CHAPTER 1
Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the Study

Human capital is one of the most valuable assets of an organization, apart from financial and physical assets. Its capabilities cannot be easily imitated and therefore it brings distinctiveness to the organization. Without effective human capital, the strategies of an organization will be incomplete and may lead to its downfall. Since the world is changing constantly, organizations have to adapt and transform concurrently. Focusing on the Human Resource Management (HRM) practices will in return make the employees committed towards contributing to the sustainability of the organization (Kassim & Mokhber, 2015) because the most precious asset that can contribute greatly to the organizational efficiency and effectiveness is the human resource of organizations (Muhammad & Ismail, 2009).

The public service department of any country is regarded as a transformational institution because of its eternal responsibility of implementing public policies and programmes and rendering of essential services to the general masses, which means the activities of government employees and institutions aim at formulating and implementing governmental policies and programmes for the interests of the public (Agba, Ochimana & Abubakar, 2013). According to Singh (2013), the Indian administrative sight is marked by few successful innovations and practices in public service delivery as well as large number of pitiable performances. Several public service professions exist in a state of crisis due to various factors that bring into question the knowledge, skills, education, and responsibilities of the employees. There is a general belief that majority of the public enterprises have been unsuccessful in fulfilling the purposes for which they were established. It is more bothersome in the developing economics of the world where employees lack the requisite managerial skills in management (Esu & Inyang, 2009). The performances of public sector organizations rely on the performance of their employees (Tazebachew, 2011) and professionalism increases the awareness of value of public services and accordingly reinforces trust in institutions (Mc Guigan, 2011). A well performing public service is based on its professionalism (Yi-Armstrong, 2000). A public service committed to professionalism and ethics is more likely to attain its goals (United Nations, 2000). Mere policy or intention is not important for superior outcome, it is even more important that it is translated and implemented in its true spirit to get intended outcomes (Kumar, 2013). In the Public service, professionalism can be located at the point where expertise in terms of knowledge and skills meet with integrity and ethics to form a competent whole of a highly capable, committed, responsible, and responsive public service (United Nations, 2000).

All through the several decades of planning, the eradication of rural poverty has been a persistent theme in the concerns of Indian policy-makers, politicians and administrators. Nevertheless the proportion of those living below the poverty line has not declined substantially (Mathur, 1995). Because for developed plans to be implemented the organization need employees who have the necessary commitment, concern and competency (Bacwayo, 2002). Public service professionalism is no longer just another job or occupation, it is a challenging call for involving a commitment towards serving the public, advancing its interests and avoiding temptations to put oneself first before ones public duties, obligations and responsibilities (Caiden, 2000).

Thus this study concentrates on employee professionalism (at individual employee level) and how it can influence the employee outcome of an organization, because both academics and practitioners in management have placed considerable importance on understanding how job activities affect employee outcomes (Yammarino & Naughton, 1996). For the purpose of this study three variables were considered under employee outcome, they are Public Service Motivation (PSM), Commitment and Job Satisfaction.

1.2 Concept of Employee Professionalism

Basically professionalism is a behavior that starts with the “self’, i.e. one being true to oneself, to keep clean their names and image and to be true to themselves, creating a reputation of truthfulness, self-respect and incorruptibility even before one thinks of whatever regulations, rules, laws, any other external constraints against corruption (Kauzya, 2011). Professionalism consists of the attitudes and behavior one possesses toward one’s profession (Boyt, Lusch & Naylor, 2001). Thus, professionalism concept is used to measure how professional look at their profession that reflected in their attitudes and behaviors (Dali et al., 2013). The concept of profession traces back to ancient disciplines such as Theology, Law and Medicine (Gebrekidan, 2011). From social science literature of the 1950’s and 1960’s, levels of professionalism were based on the possession of certain characteristics. Social scientists described professions as possessing sets of structural and attitudinal attributes that set them apart from occupations (Hammer, 2000). The earliest set of criteria seems to have been set down by Abraham Flexner in 1915, "Professions involve essentially intellectual operations with large individual responsibility; they drive their raw material from science and learning; this material they work up to a practical and definite end; they possess an educationally communicable technique; they tend to self-organisation; they are becoming increasingly altruistic in motivation". These characteristics were rearranged a bit and succinctly stated by Ernest Greenwood in 1957, "All professions seem to possess: (1) systematic theory (2) authority (3) community sanction (4) ethical codes and (5) a culture". On the other hand the sociology of professions divided profession into two extremes, a) the functionalists (Goode, 1969; Parsons, 1954) assume that professionals work primarily for the good of their clients, and b) the neo-Weberians expect professionals to be motivated solely by wealth, status and power (Collins, 1990). But presently professionalism is "broadly defined by specialist knowledge/qualification, meeting high standards, self-regulation and a high level of autonomy" (Osgood, 2006).

Professionalism is the attitudinal component, or behavioural dimension, that conditions how individuals think about, believe in and behave towards their occupation or profession, including a sense of calling, job autonomy and commitment to professional associations (Hall, 1968; Hampton & Hampton, 2004). Earlier, rather than studying the professional attributes of individuals, most studies of professionalism have adopted an occupational or institutional focus. Hall (1968) provides one of the few studies in the sociology literature that has attempted to measure professional attitudes and behaviours at the individual level, through the use of the Hall Professionalism Scale which included five characteristics of professionals. These are professional community affiliation, social obligation, belief in self-regulation, professional dedication and autonomy demands. These have been widely applied in the study of professional attitudes as the data collection instrument was found to be fairly robust in respect of validity and reliability (Hall, 1968; Porter et al., 1974; Aranya & Ferris, 1984; Hampton & Hampton, 2004). Alternative versions of this scale have been used to study professional attributes among a variety of occupational groups, including physicians, attorneys and engineers (Snizek, 1972; Hall, 1968). The scale has also been used to assess professionalism among public accountants (Goelz et al., 1991) and internal auditors (Kalbers & Fogarty, 1995).

Hall (1968) and Snizek (1972), conceptualize professionalism as a multidimensional construct consisting of five dimensions: (a) autonomy, (b) use of a professional association (or associations) as a referent, (c) belief in public service, (d) sense of calling to the field, and (e) belief in self-regulation, which has also been considered for this study. Each of the components is briefly described below:

Autonomy

Autonomy is all about Professionals being able to make their own decisions and not be told what to do by others. They highly value being able to make decisions about their work and being free of external pressures that might influence their decisions or work behavior.

Professional Associations as a Referent

The most strongly institutionalized and often older professions have well-developed and well-established professional associations. These professional associations make it their mission to reinforce the values, beliefs, and identity of a profession. They also are active in publishing scientific findings and conducting educational events, which help the profession develop a specialized knowledge base. Individuals who read the journals or publications of these associations, attend their conferences or educational events, and generally use the association as a referent will become more and more socialized into the profession and influenced by its norms and standards. Experts use professional associations and certification as vehicles for keeping knowledge scarce and controlled. Essentially, they erect barriers to entry into a profession that help to protect their markets. It is not surprising, therefore, that an increasing number of knowledge workers (including marketers) are seeking to develop a professional identity (Derber, Schwartz & Magrass, 1990; Whittington & Whipp, 1992). It refers to the extent to which a person is actively involved in the professional community and uses professional institutions as a major referent (Hall, 1968). Individuals who stay closely affiliated with their professional community by engaging in activities such as reading journals and attending conference should be more strongly influences by the standards of the profession (Snizek, 1972).

Belief in Public Service

A belief in social obligation requires an individual to recognize the importance of their work to society and the fact that their work benefits not only the organization and individual but also the public as well (Hall, 1968). This is a belief that one's profession or occupation is indispensable and beneficial to society. This belief holds that the profession or occupation is important not only in terms of those with whom they have reciprocal exchange but also in terms of how well society functions and benefits from the profession. Individuals who possess a strong belief in public service believe society functions better with their profession than without. For example, if marketing researchers believe in the public service of their profession, they are of an opinion that what they do in terms of attempting to understand consumer wants and needs is highly important to a well-functioning society.

Sense of Calling to the Field/Professional Dedication

Snizek (1972) refers to this as work being "defined as an end in itself and not merely a means to an end" (p. 110). Commitment is to the occupation or profession, and the individual feels that this is his or her true purpose in life. Novak (1996), in his thought-provoking book *Business as a Calling*, suggests that businesspeople often have a calling and view their work not as a job but as a profession.

It reflects a sense of calling to one's field and the belief that one would want to do the work even if fewer extrinsic rewards were available (Hall, 1968)

Belief in Self-Regulation

Because of the highly specialized knowledge that members of a profession have and the power that this provides them, they often strongly believe in self-regulation. Fundamentally, they believe that the best form of control for the profession comes from peers or colleagues. Given the level of specialized knowledge or expertise, only their peers or colleagues, and not outsiders, are able to judge their work. The fundamental rationale for self-regulation is the belief that laypersons are not qualified to judge the quality of the professional's work; thus, professionals should be judged by their colleagues (Abbott, 1988; Hall, 1968).

Training

In addition to the subcomponents of professionalism mentioned above, training of the employees has also been considered for this study. Because training the officials and non-officials involved in the rural development activities is one of the objectives and tested tools for improvement of performance and upgradation of knowledge and skill (Department of Rural Development, GoAP, 2012). It is also evident from the extensive study that training is essential to inculcate basic skills and attitude that can enhance professionalism of employees. Since public services are working in an environment that is in constant change, effective training and development are investments with high return. Public Service Professionalism embraces the notion that those people who join the Public Service need to be inculcated with shared values and trained in basic skills to professionally carry out their official duties. The most popular method of communicating values and standards seems to be induction training when someone joins the public service (Gebrekidan, 2011). Taiwo (2001) is of the opinion that the objectives of training are to: provide the skills, knowledge and aptitudes necessary to undertake required job efficiently. Training is a plan process to modify attitudes, knowledge, skills and behaviour through learning to acquire effective performance in a range of activities. The purpose of training is to develop the attitude of an individual to satisfy the present and future manpower needs to sustain and supplement education or to train the individual for taking up higher representation. It is therefore said that “training actually begins where education ends”. But now it is training that goes hand in hand with education. Training deals with the efforts made to bring improvement in the performance of employees. Satisfaction with training and development is a major factor in decision regarding people’s career. Thus training is the best-solution to improve employee’s understanding and let them know how to use the specific skills. Training in work place performance and employee jobs satisfaction has positive relationship while training is positively associated with the employees’ job satisfaction and employees’ job satisfaction further has a relationship with the measures of performance (Paul, 2014). According to Amisano (2010), employee performance may be related to numerous factors within the workplace, such as overall job satisfaction, knowledge, and management. But there is a definite relationship between training and performance, as training programs can address numerous problems that relate to poor performance. Expert professionalism is “not just the ability to make authoritative judgments and to solve problems but also the training and skills received are highly valued in the market for services” (Brint, 1994). Public service professionalism embraces the notion that those people who join the public service need to be inculcated with shared values and trained in basic skills to professionally carry out their official duties. The rationale behind professionalism is that public servants should be neutral, impartial, fair, competent and serve the public interest in carrying out their duties (United Nations, 2000).

Thus training is a way of developing professionalism which cannot be ignored. Ensuring that the necessary competences are developed through training and other staff development activities is critical to the development of professionalism Therefore efforts of developing professionalism must include approaches of training and education that touch the ignition of an individual's motivation (Kauzya, 2011).

1.2.1 Employee Professionalism in Public Sector

Government officials have been and are seen as stewards of public resources and guardians of a special trust that citizens have placed on them. In return for this confidence, they are expected to put public interest above self-interest. Given these crucial roles, a country expects its public service to demonstrate high standards of professionalism and ethics (United Nations, 2000). Public-sector managers face a number of constraints (such as scarce financial resources, problematic labour relations and weighty and limiting government regulations), which can, at times, result in a highly stressful working environment (Schafer & Toy, 1999). Public-sector employees face stressors from several directions as their decisions and actions affect citizens (community), colleagues, subordinates, supervisors and their personal lives (Morrison, 1977). Thus it is very important that the Public-sector employees practice professionalism at their work place. Professionalism get reflected in the public service employees' behavior at work, their constant effort to improve, reinforce and update knowledge and refine the skills that are necessary for carrying out tasks and enhancing their output and productivity (Ssonko, 2010). Professionalism in the public service is the capability and practice of performing a function in a systematic manner with commitment, selflessness, and concern for the general interest, agreeing to fundamental principles and values, laws, rules and regulations, to present the best possible efficient, effective and innovative public services to the public every time (Kauzya, 2011). Professionalism in the public service is an overarching value that determines how its activities will be carried out. It encompasses all other values that guide the public service such as loyalty, neutrality, transparency, diligence, punctuality, effectiveness, impartiality, and other values that may be specific to individual countries. The public service as a profession, as it developed, espoused the values of probity, neutrality, and fairness, among many others (United Nations, 2000).

Professionalism had been a very pertinent issue in the past as there were studies like "Public Service: Problems, Professionalism, and Policy Recommendations" carried out by Marc Holzer and Jack Rabin (1987) and it is still a very relevant issue in the current scenario in different parts of the world as we can find more and more studies being carried out in this area, such as: "Professionalism and Ethics in the Public Service" by

United Nations (2000), "Professionalism in Practices: A Preliminary Study on Malaysian Public Universities", by Nik Hazimah Nik Mat and Zaharul Nizal Zabidi (2010) , "An Assessment of Professionalism Level in Project Implementation in Kenya: A Case Study of Thika Municipal Council" by Tabitha Gideon (2013*)* and "Professionalism, rewards, job satisfaction and organizational commitment amongst accounting professionals in Uganda" by Samuel K. Sejjaaka and Twaha K. Kaawaase (2014).

1.3 Concept of Employee Outcome

Outcome in a general term is used to describe the state or the change in state of a condition. It allows organizations to identify where a change is desired or has occurred (Kokiri, 2014). Outcomes are the projected effects for effectiveness and quality of service (Webber, 2004). According to Cropanzano, outcomes are of two forms, they are economic outcome and socio-emotional outcome (2005). Economic outcomes are those that address financial needs and tend to be tangible. On the other hand, socio-emotional outcomes concentrate on one's social and esteem needs and signifies that a person is valued or/and treated with dignity (Shore, Tetrick & Barksdale, 2001). Employee outcome is an emotion based on individual's own conception of justice (Cook, 2003). Employee outcomes are the attitudinal and behavioral responses which may fluctuate daily depending on employees' work experiences and it largely reflect situational influences at work (Mostafa et al., 2015).

Sadly, employee outcomes are often of secondary interest, following a primary focus on key business or management outcomes and thus overlook that employee outcomes drive many of the key characteristics of an effective organization (Grawitch & Barber, 2014). Employee outcomes are the results or impact of activities or services, often expressed in terms of an increase in understanding, and improvements in desired behaviors or attitudes of participants and therefore, outcomes hold more qualitative characteristics and are more multifaceted in their composition. For outcomes, the relationship between cause and effect is also less obvious, particularly as outcomes frequently are affected by several outputs from various sources and by other external factors (Lewis, 2007).

Though many studies have examined activities and outcomes salient to a particular organization, two general types of outcomes can be identified: intrinsic and job-related outcomes such as satisfaction, commitment, involvement, motivation, and performance of employees as well as role stress (conflict, ambiguity, etc.), and outcomes that are more supervisory-related such as the support, attention, latitude, and information provided by supervisors to their subordinates. This latter set of outcomes, from the perspective of the supervisor, are things provided to subordinates; from the perspective of the subordinates, these are things they received from a supervisor and, therefore, can be viewed as outcomes to subordinates or employees (Yammarino & Naughton, 1996). Traditional Human Resources Management research has generally focused on individual level outcomes such as job performance (Wright & Boswell, 2002), job satisfaction (Seibert, Silver & Randolph, 2004), and motivation (Joseph, 2011). Dyer and Reeves (1995) suggested that human resources practices have their most immediate impact on employees since employee outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job satisfaction, commitment, and motivation are in a closer line of sight to human resources practices.

1.3.1 Concept of Public Service Motivation

One of the core questions in public administration is how to improve the performance for public services (Hondeghem & Perry, 2009). During the New Public Management era, much research focused on incentives, but such systems have their limits (Perry, Engbers & Jun, 2009). This directs attention towards alternative means of improving public services and employee motivation seems a fruitful starting point for such efforts (Andersen & Serritzlew, 2012). Motivation refers broadly to the forces that energize, direct, and sustain behavior (Perry & Porter, 1982). It is generally believed that public employees are motivated by a sense of service not found among private employees (Houston, 2000; Perry & Wise, 1990). Public employees in government organizations are seen as motivated by a concern for the community and a desire to serve the public interest, and are more likely to be characterized by an ethic that prioritizes intrinsic rewards over extrinsic rewards (Crewson, 1997). In the last two decades, research about Public Service Motivation and related constructs in other fields has grown significantly. Public Service Motivation (PSM) was foremost used in 1982 as a way to express the specific motivation associated with public service (Rainey, 1982). Politicians and policy makers had been searching since the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 for formulas to change government service. It was at this stage that Perry and Wise's essay "The Motivational Bases of Public Service" (1990) appeared in the volume of "Public Administration Review". The article was grounded in thinking about motivational alternatives to merit pay, which had been introduced in the U.S. federal government in 1979. Since that essay appeared, more than 125 studies about public service motivation, covering more than a dozen countries, have been published, many of them since 2000

(Perry, Hondeghem & Wise, 2010). Perry and Wise (1990) offered the first conceptual definition and identified a typology of motives associated with public service that includes rational, norm-based, and affective motives (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010). PSM originates from beliefs that unique motives are found among public servants that are different from those of their private sector counterparts (Perry, Hondeghem & Wise, 2010). It is also found to have a desirable impact on work and social outcomes (Brewer & Selden, 1998; Naff & Crum, 1999). Since its inception, PSM has been a much discussed concept, and no consensual definition exists so far. Perry (1996) defined PSM as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions”. Vandenabeele (2007) defined PSM as ‘the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate’. Public service motivation is also defined as “an individual’s orientation to delivering service to people with the purpose of doing well to others and society” (Hondeghem & Perry, 2009). A more general definition was offered by Rainey and Steinbauer in a subsequent analysis of PSM and government effectiveness. They associated the construct with altruism in referring to PSM as a “general, altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind” (1999).

Perry (1996) constructed a measure scale to study Public Service Motivation (PSM), which includes four dimensions: attraction to policy making, dedication to public interest, compassion, and self sacrifice.

Thus as public employees’ PSM, at both the individual and organizational levels, has been shown to be positively related to performance (Naff & Crum, 1999; Vandenabeele, 2009; Andersen & Serritzlew, 2012). PSM has been included in this study as one of the outcome variables.

1.3.2 Concept of Commitment

Robbins (1978) has pointed out that the existence of dedicated or committed employees serves as the "pivotal variables without which the inanimate assets are worthless." Committed or dedicated employees are expected to be more productive and work with focus on quality to increase customer satisfaction and the profitability of their organisation. In other words, committed employees are the salient resources and the foundations of any organization (Kassahun, 2005). They can be an asset for improving the performance of the organizations (Baruah & Subedi, 2012).

Lee et al. (2000) noted that, a person with strong occupational commitment will more strongly identify with, and experience more positive feelings about, the occupation than will one with weak occupational commitment. This emotional connection that the person feels with the occupation has implications for various work behaviors and, importantly, for whether the person wants to remain in the occupation.

Organizational commitment is defined as an employee’s identification with and involvement in his/her organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Organizational commitment is an important part of an employee’s psychological state because employees who experience high organizational commitment are theorized to engage in many behaviors such as citizenship activities and high job performance that are believed to be beneficial to the organization (Jaros, 1997). Porter et al. (1974) have defined commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification and involvement in a particular organization”.

The concept of organizational commitment refers to a person's affective reactions to characteristics of his employing organization. It is concerned with feelings of attachment to the goals and values of the organization, one's role in relation to this, and attachment to the organization for its own sake rather than for its strictly instrumental value. As a positive outcome of the quality of work experience, the concept can be regarded as a factor contributing to subjective well-being at work (Cook & Wall, 1980). Thus organizational commitment refers to one's attitude toward his or her employing organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

On the other hand, other scholars (Becker, 1960) suggest a cost based commitment, where an individual assesses the perceived 'gains' associated with continued membership of an organisation and the percieved 'costs' associated with leaving and the ultimate decision (leaving or staying) is made based on its comparative advantage. Still others (Hall & Schneider, 1972) consider both identification and involvement as forming the basis of moral attachment to the organization. However the most widely recognised conceptualisation of organisational commitment is the model forwarded by Allen and Meyer who based on the existing Literature, conceptualized commitment in terms of three distinct psychological states, each of which influences whether the person will remain in the organization. These are - emotional attachment to the organization (Affective Commitment), recognisation of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Continuance Commitment), and perceived obligation to remain with the organization (Normative Commitment) (Lee, Allen, Meyer & Rhee, 2001).

Affective Attachment

The most established approach to organizational commitment in the literature is one in which commitment is considered an affective or emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organization. The affective attachment approach is perhaps best represented, however, by the work of Porter and his colleagues (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974) who defined organizational commitment as 'the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' (Mowday et al., 1979). Employees with affective commitment continue service with organization because they want to do so. Kanter (1968) describe commitment as the attachment of an individual’s found of affectivity and emotion to the group. Affective commitment to the goal and values and to the organization for its own sake, a part from its purely instrumental worth argues by Buchanan (1974). Porter and Mowday et al. (1979) describe affective approach as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Therefore, an individual who is affectively committed or emotionally attached to the organization, (i) believe in the goal and values of the organization ,(ii) works hard for the organization and (iii) intend to stay with the organization (Mowday et al.,1982). Meyer and Allen (1996) correlates affective commitment with work experiences where employees experience psychologically comfortable feelings (such as approachable managers), increasing their sense of competence (such as feedback). The development of affective commitment involves recognizing the organization’s worth and internalising its principles and standards (Beck & Wilson, 2000).

Perceived Costs/Continuous Commitment

Commitment here is viewed as a tendency to 'engage in consistent lines of activity' (Becker, 1960) based on the individual's recognition of the 'costs' (or lost side-bets) associated with discontinuing the activity (Becker, I960; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). Kanter (1968), for example, defined ‘continuance commitment' as that which occurs when there is a 'profit associated with continued participation and a "cost" associated with leaving'. For Stebbins (1970), continuance commitment is the 'awareness of the impossibility of choosing a different social identity because of the immense penalties in making the switch'. When employees enter into the organization, they are bound to maintain a link with the organization or committed to remain with the organization because lack of alternative opportunity or awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. The cost associated with leaving includes attractive benefits, the threat of wasting the time, effort spends acquiring, disrupt personal relationship. This was more appropriately defined by Allen and Meyer (1990), he proposed that continuance commitment develops on the basis of two factors (1) number of investment individuals make in their current organization and (2) perceived lack of alternatives. These investment can be anything that the individual considers valuable such as pension plans, organization benefits, status etc that would be lost by leaving the organization, which makes them stay with their current employers (Meyer and Allen, 1984) In the same way, lack of employment alternatives also increases the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization and therefore increase the continuance commitment of employees to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Somers (1993) suggest that continuance commitment can be subdivided into high sacrifice commitment ("personal sacrifice" associated with leaving) and low alternative commitment ("limited opportunities" for other employment). The approach of continuance commitment develops when an individual recognizes that he or she lose investments (the money they earn as a result of the time spent in the organization), and/or perceives that there are no alternatives or other course of action. When an individual's have awareness or consideration about expenses and threats linked to leaving the organization, this form of commitment is considered to be calculative (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1991) also specified that individuals whose most important connection with the organization is based on continuance commitment stay with the organization simply because they have no choice. Whereas affective commitment is, where individuals remain with an organization because they want to and because they are familiar with it and they have emotional attachment with it.

Obligation/Normative Commitment

Obligation/Normative Commitment is a lesser studied component of commitment but is just as viable approach as any other. This approach has been to view commitment as a belief about one's responsibility to the organization. Wiener (1982) defined commitment as the 'totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests', and suggests that individuals exhibit behaviours solely because 'they believe it is the "right" and moral thing to do'. Although they do not refer to it as commitment, other authors (Prestholdt, Lane & Mathews, 1987; Schwartz, 1973; Schwartz & Tessler, 1972) have identified personal norms (defined as internalized moral obligation) as important contributors to behaviour, including terminating employment with an organization (Prestholdt et al., 1987). Normative commitment develops on the basis of earlier experiences influenced by, for example family-based experiences (parents that stress work loyalty) or cultural experiences (sanctions against “job-hopping”) (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Normative commitment can increase through beliefs that the employees have that employers provide more than they can give. The normative commitment facet develops as individuals’ perception of their moral obligation to remain with a specific organization, irrespective of how much status improvement or fulfillment the organization gives the individual over the years (Marsh & Mannari, 1977). So, normative commitment/obligation can be seen as a result of the receipt of benefits (which encourages a feeling that one should reciprocate), and/or acceptance of the terms of a psychological contract.

Porter and his colleagues developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure the commitment construct (Mowday et al., 1979). This 15-item scale has been used extensively in research and has acceptable psychometric properties.

Thus, the availability of the truly committed employees constitutes assets that facilitate a company to garner competitive advantage (Kassahun, 2005).

1.3.3 Concept of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the highest studied and important variables in organizational studies. Job satisfaction focuses on employees’ response to the experience of their job (Mowday et al., 1982). Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as, “a positive emotional feeling, a result of one’s evaluation towards his job or his job experience by comparing between what he expects from his job and what he actually gets from it”. It is the most accepted definition of job satisfaction even today. Where Organizational commitment emphasizes on attachment to the organization, including its goals and values, job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from employees’ appraisal of their jobs (Locke, 1976; Agho et al., 1993). Moreover, it is believed that a more satisfied employee will have more innovative activities in continuous quality improvement and will also participate more in decision-making in organizations (Kivimaki & Kalimo, 1994). Job satisfaction has been identified as most frequently studied variable in organizational research (Dali et al., 2013). Van Scooter (2000), states that job satisfaction is a very attractive topic for a lot of researchers. This is because job satisfaction has a lot of implications in the performance of an organization. Greenberg and Baron (2003) described job satisfaction as a positive or negative attitude of individual toward their job. Low job satisfaction in an organization is a series of declining duties implementation, increased absenteeism, and lower morale organization (Dali et al., 2013). Job satisfaction refers to the positive emotional state arising from one's assessment of one's workplace experiences (Barling et al., 2003). Job satisfaction encompasses extrinsic as well as intrinsic values. Extrinsic values include the tangible aspects of the job including wages, benefits and bonuses, whereas intrinsic values include status, recognition, personal and professional development opportunities, and other similar factors (Cowin, 2002). This study therefore, suggested that job satisfaction is a multi-faceted construct and should have both intrinsic as well as extrinsic factors to measure job satisfaction (Tzeng, 2002).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) provided the primary means for measuring job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1969). The measure assesses five dimensions of job satisfaction:

(1) Satisfaction with Work;

(2) Satisfaction with Pay;

(3) Satisfaction with Promotions;

(4) Satisfaction with Supervision; and

(5) Satisfaction with Co-workers

A sixth dimension concerning overall job satisfaction was attained by summing up the responses of direct questions included in a Likert-type scale developed by Wanous (1974). Thus, in order to determine job satisfaction, the 'Job in General' as a sub-variable has been added to the JDI in recent years (Schneider & Vaught, 1993).

1.4 The Concept of Rural Development

Rural Development had been an area of interest for researchers for decades. Thus it is not a new topic of discussion. In order to know about rural development, first it is necessary that we understand the meaning of 'Rural'. The term 'rural' was first used by the U.S. Bureau of the Census in 1874 when it was referred for indicating the population of a county exclusive of any cities or towns with 8,000 or more inhabitants (Whitaker, 1982). Next comes the term 'rural development'. World Bank defined rural development as 'a strategy to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people, the rural poor including small and marginal farmers, tenants and the landless' (1975). Robert Chambers states that 'rural development is a strategy to enable a specific group of people, poor rural women and men, to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need. It involves helping the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas to demand and control more of the benefits of rural development. The group includes small scale farmers, tenants and the landless' (1983). Rural development is regarded as an improvement in the economic and social conditions of the rural people. Therefore every effort should be aimed at uplifting the social and economic status of the rural masses. Rural development is essentially a part of the process of structural transformation characterised by diversification of the economy away from agriculture (Gill et al., 1999).

In India of course we start with the reflection of Gandhiji's thought that real India lies in the villages. Rural development has been among the most critical components of the official discourse on social and economic change during the post-Independence period in India. This is quite understandable. Given that at the time of India's Independence nearly 85% of the Indian population lived in rural settlements. It was where the soul of India lived and more than six decades later, nearly 70% of India's population continues to be rural (Jodhka, 2014).

Mishra and Sunderam define rural development as not merely development of rural areas but also the development of quality of life of the rural masses into self-reliant and self-sustaining modern little communities (as cited in Sharma, 2013). During early days, rural development was synonym to agricultural development and community development that included the entire population of rural areas. Rural development involved both socio-political and economic development of rural areas as part of the modernisation of the entire society and distribution mechanism of overall development. Over time this agriculture-centric concept of rural development undergoes changes. The concept now includes a measurement of changes in the quality of life, environmentally safe living condition, improvement in nutrition and health, transport and communication, education and reduction in inequalities between gender and income (Sharma, 2013).

1.5 An Outline of Arunachal Pradesh

The North East of India consists of eight states namely, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura. Excluding Assam, Tripura and Manipur rest of the states are hilly in nature and are tribal dominated (Srivastav & Syngkon, 2008).

The present research study is carried out in Arunachal Pradesh, which is the largest state amongst all the North Eastern states of India. Arunachal Pradesh is popularly known as the 'Land of Rising Sun' (arunachalpradesh.gov.in, n.d.) and also as the 'Land of the Dawn-lit Mountains' (Department of Planning, 2012). According to the State Gazetteer, the word 'Arunachal' is a combination of two words viz. 'Arun' and 'Achal' where 'Arun' means Sun or the rising Sun and 'Anchal' means border or edge (2010). Arunachal Pradesh was renamed on 20th January, 1972 as a Union Territory from North East Frontier Agency (NEFA). The status of Union Territory was later on elevated to full fledged state on 20th February, 1987. Arunachal Pradesh covers an area of 83743 sq. km mountainous terrain. It is home to as many as 26 different tribes and 110 sub-tribes and minor tribes speaking as many as 43 different dialects. On the basis of socio-religious affinities, the people inhibiting in the State are divided into three broad cultural groups. The Monpas and Sherdukpens of Tawang, West Kameng districts follow the Lamaistic tradition of Mahayana. The Khamptis and Singhpos inhibiting in Lohit and Chaglang districts practise Hinayana section of Buddhism. The second group of people are the Adis, Galos, Akas, Apatanis, Nyishis, Mishmis, Mijis, Tangsas etc who worship the Sun and Moon God, called 'Donyi-Polo' and 'Abo-Tani'. The third group comprises of Noctes and Wanchos of Tirap district who practice the elementary form of vaishnavism (Department of Planning, 2012). Arunachal Pradesh has 21districts with 110 circles, 27 towns, 99 blocks and 5589 villages (GOI Web directory, n.d.). The population as per 2011 census is 1382611 (Male – 720232, Female - 662379). Itanagar is the capital of the state since 1974. The decennial growth rate (2001 -2011) is 25.92 % and the sex ratio of the state is 920 female per 1000 male and the density of population is 17 people per sq. km. The literacy rate of the state is 66.95 % where literacy rate for male is 73.69% and for female the literacy rate is 59.57%. The most populous district is Papumpare district with population of 176385 and the least populous district is Dibang Valley which consist 7948 people. Papumpare district is also the most literate district with literacy rate of 82.14 % whereas Kurung Kumey district is the least literate district with 50.67 % of literacy rate (Dutta, 2010).

For the year 2011-2012 Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) was 76,322 which is the highest among all the eight north eastern states of India (Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura). However the data for Human Development Index (HDI) for Arunachal Pradesh is not impressive. First for all the HDI score for Arunachal Pradesh has declined in the last decade, as in the year 1999-2000 the HDI score for Arunachal Pradesh was 0.168 as compared to 0.127 HDI score in 2011-2012. In addition to that, the HDI score of Arunachal Pradesh for the year 2011-2012 is the lowest among all the north eastern states of India (Assam – 0.138, Manipur – 0.199, Meghalaya – 0.246, Mizoram – 0.408, Nagaland – 0.257, Sikkim – 0.324 and Tripura – 0.354) (Mukkherjee, Chakraborty & Sikdar, 2014).

1.6 Rural Development in Arunachal Pradesh

The distribution of the population in Arunachal Pradesh is 1069165 rural population (77.33%) and urban population is 313446 (22.67%). Agriculture is the mainstay of livelihood of the inhabitants of Arunachal Pradesh in tradition. The shifting as well as settled cultivation is practiced in the state. Animal husbandry (rearing of Mithun, Pig, Yak), trade and business, cottage industries (weaving, carpet making, wood crafting, cane and bamboo works, bead making etc.) also play an important role in strengthening the traditional economy. Recently Horticulture (apple, orange, tea, kiwi, large cardamom, rubber etc.) and Pisciculture are also practiced and thereby enhancing the economy of Arunachal Pradesh. The topographical situation of Arunachal Pradesh has direct influence on the economy of the State. From the economy point of view the whole State may be divided into three lateral belts each having a distinct pattern of economic development. The upper belt bordering the International frontiers had economic ties with the people across the border although this has of late been diverted towards the middle and the lower belts. The lower belt consisting mainly of the foothills, has intimate economic ties with the adjoining plains of Assam. The middle belt acted as a bridge between the upper and the lower belts, the people inhibiting the three belts are at different stages of economic developments (Dutta, 2010).

Arunachal Pradesh is one of the most backward States in the country in terms of economic parameters even though it is strategically important to the country. The isolation from the main stream India also contributed to formidable problems to the efforts of socio-economic development of the State (Department of Planning, 2012).

When the administration of the vast hilly territory of Arunachal Pradesh was taken over by the Indian government in 1947, it was an uphill task to take up development activities in the area mainly because of the non-availability of proper communication facilities. In the initial stage, the task before the government was to penetrate deep into the area by opening administrative centres. Simultaneously efforts were made to improve road communication to facilitate implementation of various other schemes to develop the area and bring the people to a certain level of economic development. Thus the face of Arunachal Pradesh is changing as well as progressing gradually (Dutta, 2010).

Arunachal Pradesh being an underdeveloped state depends totally upon central assistance for its sustenance. The status of rural development in Arunachal Pradesh is more or less static and even after decades of achieving Statehood, the Department of Rural Development, Government of Arunachal Pradesh (GoAP) still has no Scheme of its own. The Department of Rural Development, Govt. of Arunachal Pradesh is primarily responsible for planning, implementation and monitoring of various Centrally Sponsored Schemes designed by the Government of India for alleviation of rural poverty. But whether the department and its officials exert their best efforts to implement the schemes efficiently raises a big question mark.

On the other hand, mere development of central assistance will not make the State self-sustainable. If it had been so, the North Eastern states should have been at par with other mainland Indian States. Thus this implies that the money received by these North Eastern states in terms of Grant-in-aid has limited circulation effect on the economy (Chakrabarti, 2009).

The planners have been discussing about the need for organisations of rural workers and their participation, involvement of all sections of people, land reforms and minimum needs programme as investment in human resource-development. Lack of achievement in these and other areas cannot be only due to faulty implementation, there are socio political factors including faculty organisation designs and ineffective managerial process which might play a a role in the sluggish development of the State. Poverty alleviation programmes and policies need sound organisation, trained and dedicated personnel with concern for good performance, appropriate co-ordination and controls, effective implementation, prompt decision making, monitoring and regulation of operations, analysis of activities and results in each section, moral and material incentives to groups and individuals (Metha, 1985). Thus the practice of professionalism by employee will help in the overall improvement in the service delivery to the public.

1.7 Summary of the Chapter

First of all the chapter introduced the topic and concerned areas of this study. Next the chapter presented the discussions on professionalism and how important it is for human resource management as well as for effective and efficient employees. It also presented the concepts of employee professionalism and employee outcome. A glimpse of the variables considered under employee outcome for the present study is also revealed here, they are – Public Service Motivation, Commitment and Job Satisfaction. The chapter also highlighted the concepts of these three employee outcome variables namely Public Service Motivation, Commitment and Job Satisfaction and the very important role they play in improving the performance of employees of an organization. Later it discussed the concept of rural development and a brief overview of Arunachal Pradesh.