness is influenced by organizational culture; correlation has been found significant (.297**). It implies that a set of specific skills for development of managers is required to enhance managerial effectiveness. The specific skills can be imparted as training as per requirement of the organization so they can share the same with their colleagues in the organizations. Analoui (1993) has introduced a management development model based on two studies in Zimbabwe and Indian Railways organizations. He suggested that there are three broad categories namely; task-related, people-related and analytical & self-related skills which are necessary for the increased effectiveness of senior managers. The findings in the study of Analoui (1995a) that managers in Indian Railways placed more importance on their need for task-related skills support the conclusion of our study. Also, that there is a direct relationship between the level of the seniority and the need for acquisition of certain categories of managerial skills. Recently, scholars have paid attention to improve the managerial effectiveness through achievement motivation; here flexibility and adaptability factors of our study contribute to the need of achievement of the middle and senior level executives. In addition to productivity skills, senior managers require more attention to be flexible and adaptable to achieve individual goals. We can correlate productivity skills with technical skills and flexibility and adaptability skills with human skills. Similarly, Katz (1955) developed a management development model which incorporated the above basic category of the skills - namely technical (productivity) and human (flexibility and adaptability). Katz (1974) commented upon his original article written some twenty years

earlier, “I now realize more fully that managers at all levels require some competency in each of the technical, human and conceptual skills”. These skills are still applicable in training, promotion and selection of managers at all levels. Katz further stated that the skills are so closely interrelated that it is difficult to determine where one ends and another begins. Moreover, all three sets of skills are important and they vary in relative importance at different managerial positions. In our study, productivity (3062/4290, 71.38%), flexibility (3028/4290, 70.58%) and adaptability (2012/2860, 70.35%) – all the three factors are found important and there is relatively a little variation in their importance. The study, concepts and model provided by Katz in the last 30 years are still found to be relevant for managerial effectiveness, as is also established in our study. These findings also encourage further research in the area of achievement motivation. The findings of our study which establish importance of all the three factors are also supported by other studies that most of the senior managers spent their time in task-people related skills (Kakabadse, Ludlow and Vinnicombe, 1987; Carlson, 1951; Steward, 1967; Bolton, 1979; Kotter, 1982). These findings and the results of other studies reported from the developing countries (Analoui, 1995a & 1990b) imply that managerial competence works with people and related skills.

It is increasingly a responsibility for today’s manager to develop himself by meeting the challenges of his profession. As an important part of any manager’s job, problem anticipation, coping with challenges and meeting the changes are significant to achieve the results. Similarly, a self development model suggested by Delf and Smith (1978) is based on the recognition that successful managers take charge of their own learning and satisfy their needs through self development. A manager assures his

effectiveness through his performance and by practicing every opportunity to eliminate his weaknesses and strengthen his capabilities. The learning ability of self motivation plays an important role for efficient and effective performance. At the same time organizational culture provides the necessary support, means and opportunities for managerial performance. As indicated above, the managerial effectiveness by senior managers is a combination of all the items of productivity, flexibility and adaptability factors. Overall, the average score for the managerial effectiveness scale was 70.82%. The respondents have shown a tendency to higher performances.

Figure 4.3.2: Items of Productivity Factor of Managerial Effectiveness scale



On inter-item analysis of the productivity factor (Figure 4.3.2), it was found that the production estimation item was responded with the maximum score of 1055/1430, 73.78% as compared to job excellence 1036/1430, 72.45% and output from resources 971/1430, 67.90%. The respondents were from middle and senior level executives of production and services departments, as a result target fixation and productivity was high concern for them. Here quality parameter is on second priority; as a result job excellence has got second position. The means are equally important; however because of the

pressure of target achievement, output from resources has received least importance. Katz model and technical skills are more preferred by the respondents as compared to human and conceptual skills. However, the inter-item analysis of flexibility factor reveals quality of production as top on priority as compared to change management and problem anticipation. The result of production estimation is 73.78% while that of quality of production is 73.22%.

Table 4.3.3: Inter-item correlations of Productivity Factor of Managerial Effectiveness Scale

		Production_ Estimation	Output_From_ Resources	Job_ Excellence
Production_ Estimation	Pearson Correlation	1	.107	.046
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.070	.441
	N	286	286	286
Output_From_ Resources	Pearson Correlation	.107	1	.365(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.070		.000
	N	286	286	286
Job_ Excellence	Pearson Correlation	.046	.365(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.441	.000	
	N	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.3.3, the production estimation item of the productivity factor shows low correlation with output from resources (.107) and job excellence (.046). The output from resources shows significant correlation with job excellence (.365**). Here technical aspects of production are different than managerial aspects of job performance. The similar relationship has been observed in inter-item analysis of productivity factor.

On inter-item analysis of the flexibility factor (Figure 4.3.3), it was found that the quality of production item was responded with the maximum score of 1047/1430, 73.22% as compared to problem anticipation 996/1430, 69.65% and change management

985/1430, 68.88%. The responses show less difference in problem anticipation and change management, the cause could be pressure of economic recession due to which organizations are restructuring people, process and technology. The quality of production has been emphasized in spite of the limitations of problem anticipation and change management. Interestingly, flexibility factor is more towards behavioural aspects and taken as component of human skills.

Figure 4.3.3: Items of Flexibility Factor of Managerial Effectiveness scale

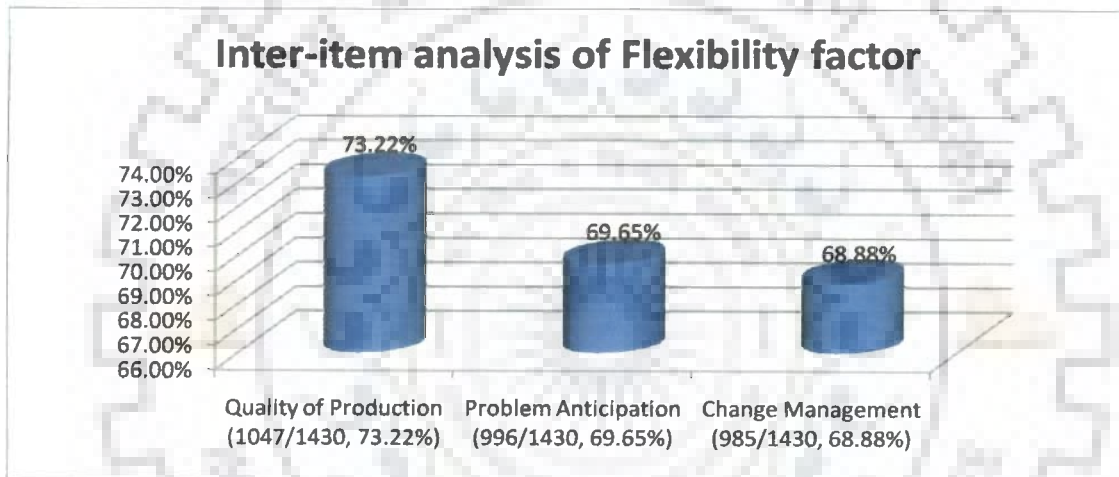


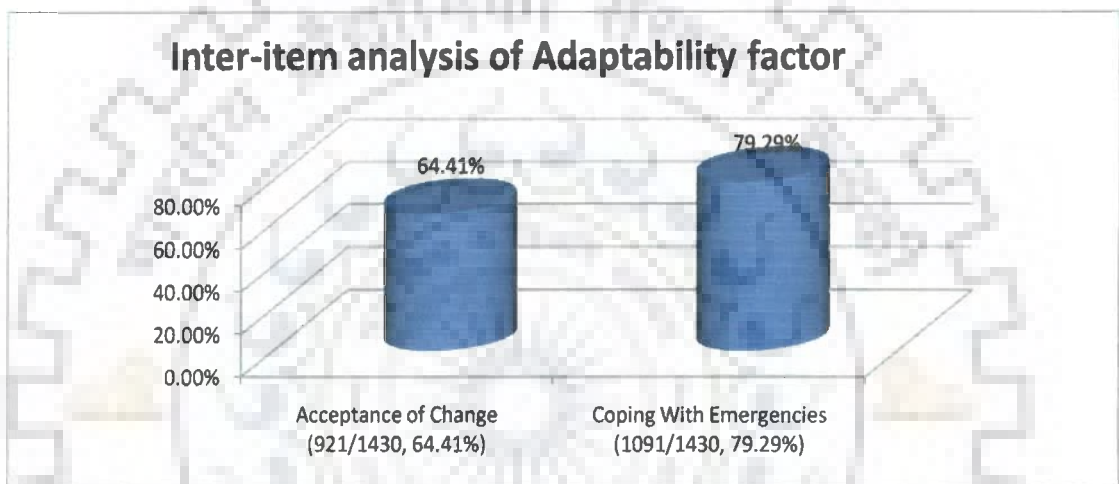
Table 4.3.4: Inter-item correlations of Flexibility Factor of Managerial Effectiveness Scale

		Quality_of_ Production	Problem_ Anticipation	Change_ Management
Quality_of_Production	Pearson Correlation	1	.494(**)	.448(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	286	286	286
Problem_Anticipation	Pearson Correlation	.494(**)	1	.485(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	286	286	286
Change_Management	Pearson Correlation	.448(**)	.485(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.3.4, the quality of production has shown a significant correlation with problem anticipation (.494**) and change management (.448**). Problem anticipation has also shown significant correlation with change management (.485**). All the three items are interconnected and show strong relationship.

Figure 4.3.4: Items of Adaptability Factor of Managerial Effectiveness scale



On inter-item analysis of the adaptability factor (Figure 4.3.4), it was found that the coping with emergencies item was responded with more score of 1091/1430, 79.29% as compared to acceptance of change 921/1430, 64.41%. The coping with emergencies is a reflection of higher positions of respondents and also their acceptance of change reflects managerial effectiveness in achieving the goals of the organizations. The senior managers are working like change agents and catalysts for organizations' development. The nature of authorities and responsibilities is more challenging for their organizational performances.

Table 4.3.5: Inter-item correlations of Adaptability Factor of Managerial Effectiveness Scale

		Acceptance_of_ Change	Coping_With_ Emergencies
Acceptance_of_Change	Pearson Correlation	1	.444(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	286	286
Coping_With_Emergencies	Pearson Correlation	.444(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 4.3.5, the acceptance of change has significant correlation with coping with emergencies (.444**). The relationship between the two items is found strong and effective.

Above three figures of inter-item analysis indicate that the items of the flexibility and adaptability factors require more human skills expertise as compared to technical skill of the production factor. Other researchers have also confirmed the above findings.

4.4 Accomplishing the objective (iv); study of the organizational culture and job involvement as predictors of managerial effectiveness

The relationship of the independent variables, i.e., organizational culture and job involvement, was found positive and significant with the dependent variable, i.e., managerial effectiveness.

The findings of the Pearson correlation tests (Table 4.4.1) amongst the organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness have shown significant relationship at .01 level. Organizational culture has positive and significant correlation with job involvement (.232**). A positive and significant correlation was

observed between organizational culture and managerial effectiveness (.297**). Again a positive and significant correlation was observed between job involvement and managerial effectiveness (.373**). Karia and Asaari (2006) found a similar relationship between employee and job involvement with job satisfaction. Autonomy encourages involvement, motivation, satisfaction, willfulness and loyalty towards the organization (Karia and Ahmad, 2000; Geralis and Terziovski, 2003).

Table 4.4.1: Inter Variables Correlations

		OC	JIS	ME
OC	Pearson Correlation	1	.232(**)	.297(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	286	286	286
JIS	Pearson Correlation	.232(**)	1	.373(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	286	286	286
ME	Pearson Correlation	.297(**)	.373(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	286	286	286

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The study on job involvement and managerial effectiveness has been explored by the other researchers (Brown, 1996; Brown and Leigh, 1996; Diefendorff et al., 2006; Lassk et al., 2001; Lawler and Hall, 1970; Mathieu and Farr, 1991; Vroom, 1962). In our study, the correlation between job involvement and managerial effectiveness has been found as .373(**), which indicates that job involvement has moderate correlation with managerial effectiveness. A similar finding was also reported by Diefendorff et al. (2002). In the Indian organizations, extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are provided to a small number of employees hence the motivation level of the employees gets restricted and the job involvement is not that high. Further, job involvement has been predicted along with

organizational culture and correlation between job involvement and organizational culture was found to be .232(**) in this study. Job involvement and organizational culture have created the organizational citizenship behaviour (Somers and Birnbaum, 1998). Job involvement does not fall within the purview of formal organizational culture of control systems rather is governed by autonomy, authenticity and openness.

As the β value is insignificant (p value is greater than α value, $.074 > .01$, Table 4.4.2), we can infer that for managerial effectiveness corresponding values are also insignificant. Similarly, p_{oc} (.000) and p_{ji} (.000) (Table 4.4.2) is less than α value (.05), hence organizational culture and job involvement are significant for managerial effectiveness. This conclusion is further indicated by the fact that the correlation between organizational culture and managerial effectiveness (.297**) is equally significant as with job involvement and managerial effectiveness (.373**).

Table 4.4.2: Variables Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	B	Std. Error
1	(Constant)	5.274	2.941		1.793	.074
	OC	.089	.022	.223	4.040	.000
	JIS	.301	.052	.321	5.819	.000

a Dependent Variable: ME

The data was analyzed under regression analysis (Tables 4.4.3 through 4.4.7). The job involvement and organizational culture as independent variables show 18.6% of the variance of the managerial effectiveness. This can be explained by taking 2 independent variables. The adjusted R square value (.180) shows the causal relationship between the job involvement and organizational culture with managerial effectiveness. The difference

between R square and adjusted R square (.186-.180=.006) is small which shows that the sample size is enough and the study is justified. The standard error of the estimate (4.20552) enables the correlation of confidence interval relating to a desired confidence level for the population R. The F which provides the information of significance (32.280) shows that independent variables (organizational culture and job involvement) reliably predict the dependent variable (managerial effectiveness). Since p value is less than α (.000<.01), we may infer that independent variables (organizational culture and job involvement) reliably predict the dependent variable (managerial effectiveness), i.e., our 2 independent variables (organizational culture and job involvement) can be used to significantly predict the dependent variable (managerial effectiveness).

Table 4.4.3: Variables Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ME	28.3287	4.64422	286
OC	112.1923	11.59831	286
JIS	43.3601	4.95237	286

Table 4.4.4: Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	JIS, OC(a)		Enter

a All requested variables entered.

b Dependent Variable: ME

Table 4.4.5: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.431(a)	.186	.180	4.20552

a Predictors: (Constant), JIS, OC

Table 4.4.6: Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.431 ^a	.186	.180	4.20552	.186	32.280	2	283	.000	1.242

a Predictors: (Constant), JIS, OC

b Dependent Variable: ME

Table 4.4.7: ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1141.850	2	570.925	32.280	.000(a)
	Residual	5005.255	283	17.686		
	Total	6147.105	285			

a Predictors: (Constant), JIS, OC

b Dependent Variable: ME

Farhad Analoui (1997) - in the study of managerial effectiveness of senior managers in the Romanian public sector - reported that senior managers possess more task-related attributes as compared to people-related attributes. However, the category of people-related attribute contained 12 items and task-related attributes consisted of 8 items. Further, Analoui also collected the responses of senior managers with combining task and people attributes and reported that equal stress was given on the importance of both the task and people aspects. It means that managerial grid of Robert Black and Jane Mouton model sustained at 9, 9. In our study, the three factors of managerial effectiveness were found to be - productivity 3062/4290, 71.38%; flexibility 3028/4290, 70.58% and adaptability 2012/2860, 70.35%. The results showed that the managers are required to focus not only on productivity but equally on flexibility and adaptability too.

The personal attributes of managers for effective performance must contribute to task (productivity) and people (flexibility and adaptability). The senior managers have higher responsibility to design mixed strategy of task and people. The managerial effectiveness is relatively less risk oriented for senior managers as compared to middle management. Senior managers are capable and have the ability and aptitude for effective performance. Stewart (1982, 1991) has identified influential factors of senior managers which greatly affect their ability to get things done. In our study, 'coping with emergencies' showed maximum concern of the respondents (1091/1430) which indicates that when there are crash programmes, delayed schedules, or a breakdown in the flow of work they cause work overloads leading to emergencies and this has been more readily managed.

Employee job involvement normally has been considered to be a significant factor for managerial effectiveness. Researchers have argued that job involvement depends on a number of factors which subsequently create managerial performance. For example Lask et al. (2001) stated that occupation specific measures of job involvement are very critical, and subject to relationship involvement, with the managerial performances. According to Diefendorff et al. (2002), the positive effect of job involvement on managerial effectiveness might be found if both the measures of job involvement and managerial effectiveness are constructed for a specific organizational culture. In this study, a significant correlation (.373**) has been found between job involvement and managerial effectiveness. In another study, Somers and Birnbaum (1998) speculated that job involvement was more conceived to predict organizational citizenship behavior rather than role required task. Managers normally fall under the category of reward and control systems rather than their own personal and social needs.

Peters and Waterman (1982) in their study on organizational culture suggested that organizational culture has a strong influence on managerial performance. The managerial effectiveness depends on the managers' personal values and beliefs which interact with the culture of work place; as a result organizational culture influences the levels of performances. In the public sector in India, there is a very small scope of delegation and empowerment, contrary to that in the private sector. In a similar study, Chen (2001) and El Kahal (2001) cited that in Korean and Chinese firms the decisions are made by the owners and top management. Hofstede (1980) has also revealed that both US and Australia have relatively more delegate culture and prefer participation in decision making style. Leaders create vision to achieve competitive advantage and strategic goals and build close relationships with employees to articulate the vision (Tjosvold, Yu, and Liu., 2003; Sharma and Bhal, 2004).

The culture of the Indian software organizations create an environment that would stimulate creativity and motivation, leading to higher productivity (Mathew, 2007). Organizational culture plays a critical role in enhancing productivity by innovation and creativity (Paul and Anantharaman, 2004). It is interesting to see that the software sector have witnessed high productivity (Khanna and Palepu, 2004; Arora and Gambardella, 2004; Arthreye, 2005). India is considered the electronic housekeeper of the world (Budhwar et al., 2006). A very limited study has been performed into the impact of organizational culture on productivity in such knowledge-intensive and people centric context (Hofstede, 1991; Budhwar and Sparrow, 2002; Budhwar and Sparrow, 1998). Fenton-O'Creevy (1998) argued that higher involvement leads to attachment with the organization, resulting in enhanced motivation inspiring for greater responsibility which

leads to higher productivity. Limited numbers of empirical studies have explored exclusively the relationship between organizational culture and productivity (Mathew, 2007). Akin and Hopelain (1986) introduced “culture of productivity” that is a productive culture has many elements like the right types of people, job identification, team work, trust and support, job performance, etc. “Culture of productivity” is characterized by legibility (clarity), coherence (integration of the elements of work) and open-endedness (adaptability to change). Ciavarella (2003) argued that higher job involvement leads to higher level of motivation and attachment with the organization and results in increased productivity. An in-depth analysis of the various aspects of organizational culture was required to examine their impact on productivity. In view of the existing literature and nature of the work, in the present study the analysis is made to identify correlation of organizational culture with productivity.

In the study of Mathew (2007), the organizational culture has been subdivided into eight dimensions four items for productivity and four items for quality i.e., empowerment, agreement, integrity or core values, knowledge sharing or organizational learning while concern for employees & trust, mission, customer focus and high performance work orientation. In our study the OCTAPACE scale has defined eight factors in different dimensions - openness, confrontation, trust, authenticity, proaction, autonomy, collaboration and experimentation.

Much of the success or failure of job involvement is attributed to organizational culture. Past researchers have suggested that organizational culture is related to job involvement. The perception is - organizational culture creates more involvement in the job by the managers. Job identification is more related to openness and trust amongst the

employees of the organization. OCTAPACE has also contributed towards job centrality. The autonomy and proactive-ness provided by the organization lead to positive perception of organizational culture and enhances job centrality. The significant correlation between organizational culture and job involvement also enhances managerial performance. Tolerance for different cultural viewpoints that leads to greater openness to new ideas is at the heart of the system flexibility argument (Cox and Blake, 1991). If an organization encourages diversified culture, it results in comparatively less confrontation. In organization if proactive decision making style is encouraged, it has more creative and innovative cultural perspectives. Organizations that successfully manage cultural diversity may create cost advantage over others (Kirby and Richard, 2000).

The above study interestingly answered many aspects of the managerial effectiveness. The performance of a manager depends on individual ability, his own perceptions, group dynamics and organizational culture. The study has given the substantial evidence that organizational culture and higher level of job involvement are essential to give overall managerial effectiveness. The results of this study indicate that the relationship between organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness is more strongly related in Indian organizations. The considerations, the content of the instruments and the method of measuring interrelations played a strong role in establishing the relationship amongst organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness. This study has shown that the organizational culture and job involvement have a significant influence upon managerial effectiveness; as a result they predict managerial effectiveness.

CONCLUSIONS

5.1 The Conclusions

Executives differ in terms of managerial effectiveness and its factors such as productivity, flexibility and adaptability. The perceptions of the independent variables – organizational culture and job involvement - also vary from individual to individual. The conclusions have been drawn in the light of objectives which were framed for carrying out the present study:

1. To study the organizational culture in select Indian organizations.

In the Indian organizations the executives prefer preventive action because of strong competition in the market. The confrontation and trust found to be more conducive with openness and collaboration. The experimentation in Indian context is less practiced as compared to other factors. The autonomy factor is more exercised by Indian managers and findings are in agreement with supportive culture associated higher level of job satisfaction and performance.

2. To study the job involvement of executives in select Indian organizations.

The respondents have shown more concentration on the job as compared to their job identification which means that they were happy with their jobs and also showed concern with the importance of the job to them.

A significant correlation has been found amongst all the items - job motivation, job identity, interest in job, job satisfaction, liking for job and work enjoyment - of job

identification factor. A strong inter-item relationship is observed amongst all the items of job identification factor. The organizational requirement of high job involvement has been satisfied by the respondents. The respondents' individual ability fits into their job involvement. Job involvement also has effect on training needs and its effectiveness. A significant correlation has been found between job involvement and managerial effectiveness.

3. To study the managerial effectiveness of executives in select Indian organizations. Managers are well aware of the excellence and output from the resources. Managers are able change agents and maintain the productivity and services. They are production oriented. Managers are high adapter of work culture but comparatively less flexible.

4. To study the organizational culture and job involvement as predictors of managerial effectiveness.

Organizational culture and job involvement have been found significant independent variables for managerial effectiveness as dependent variable. Organizational culture and job involvement influence managerial effectiveness. The causal relationship has been found between the organizational culture and job involvement with managerial effectiveness. Organizational culture and job involvement (independent variables) reliably predict the managerial effectiveness (dependent variable). Organizational culture and job involvement can be used to significantly predict the managerial effectiveness.

5. To study the relationship between managerial effectiveness and its component factors.

All the three factors namely productivity, flexibility and adaptability are essential for managerial effectiveness. All the three factors are influenced by hierarchy. A highly significant correlation has been found between managerial effectiveness and its component factors namely productivity, flexibility and adaptability.

5.2 The Summary

The present study on “organizational culture and job involvement as predictors of managerial effectiveness” was taken up with an aim to provide an insight into the issues related to managerial effectiveness in the current dynamic environment. An attempt was made to closely examine the interrelationship of organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness. The independent variables were selected in the light of their likely influence over dependent variable. The study is largely based on primary data collected from different organizations. Implications of the study were made on the basis of obtained results. The report of the study runs into five chapters.

The chapter 1 relates to conceptual framework. Organizational culture and job involvement were studied as independent variables whereas managerial effectiveness was taken as dependent variable. All these variables were explained with respect to their definitions, nature, characteristics, approaches to describe them and relationship with other variables.

The chapter 2 relates to study of available literature related to the independent and dependent variables. The literature was carefully reviewed. The relevant studies were appropriately described and the variables were explored to identify the relationship. In the past, no research was carried out to study the relationship between organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness. Rationale of the present study is

described in the light of existing gaps. The chapter ends with the need of the objectives of the study.

The chapter 3 relates to methodology and design. The final sample of 286 middle and senior level executives was selected at random from different cities of India such as Roorkee, Chandrapura, Jaipur, Gwalior, Delhi, etc. As per requirement of the research the tools for data collection and analysis have been presented. Three standardized scales were used to measure organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness. With the help of SPSS data analysis was carried out using the statistical tests - ANOVA, inter-item analysis, correlation analysis, inter-factor analysis, etc., to get the results.

The chapter 4 relates to results and discussion. The details of results were given on the basis of statistical analysis and were presented along with discussion. The analysis was done to understand the relationship between the variables under the study. The results were discussed in the light of analytical results and reported findings of other related researchers to draw some significant observations.

The chapter 5 relates to conclusion, summary, suggestions, implications and limitations of the study. It presents a summary to provide a bird's eye view of the report. The major conclusions drawn from the present study were also included here. All the important issues covered in the study are briefly discussed here.

The present study was a pioneering effort to investigate into the relationship between organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness. The research problems have brought important insights upon careful examination of the data and the results. Measures for improving or enhancing the managerial effectiveness have also been suggested. The research has provided a basis for researchers and practitioners

to further investigate into the specific area related to managerial effectiveness. Major issues related to organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness are described in this chapter in the light of their implications. The present study will definitely help the managers to understand organizational culture and also to enhance their job involvement by improving job identification and job centrality. Managers will be benefited by this study to increase their productivity, flexibility and adaptability to become more effective at their work place.

5.3 The Suggestions

The study has provided 'new vistas' for further research in a promising way. The present study relates to the perceptions and behavioural pattern of the executives. It reveals more important, deeper and real dynamics of organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness. Organizational culture is to be practiced with more transparency and openness to the employees. A majority of the executives have shown capability for managerial effectiveness. It is suggested to retain the level of motivation and job satisfaction. It is also suggested to study the different variables of managerial effectiveness in future research.

Results of the present study indicate that the job involvement is required to be sensitized to bring in job identification so that executives are not only sincere in their approaches but are also transparent and confident for their effective performance. Major research projects should be taken up to cover a large number of variables to understand the relationship between them for working out various programs to enrich the managerial effectiveness of all types of executives including the executives who are highly involved in job.

5.4 The Implications

The study provides the following important implications for researchers as well as practitioners:

The study has revealed and prepared a factual base regarding the perceptions and behavioural correlates of managerial effectiveness. The findings will be of direct use in designing training and development programs for executives. The organizations can draw benefits from the knowledge contributed by this study. As this study has shown that executives differ in terms of managerial effectiveness and its factors with respect to organizational culture and job involvement, the results can be used to improve the effectiveness of the executives in organizations.

Organizational culture is associated with a wide variety of practices. Executives have high job involvement which seems to be influenced by organizational culture in which they are working for job satisfaction. Organizations should understand and value the influence of organizational culture on job performance. Hence, a job involvement culture is to be developed among executives for effective performance in the organizations. Similarly, executives can be facilitated by providing them with an environment of encouragement to take decisions in their functional areas, which will result in increase in the level of job involvement. Job centrality should be encouraged and nurtured in executives with job identification.

Executives with high-learned job involvement can be identified and given adequate responsibility and power with an aim to train the executives with low job involvement in terms of performance and effectiveness. Since the effect of organizational

culture on managerial effectiveness stands established, the organizations should value perceptions, openness, autonomy and collaboration amongst the executives of the organizations.

This study addressed the relationship between organizational culture and job involvement as independent variables for managerial effectiveness as dependent variable. A positive and significant correlation has been observed between organizational culture, job involvement and managerial effectiveness. The proaction dimension of OCTAPACE scale of organizational culture has shown maximum response by the respondents as compared to the other dimensions. The least response has been observed in authenticity dimension of the scale. The job centricity of the respondents has been found higher than job identification. In the responses of managerial effectiveness, productivity dimension has got the highest response while adaptability has got the least response. The results of the present study indicate that for maximum output of the managers, organizations should have more openness and collaborative approach culture. The study also helps to understand the relationship between job motivation and happiness of the managers. Managers are more involved in the job if they identify themselves with their jobs. For effective managers, work is not a burden and job importance is very high.

The present study enhances various dimensions for further research. The study has provided “new vistas” for further research in a promising way. It reveals more important deeper and real dynamics of organizational culture and job involvement. The dimensions in the study are associated with a wide variety of implications in the areas of managerial effectiveness.

5.5 The Limitations

The samples are from public and private sectors, inclusive of middle and senior level executives of both technical and commercial background. Samples with specific nature of organizations, having technical or commercial background may be studied to further explore managerial effectiveness. However, it is reasonable to assume similar work relationships in the same nature of organizations.

In this study we focused on organizational culture and job involvement although more factors may be having impact on managerial effectiveness. Therefore, future research should examine additional factors such as organizational commitments, psychological detachment, work load, etc. We hope that this study provides insights to our understanding of the role of organizational culture and job involvement as predictors of managerial effectiveness and will stimulate further research in the area.

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OCTAPACE PROFILE

Respond to the following items on the Answer Sheet

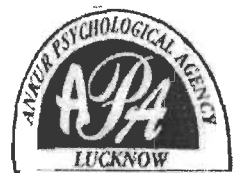
1. Free interaction among employees, each respecting others, feelings, competence and sense of judgement.
2. Facing and not shying away from problems.
3. Offering moral support and help to employees and colleagues in a crisis.
4. Congruity between feelings and expressed behaviour (minimum gap between what people say and do).
5. Preventive action on most matters.
6. Taking independent action relating to their jobs.
7. Team work and team spirit.
8. Trying out innovative ways of solving problems.
9. Genuine sharing of information, feelings and thoughts in meetings.
10. Going deeper rather than doing surface-level analysis of interpersonal problems.
11. Interpersonal contact and support among people.
12. Tactfulness, smartness and even a little manipulation to get things done.
13. Seniors encouraging their subordinates to think about their development and take action in that direction.
14. Close supervision of, and directing employees on, action.
15. Accepting and appreciating help offered by others.
16. Encouraging employees to take a fresh look at how things are done.
17. Free discussion and communication between seniors and subordinates.
18. Facing challenges inherent in the work situation.
19. Confiding in seniors without fear that they will misuse the trust.
20. Owning up to mistakes.
21. Considering both positive and negative aspects before taking action.
22. Obeying and checking with seniors rather than acting on your own.
23. Performing immediate tasks rather than being concerned about large organisational goals.
24. Making genuine attempts to change behaviour on the basis of feedback.

Use the following key for the remainder of your responses:

- Write 4 if it is a very widely shared belief.
- Write 3 if it is fairly widely shared.
- Write 2 if only some persons in the organisation share this belief.
- Write 1 if only a few or none have this belief,

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25. Effective managers put a lid on their feelings.
26. Pass the buck tactfully when there is a problem.
27. Trust begets trust.
28. Telling a polite lie is preferable to telling the unpleasant truth.
29. Prevention is better than cure.
30. Freedom to employees breeds indiscipline.
31. Usually, emphasis on team work dilutes individual accountability.
32. Thinking out and doing new things tones up the organisation's vitality.
33. Free and frank communication between various levels helps in solving problems.
34. Surfacing problems is not enough; we should find the solutions.
35. When the chips are down you have to fend for yourself (people cannot rely on others in times of crisis).
36. People generally are what they appear to be.
37. A stitch in time saves nine.
38. A good way to motivate employees is to give them autonomy to plan their work.
39. Employees' involvement in developing an organisation's mission and goals contributes to productivity.
40. In today's competitive situations, consolidation and stability are more important than experimentation.



Consumable Booklet of

JIS

(English Version)

Santosh Dhar (*Indore*) Upinder

Dhar (*Indore*)

D. K. Srivastava (*Mumbai*)

Please fill up the following information,

Name.....

Age..... Sex.....

Qualifications.....

Designation.....

Organisation.....

Experience.....

INSTRUCTIONS

Please indicate your choice by marking tick mark (✓) on any of the five alternatives against each statement.

SCORING TABLE

Area	I	II	Total	Interpretation
Score				

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SI. No.	AREA /Factor	STATEMENTS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I	I find my job motivating.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	II	My job is important to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	I	I identify with my present job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	I	I find my job interesting.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	I	My job gives me satisfaction.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	I	I like my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	II	I care for my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	II	My work is not burden for me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	I	I enjoy my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	II	Whenever I complete some work, I feel happy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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 Job Involvement Scale (JIS). (English Version)

ME - SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS: Every worker produces something in his work. It may be a 'Product' or a 'Service'. We would like you to think carefully of the things that you produce in your work and of the things produced by those people who work around in your division.

1. Thinking now of the various things produced by the people you know in your division, how much are they producing? Tick one:

1. Their production is very high
2. It is fairly high
3. It is neither high nor low
4. It is fairly low
5. It is very low

2. How good would you say is the quality of the products or services produced by the people you know in your division? Tick one:

1. Their products or services are of excellent quality
2. Good quality
3. Fair quality
4. Their quality is not too good
5. Their quality is poor

3. Do the people in your division seem to get maximum output from the resources (money, people, equipment etc.) they have available? That is, how efficiently do they do their work? Tick one:

1. They do not work efficiently at all
2. Not too efficient
3. Fairly efficient
4. They are very efficient
5. They are extremely efficient.

4. How good a job is done by the people in your division in anticipating problems that may come up in the future and preventing them from occurring or minimizing their effects? Tick one:

1. They do an excellent job in anticipating problems
2. They do a very good job
3. A fair job
4. Not too good a job
5. They do a poor job in anticipating problems

5. From time to time newer ways are discovered to organise work, and newer equipment and techniques are found with which to do the work. How good a job do the people in your division do in keeping up with these changes that could affect the way they do their work? Tick one:

1. They do a poor job for keeping up to date.
2. Not too good a job
3. A fair job
4. They do a good job
5. They do an excellent job of keeping up to date

6. When changes are made in the routines or in the equipment, how quickly do the people in your division accept and adjust to these changes? Tick ones:

1. Most people accept and adjust to them immediately
2. They adjust very rapidly, but not immediately
3. Fairly rapidly
4. Rather slowly
5. Most people accept and adjust to them very slowly

7. What proportion of the people in your division readily accept and adjust to these changes quickly. Tick one:

1. Considerably less than half of the people accept and adjust to these changes readily
2. Slightly less than half do.
3. The majority do
4. Considerably more than half do.
5. Practically everyone accepts and adjusts to those changes readily

8. From time to time emergencies arise, such as crash programmes, schedules moved ahead, or a breakdown in the flow of work occurs. When these emergencies occur, they cause work overloads for many people. Some work groups cope with these emergencies more readily and successfully than others. How good a job do the people in your division do in coping with these situations? Tick one:

1. They do a poor job of handling emergency situations
2. They do not do very well
3. They do a fair job
4. They do a good job
5. They do an excellent job of handling these situations.

Source: Mott E.P. (1971). **The Characteristics of Effective Organisation.** New York: Harper and Row.

OCTAPACE Scale

Sl. No.	Item	Title of the item
1.	Free interaction among employees, each respecting others, feelings, competence and sense of judgement.	Free interaction
2.	Facing and not shying away from problems.	Facing problems
3.	Offering moral support and help to employees and colleagues in a crisis.	Moral support
4.	Congruity between feelings and expressed behaviour (minimum gap between what people say and do).	Congruity
5.	Preventive action on most matters.	Preventive action
6.	Taking independent action relating to their jobs.	Independent action
7.	Team work and team spirit.	Team work
8.	Trying out innovative ways of solving problems.	Innovative
9.	Genuine sharing of information, feelings and thoughts in meetings.	Sharing of information
10.	Going deeper rather than doing surface-level analysis of interpersonal problems.	In-depth analysis
11.	Interpersonal contact and support among people.	Interpersonal contacts
12.	Tactfulness, smartness and even a little manipulation to get things done.	Tactfulness
13.	Seniors encouraging their subordinates to think about their development and take action in that direction.	Subordinate encouragement
14.	Close supervision of, and directing employees on, action.	Close supervision
15.	Accepting and appreciating help offered by others.	Acceptance of help
16.	Encouraging employees to take a fresh look at how things are done.	New look on work
17.	Free discussion and communication between seniors and subordinates.	Free communication
18.	Facing challenges inherent in the work situation.	Facing challenges
19.	Confiding in seniors without fear that they will misuse the trust.	Trust in seniors
20.	Owning up to mistakes.	Owning up to mistakes
21.	Considering both positive and negative aspects before taking action.	Pros & cons of actions
22.	Obeying and checking with seniors rather than acting on your own.	Obeying seniors
23.	Performing immediate tasks rather than being concerned about large organisational goals.	Immediate performance

24.	Making genuine attempts to change behaviour on the basis of feedback.	Corrective actions on feedback
25.	Effective managers put a lid on their feelings.	Non-expression of feelings
26.	Pass the buck tactfully when there is a problem.	Passing buck
27.	Trust begets trust.	Trust building
28.	Telling a polite lie is preferable to telling the unpleasant truth.	Avoiding unpleasant truth
29.	Prevention is better than cure.	Prevention
30.	Freedom to employees breeds indiscipline.	Freedom breeds indiscipline
31.	Usually, emphasis on team work dilutes individual accountability.	Dilution of individual accountability
32.	Thinking out and doing new things tones up the organisation's vitality.	Organization's vitality
33.	Free and frank communication between various levels helps in solving problems.	Solving problems through effective communication
34.	Surfacing problems is not enough; we should find the solutions.	Solutions to the problems
35.	When the chips are down you have to fend for yourself (people cannot rely on others in times of crisis).	Crisis management
36.	People generally are what they appear to be.	Honesty of people
37.	A stitch in time saves nine.	Time management
38.	A good way to motivate employees is to give them autonomy to plan their work.	Motivation through autonomy
39.	Employees' involvement in developing an organisation's mission and goals contributes to productivity.	Employees' involvement
40.	In today's competitive situations, consolidation and stability are more important than experimentation.	Consolidation & stability

Job Involvement Scale

Sl. No.	Item	Title of the item
1.	I find my job motivating.	Job motivation
2.	My job is important to me.	Job importance
3.	I identify with my present job.	Job identity
4.	I find my job interesting.	Interest in job
5.	My job gives me satisfaction.	Job satisfaction
6.	I like my job.	Liking for job
7.	I care for my job.	Care for job
8.	My work is not burden to me.	Work not burden
9.	I enjoy my work.	Work enjoyment
10.	Whenever I complete some work, I feel happy.	Happiness out of work

Managerial Effectiveness Scale

Sl. No.	Item	Title of the item
1.	Thinking now of the various things produced by the people you know in your division, how much are they producing? Tick one: 1. Their production is very high 2. It is fairly high 3. It is neither high nor low 4. It is fairly low 5. It is very low	Production estimation
2.	How good would you say is the quality of the products or services produced by the people you know in your division? Tick one: 1. Their products or services are of excellent quality 2. Good quality 3. Fair quality 4. Their quality is not too good 5. Their quality is poor	Quality of production
3.	Do the people in your division seem to get maximum output from the resources (money, people, equipment, etc.) they have available? That is, how efficiently do they do their work? Tick one: 1. They do not work efficiently at all 2. Not too efficiently 3. Fairly efficiently 4. They are very efficient 5. They are extremely efficient	Output from resources
4.	How good a job is done by the people in your division in anticipating problems that may come up in the future and preventing them from occurring or minimizing their effects? Tick one: 1. They do an excellent job in anticipating problems 2. They do a very good job 3. A fair job 4. Not too good a job 5. They do a poor job in anticipating problems	Problem anticipation

5.	<p>From time to time newer ways are discovered to organize work, and newer equipment and techniques are found with which to do the work How good a job do the people in your division do in keeping up with these changes that could affect the way they do their work? Tick one:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. They do a poor job for keeping up to date 2. Not too good a job 3. A fair job 4. They do a good job 5. They do an excellent job of keeping up to date 	Job excellence
6.	<p>When changes are made in the routines or in the equipment, how quickly do the people in your division accept and adjust to these changes? Tick one:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Most people accept and adjust to them immediately 2. They adjust very rapidly, but not immediately 3. Fairly rapidly 4. Rather slowly 5. Most people accept and adjust to them very slowly 	Change management
7.	<p>What proportion of the people in your division readily accept and adjust to these changes quickly. Tick one:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Considerably less than half of the people accept and adjust to these changes readily 2. Slightly less than half do 3. The majority do 4. Considerably more than half do 5. Practically everyone accepts and adjusts to those changes readily 	Acceptance of change
8.	<p>From time to time emergencies arise, such as crash programmes, schedules moves ahead, or a breakdown in the flow of work occurs. When these emergencies occur, they cause work overloads for many people. Some work groups cope with these emergencies more readily and successfully than others. How good a job do the people in your division do in coping with these situations? Tick one:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. They do a poor job of handling emergency situations 2. They do not do very well 3. They do a fair job 4. They do a good job 5. They do an excellent job of handling these situations 	Coping with emergencies